CHAPTER 11, VECTORS, CURVES AND SURFACES IN SPACE \mathbb{R}^3

11.2 THREE DIMENSIONAL RECTANGULAR COORDINATES AND VECTORS Rectangular Coordinates. P(x, y, z)

Distance in \mathbb{R}^3 .

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

Vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 .

$$\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3), \text{ length } |\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}.$$

 $\mathbf{i} = (1, 0, 0), \mathbf{j} = (0, 1, 0), \mathbf{k} = (0, 0, 1).$

Dot Product of two Vectors.

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3.$$

Example. $(3, 4, 12) \cdot (-4, 3, 0)$

Properties of Dot Product.

- (1) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{a}|^2$,
- (2) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}$,
- (3) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$,
- (4) $(\lambda \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = \lambda(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot (\lambda \mathbf{b}).$

Theorem. $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta$, or $\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}$. Where θ is the angle between \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} .

Example.

(1) $(8,5) \cdot (-11,17)$, (2) $(8,5,-1) \cdot (-11,17,3)$.

Directional Angles, directional Cosine of a.

(1)
$$\alpha = \angle \mathbf{a}\mathbf{i}, \quad \cos \alpha$$

(2) $\beta = \angle \mathbf{a}\mathbf{j}, \quad \cos \beta$
(3) $\gamma = \angle \mathbf{a}\mathbf{k}, \quad \cos \gamma$.
Hence $\cos \alpha = \frac{a_1}{|\mathbf{a}|}, \cos \beta = \frac{a_2}{|\mathbf{a}|}, \cos \gamma = \frac{a_3}{|\mathbf{a}|}$.

Example. (2, 3, -1).

DEFINITION.Let a, b be two nontrivial vectors.

- (1) $\mathbf{a}_{\parallel} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|^2} \mathbf{b}$, which is the component of a in the direction of b.
- (2) $\mathbf{a}_{\perp} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}_{\parallel}$ which is the component of a perpendicular to b.

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Example. (4, 5, 3), (2, 1, -2).

Remark. Let \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} be any pair of othogonal vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 , then any vector \mathbf{x} in \mathbb{R}^2 can be written as

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|^2} \mathbf{a} + \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|^2} \mathbf{b}.$$
 (*)

11.3 Cross Product of Vectors

DEFINITION.

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = (a_2b_3 - a_3b_2, a_3b_1 - a_1b_3, a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)$$

also

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} + \begin{vmatrix} a_3 & a_1 \\ b_3 & b_1 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Example.

(1)
$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j},$$

(2) $(3, -1, 2) \times (2, 2, -1)$.

Theorem. $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta$.

Example. $\triangle ABC, A(3, 0, -1), B(4, 2, 5), C(7, -2, 4)$

Properties of cross product.

(1) $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$. (2) $(\lambda \mathbf{a}) \times \mathbf{b} = \lambda(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \times (\lambda \mathbf{b})$. (3) $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$. (4) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c}$. (5) $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}$.

Proof of(5). (I) Assume $\mathbf{b} \perp \mathbf{c}$. Since $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) \perp (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$, it is in the plane generated by \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} . In order to apply (*), let's compute

$$(\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})) \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \cdot ((\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) \times \mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}) |\mathbf{b}|^2.$$

And similarly

$$(\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})) \cdot \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} \cdot ((\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) \times \mathbf{c}) = -(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})|\mathbf{c}|^2.$$

Now by (*) we prove (5) in this case.

(II) In general

$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times (\mathbf{c}_{\perp} + \mathbf{c}_{\parallel}) = \mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}_{\perp}).$$

Apply (I) we get

$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}_{\perp})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}_{\perp}.$$

But the right hand side is equal to $(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}$.

DEFINITION. Scalar triple product $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$

Example.

(1) $(\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}) \times (3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}),$ (2) $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{c} = 4\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}.$

Theorem. $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ is the volume of the parallelpiped generated by $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}$.

Example.

(1) O(0,0,0), P(3,2,-1), Q(-2,5,1), R(2,1,5), (2) A(1,-1,2), B(2,0,1), C(3,2,0), D(5,4,-2) coplanar.

11.4 Lines and Planes in Space \mathbb{R}^3

Line in Parametric Equation. Given a point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and a direction $\mathbf{u} = (a, b, c)$, the line pass P along the direction \mathbf{u} is represented by $x = x_0 + at$, $y = y_0 + bt$, $z = z_0 + ct$

Example.

(1) $P_1(1,2,2), P_2(3,-1,3),$ (2) x = 1 + 2t, y = 2 - 3t, z = 2 + t.

Line in Symmetric Equation.

$$\frac{x-x_0}{a} = \frac{y-y_0}{b} = \frac{z-z_0}{c}$$
, or if $c = 0, z = z_0$.

Example. $P_1(3, 1, -2), P_2(4, -1, 1).$

Plan. Given a point $\mathbf{r}_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and a direction $\mathbf{n} = (a, b, c)$, the plane pass \mathbf{r}_0 and normal to \mathbf{n} is represented by

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0) = 0.$$
 or $ax + by + cz = ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0$

Example.

- (1) $\mathbf{r}_0 = (-1, 5, 2), \mathbf{n} = (1, -3, 2),$
- (2) P(2, 4, -3), Q(3, 7, -1), R(4, 3, 0).

Parallel Planes, Angle between two nonparallel planes. Two planes are parallel if $\mathbf{n}_1 = \lambda \mathbf{n}_2$. The angle between two non parallel planes is $\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{n}_1 \cdot \mathbf{n}_2}{|\mathbf{n}_1| ||\mathbf{n}_2|}$.

Example. 2x + 3y - z = 3, 4x + 5y + z = 1.

The intersection line of two nonparallel planes.

$$\mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{n}_1 \times \mathbf{n}_2.$$

Example. $\frac{x-3}{1} = \frac{y-1}{-2} = \frac{z+2}{3}$ or 2x + y = 7, 3x - z = 11, 3y + 2z = -1.

Distance from a point to a line. For given point P and line $Q + t\mathbf{u}$, the distance is given by

$$|\overrightarrow{PQ} - [\overrightarrow{PQ} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{u}}{|\mathbf{u}|}]\frac{\mathbf{u}}{|\mathbf{u}|}|.$$

Distance from a point to a Plane. For given point *P* and plane $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0) = 0$, the distance is given by

$$d = \left|\frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0)}{|\mathbf{n}|}\right|$$

or

$$d = \frac{ax + by + cz - ax_0 - by_0 - cz_0|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}.$$

Distance between two nonparallel nonintersecting lines. Let $P + t\mathbf{u}$ and $Q + s\mathbf{v}$ be two nonparallel lines, then the distance between them can be represented by

$$|\overrightarrow{PQ} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|}|.$$

11.5 Curves and Motions in Space

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

Example.

(1)
$$x(t) = (2 + \cos \frac{3}{2}t) \cos t, y(t) = (2 + \cos \frac{3}{2}t) \sin t, z(t) = \sin \frac{3}{2}t,$$

(2) $x(t) = 4\cos t, y(t) = 4\sin t, z(t) = 0,$

(3) $x(t) = 5\cos t, y(t) = 0, z(t) = 3\sin t,$

(4) $x(t) = 0, y(t) = 3\cos t, z(t) = 5\sin t.$

Vector Valued Function.

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)).$$

Example. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, t)$

Limits, Continuity, Differentiation and Integration of Vector Valued Function. The Limits, Continuity, Differentiation and Integration of Vector Valued Functions are consider componentwisely.

Example. The tangent of $(\cos t, \sin t, t)$.

Theorem.

- (1) $[\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}]'(t) = \mathbf{u}'(t) + \mathbf{v}'(t),$
- (2) $[c\mathbf{u}]'(t) = c\mathbf{u}'(t),$
- (3) $[f\mathbf{u}]'(t) = f'(t)\mathbf{u}(t) + f(t)\mathbf{u}'(t),$
- (4) $[\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}]'(t) = \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t),$
- (5) $[\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}]'(t) = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t).$

Example. If $|\mathbf{r}(t)| = c$ then $\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) = 0$ and if $\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) = 0$, then $\mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) = -\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)$.

Velocity vector and Acceleration vector.

- (1) $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$ is the velocity vector,
- (2) $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t)$ is the accelration vector,
- (3) $|\mathbf{v}(t)|$ is the speed function and $|\mathbf{a}(t)|$ is the scalar acceleration function.

Example.

- (1) $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j},$
- (2) $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} + a \sin \omega t + bt \mathbf{k}$ is the solution to $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{F} = (q\mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{B} = b\mathbf{k}.$
- (3) $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} + 6t\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{r}(0) = 2\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} \mathbf{j},$
- (4) $\mathbf{a}(t) = -32\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{r}(0) = 1600, \mathbf{v}(0) = 220, \mathbf{r}(?) = 0,$
- (5) $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} 32\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{r}(0) = (0, 0, 0), \mathbf{v}(0) = 80\mathbf{j} + 80\mathbf{k}, z(?) = 0.$

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11.6 CURVATURE AND ACCELERATION

Arc Length. $s = \int_a^b |\mathbf{v}(t)| dt$.

Example. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (a \cos \omega t, a \sin \omega t, bt)$

Paramatrized by arclength.

Example. As above.

Curvature of Plane Curve. Let $\mathbf{T} = (\cos \phi, \sin \phi)$ be the unit tangent vector. Then $\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = (-\sin \phi \mathbf{i} + \cos \phi \mathbf{j}) \frac{d\phi}{ds}$, and let $\kappa = |\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}| = |\frac{d\phi}{ds}|$, is the curvature of the curve, and it can be represented by

$$\kappa = \frac{|y''x' - x''y'|}{(\sqrt{(x')^2 + (y')^2})^3}.$$

In the case of graph (x, f(x)),

$$\kappa = \frac{|y''|}{(1+(y')^2)^{32}}.$$

Example. $(a \cos t, a \sin t), \kappa = \frac{1}{a}$ Write

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \kappa \mathbf{N}$$

N is called the principal normal. $\frac{d\mathbf{N}}{ds} = -\kappa \mathbf{T}$.

Theorem. Suppose that $\kappa \equiv 0$, then $\mathbf{r}(s) = \mathbf{r}(0) + sT$.

Proof. Since $\kappa \equiv 0$, $\mathbf{T}(s)$ is a constant vector \mathbf{T} . Hence $\mathbf{r}(s) = \mathbf{r}(0) + \int_0^s \mathbf{T} ds = \mathbf{r}(0) + s\mathbf{T}$.

Theorem. Let **r** and **r**₁ be two curves paramatrized by arclength, suppose that $\kappa \equiv \kappa_1$ then **r** and **r**₁ are congruent.

Proof. Since $\frac{d}{ds}[|\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{T}_1|^2 + |\mathbf{N} - \mathbf{N}_1|^2] = 0$, $|\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{T}_1|^2 + |\mathbf{N} - \mathbf{N}_1|^2$ is a constant. After translation, rotation and reflection(if necessary), we may assume that $\mathbf{r}(0) = (0,0) = \mathbf{r}_1(0), \mathbf{T}(0) = \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{T}_1(0), \mathbf{N}(0) = \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{N}_1(0)$. Hence $|\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{T}_1| \equiv 0 \equiv |\mathbf{N} - \mathbf{N}_1|$. So $\mathbf{r}(s) = \int_0^s \mathbf{T} ds = \int_0^s \mathbf{T}_1 ds = \mathbf{r}_1(s)$.

Osculation circle (Circle of Curvature), Radius of Curvature, Center of Curvature. $\rho = \frac{1}{\kappa}$ is the radius of curvature and $\gamma = \mathbf{r} + \rho \mathbf{N}$ is the center of curvature.

Example. $y = x^2$

Curvature of Space Curves. Let **T** be the unit tangent of a space curve, then $\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \kappa \mathbf{N}$ define the curvature κ and the pricipal normal **N** and then $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$ is the binormal. And also $\frac{d}{ds}\mathbf{B} = -\tau \mathbf{N}, \tau$ is the torsion.

Example. $(a \cos \omega t, a \sin \omega t, bt)$.

Theorem. If $\tau \equiv 0$, then $\mathbf{r}(s)$ is a plane curve.

Proof. Since $\tau \equiv 0$ implies that $\frac{d}{ds}\mathbf{B} \equiv 0$, that means **B** is a constant vector. After rotation we may assume $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{k}$, then $\mathbf{T}(s) = \cos\theta(s)\mathbf{i} + \sin\theta(s)\mathbf{j}$. Then $\mathbf{r}(s) = \mathbf{r}(0) + \int_0^s \mathbf{T}(s)ds$ is a plane curve.

Theorem.

$$\frac{d\mathbf{N}}{ds} = -\kappa \mathbf{T} + \tau \mathbf{B}.$$

Theorem. Let $\mathbf{r}(s)$ and $\mathbf{r}_1(s)$ be two curve parametrized by arclength if $\kappa \equiv \kappa_1, \tau \equiv \tau_1$, then $\mathbf{r}(s)$ and $\mathbf{r}_1(s)$ are congruent.

Tangent and Normal Component of Acceleration.

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d}{dt}(v\mathbf{T}) = \frac{dv}{dt}\mathbf{T} + \kappa v^2 \mathbf{N} = a_T \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N}$$

where $a_T = \frac{dv}{dt}$, $a_N = \kappa v^2$ are the tangent and normal components respectively of the acceleration.

Example. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\frac{3}{2}t^2, \frac{4}{3}t^3)$

Computation in terms of v, a.

(1)
$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a} = (v\mathbf{T}) \cdot (a_T\mathbf{T} + a_N\mathbf{N}) = a_T, a_T = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{v},$$

(2) $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a} = va_N\mathbf{B} = \kappa v^2\mathbf{B}, \kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|}{v^3}, a_N = \frac{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|}{v},$
(3) $\mathbf{N} = \frac{\mathbf{a} - a_T\mathbf{T}}{a_N}.$

Example. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t, \frac{1}{2}t^2, \frac{1}{3}t^3).$

Kepler vs Newton.

Kepler's Law.

- (1) The orbit of each planlet is an ellpise with the sun at one focus.
- (2) The radius vector from the sun to a planlet sweeps out area at constant rate.
- (3) The square of the period of revolution of planlet about the sun is proportional to cube of ther major semiaxis of the elliptic orbit.

In short

Kepler's Law.

- (1) The orbit can be represented by $r = \frac{pe}{1+r\cos\theta}$.
- (2) $r^2(t)\theta'(t)$ is a constant h = r(0)v(0)
- (3) $\frac{T^2}{a^3}$ is constant

Definition. A force field is called center force field if $\mathbf{F} \parallel \mathbf{r}$.

Theorem. The motion under a center force field is a planar motion.

Proof. Sinc $\mathbf{F} \parallel \mathbf{r}$, then $\mathbf{a} \parallel \mathbf{r}$.

$$\frac{d(\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v})}{dt} = \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0},$$

so $\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}$ is a constant vector, after a rotation we may assume that $\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v} = c\mathbf{k}$. So $\mathbf{r}(t) \perp \mathbf{k}$, hence we have $\mathbf{r}(t) = \phi(t)\mathbf{i} + \psi(t)\mathbf{j}$.

Definition. $\mathbf{u}_r = \cos\theta \mathbf{i} + \sin\theta \mathbf{j}$ is the radial unit vector and $\mathbf{u}_{\theta} = -\sin\theta \mathbf{i} + \cos\theta \mathbf{j}$ is the transverse unit vector. It is clear

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}_r}{dt} = \theta' \mathbf{u}_{\theta}, \frac{d\mathbf{u}_{\theta}}{dt} = -\theta' \mathbf{u}_r.$$
(0)

Now for planar motion

$$\mathbf{r} = r\mathbf{u}_r,$$

$$\mathbf{v} = r'\mathbf{u}_r + r\theta'\mathbf{u}_\theta,$$
 (1)

$$\mathbf{a} = (r'' - r(\theta')^2)\mathbf{u}_r + (2r'\theta' + r\theta'')\mathbf{u}_\theta.$$
 (2)

The force is center force if and only if

$$(2r'\theta' + r\theta'') = 0. \tag{3}$$

But that means

$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{dr^2\theta'}{dt} = 0$$

$$r^2\theta' = h$$
(4)

and hence

is a constant, that is the Kepler's 2nd law,

Kepler implies Newton.

Proof. From Kepler's 2nd law $r^2\theta' = h$ is a constant, we get that

$$\mathbf{a} = (r'' - r(\theta')^2)\mathbf{u}_r.$$
(4)

And from Kepler's 1st law

$$r = \frac{pe}{1 + e\cos\theta}.\tag{6}$$

Then

$$r' = \frac{pee\sin\theta\theta'}{(1+e\cos\theta)^2},\tag{7}$$

$$r'' = \frac{pe2(e\sin\theta\theta')^3}{(1+e\cos\theta)^3} + \frac{pee\cos\theta(\theta')^2}{(1+e\cos\theta)^2} + \frac{pee\sin\theta\theta''}{(1+e\cos\theta)^2}.$$
(8)

By (3) the first and third terms on the right hand side of (8) cancel out each other, that gives

$$r'' = \frac{pee\cos\theta(\theta')^2}{(1+e\cos\theta)^2}.$$
(9)

By (3), (4), (5), (6), (9) we get

$$\mathbf{a} = -\frac{pe(\theta')^2}{(1+e\cos\theta)^2}\mathbf{u}_r = -\frac{h^2/(pe)}{r^2}\mathbf{u}_r$$

with $\mu = \frac{h^2}{pe}$ we complete the proof of Newton's gravitation law

$$\mathbf{a} = -\frac{\mu}{r^2} \mathbf{u}_r.$$
 (10)

Newton implies Kepler.

Proof. From Newton's law (10) we have from (2),(3) and (4) $r^2\theta' = h$ and

$$\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \mathbf{a} = -\frac{\mu}{r^2}\mathbf{u}_r = \frac{\mu}{r^2\theta'}\frac{d\mathbf{u}_\theta}{dt} = \frac{\mu}{h}\frac{d\mathbf{u}_\theta}{dt}$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{v} = rac{\mu}{h} \mathbf{u}_{ heta} + \mathbf{C}.$$

Now assume that r(0) is the minimum of r(t), hence r'(0) = 0 and $\mathbf{r}(0) = r(0)\mathbf{i}$ and then by (1) $\mathbf{v}(0) = v(0)\mathbf{j} = r(0)\theta'(0)\mathbf{j}$, hence $h = (r(0))^2\theta(0) = r(0)v(0)$. Let t = 0 we have

$$\mathbf{C} = (v(0) - \frac{\mu}{h})\mathbf{j}.$$

So

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{\mu}{h}\mathbf{u}_{\theta} + (v(0) - \frac{\mu}{h})\mathbf{j}$$

Take the dot product with \mathbf{u}_{θ} we get

$$r\theta' = \frac{\mu}{h} + (v(0) - \frac{\mu}{h})\cos\theta,$$

hence

$$\frac{h}{r} = \frac{\mu}{h} + (v(0) - \frac{\mu}{h})\cos\theta.$$

That gives

$$r = \frac{h^2/\mu}{1 + (v(0)h/\mu - 1)\cos\theta} = \frac{pe}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

with $pe = \frac{h^2}{\mu}$ and $e = \frac{v(0)h}{\mu} - 1 = \frac{r(0)(v(0))^2}{\mu} - 1$. To prove (3) of Kepler, since $Th = \pi ab$ and $a = \frac{pe}{1-e^2}, b = \frac{pe}{\sqrt{1-e^2}}$.

$$T^{2}h^{2} = \pi^{2} \frac{(pe)^{4}}{(1-e^{2})^{3}} = \pi^{2}a^{3}pe^{2}$$

so $\frac{T^2}{a^3} = \pi^2 \frac{pe}{h^2}$.

11.7 Cylinders and Quadratic Surfaces

Cylinder.

Example.

(1) $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, (2) $x = \sin t, y = \sin 2t$, (3) $4y^2 + 9z^2 = 36$, (4) $z = 4 - x^2$.

Surface of revolution.

Example. $4y^2 + z^2 = 4$, revolution

- (1) about *y*-axis is $4x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 4$,
- (2) about *z*-axis is $x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 4$.

For a curve given by f(x, y) = 0 the surface of revolution about x-axis is $f(\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}, y) = 0$.

Quadratic Surface.

Example.

- (1) $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ is a quadratic cone. (2) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ is an ellpisoid. (3) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{x^2}{a^2} = \frac{z}{c}$ is elliptic parabaloid. (4) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = \frac{z^2}{c^2}$ is an ellptic cone. (5) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ is a hyperboloid of one sheet. (6) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} \frac{y^2}{b^2} \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ is a hyperboloid of two sheets. (7) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} \frac{y^2}{b^2} = \frac{z}{c}$ is a hyperbolic paraboloid.

11.8 Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates

Cylindrical Coordinates.

$$x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta, z = z$$
$$r^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2}, \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}, z = z$$

Example. (1) $(4, 5\pi, 7)$

(1)
$$(4, \frac{5\pi}{3}, 7),$$

(2) $(-2, 2, 5),$
(3) $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2,$
(4) $z^2 = x^2 + y^2,$
(5) $z = x^2 + y^2,$
(6) $(\frac{x}{3})^2 + (\frac{y}{3})^2 + (\frac{z}{2})^2 = 1.$

Spherical Coordinates.

$$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, z = \rho \cos \phi$$

Example.

(1)
$$(8, \frac{5\pi}{6}, \frac{\pi}{3}),$$

(2) $(-3, -4, -12),$
(3) $z = x^2 + y^2,$
(4) $\rho = 2\cos\phi,$
(5) $\rho = \sin\phi\sin\theta.$