

# Lecture XIV: § 2.4: Planes in $\mathbb{R}^3$

§ 3.1, 3.2:  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as a vector space

## § 1. Planes in $\mathbb{R}^3$

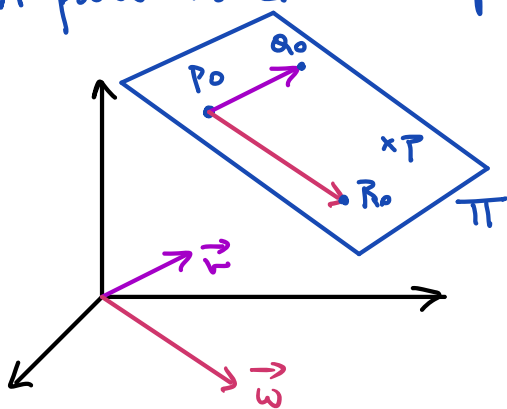
- A typical equation of a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is

$$ax + by + cz = d \quad (\text{1 linear eqn in 3 variables})$$

where either  $a, b$  or  $c \neq 0$

- Geometrically, a plane  $\Pi$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is given in 2 possible ways:

- ① A point  $P_0$  & 2 non-parallel direction  $\vec{v}$  &  $\vec{w}$ .

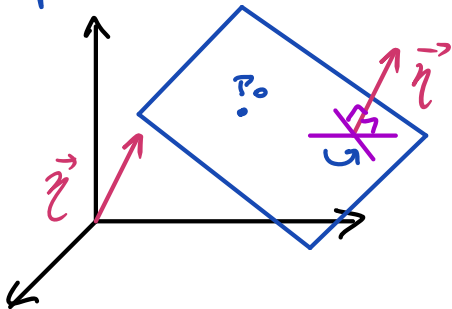


Equivalently: 3 non collinear points

$P_0, Q_0, R_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

$$(\vec{v} = \overrightarrow{P_0Q_0}, \vec{w} = \overrightarrow{P_0R_0})$$

- ② A point  $P_0$  & a normal direction  $\vec{n}$



$\vec{n}$  orients the plane via the right-hand rule

$\vec{n} \perp \vec{v}$  &  $\vec{n} \perp \vec{w}$ , so we can

$$\text{take } \vec{n} = \vec{v} \times \vec{w} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{w} \times \vec{v}$$

Vector equation:  $\overrightarrow{P_0P} \cdot \vec{n} = 0$

Explicitly:  $P = (x, y, z)$   $\vec{n} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow a(x-x_0) + b(y-y_0) + c(z-z_0) = 0$   
 $P_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$

Example: ① Describe the plane through  $\overset{P_0}{(1,0,0)}, \overset{Q_0}{(0,1,0)} \& \overset{R_0}{(0,0,1)}$

$$\vec{n} = \overrightarrow{P_0Q_0} \times \overrightarrow{P_0R_0} = \det \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = i - j(-1) + k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A:  $1(x-1) + 1(y-0) + 1(z-0) = 0 \Rightarrow x + y + z = 1$

② Compute the intersection of the plane  $2x - y + z = 2$  with the  $xy$ -plane

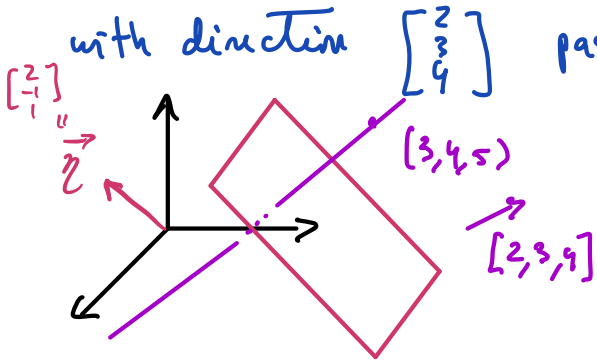
$$\begin{cases} 2x - y + z = 2 \\ z = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow 2x - y = 2 \text{ line in } \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 2x - 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad x \text{ in } \mathbb{R}.$$

Line through  $(0, -2, 0)$  with direction  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

③ Compute the intersection of the plane  $2x - y + z = 2$  with the line

with direction  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$  passing through  $(3, 4, 5)$



Parametric eqn of the line

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 + 2t \\ 4 + 3t \\ 5 + 4t \end{bmatrix}$$

Substitute these values in the equation of the plane.

$$2(3 + 2t) - (4 + 3t) + (5 + 4t) = 2$$

$$(6 - 4 + 5) + (4 - 3 + 4)t = 2$$

$$7 + 5t = 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad t = -1$$

$$\text{So } P = (x, y, z) = (3 - 2, 4 - 3, 5 - 4) = (1, 1, 1).$$

OPTION 2

Solve the  $3 \times 3$  system

(2 eqns of line)  
+ eqn of plane

$$\begin{cases} \frac{x-3}{2} = \frac{y-4}{3} \\ \frac{x-3}{2} = \frac{z-5}{4} \\ 2x - y + z = 2 \end{cases}$$

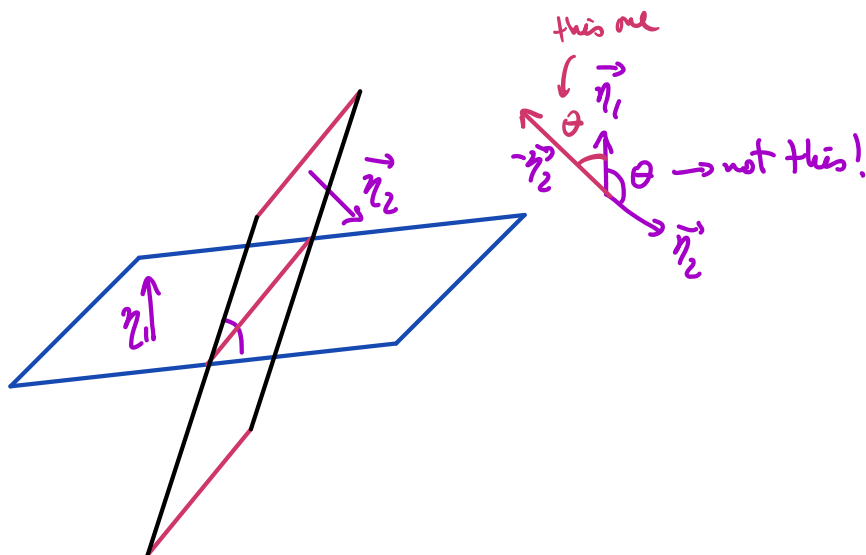
Definition 1: We say two planes are perpendicular or orthogonal to each other if their normal vectors are orthogonal.

Definition 2: We say two planes are parallel if their normals are proportional

Example.  $x - y + z = 0$  &  $2x - 2y + 2z = 5$  are parallel

Reason:  $\vec{n}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  &  $\vec{n}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2\vec{n}_1$  so they are proportional

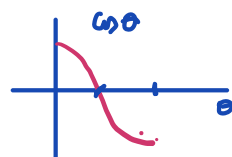
In general the angle between 2 planes is the acute angle between their normal vectors.  
 $0 \leq \theta \leq 90^\circ$



Example  $x - y + z = 7$  plane 1  $\vec{n}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $x + 4y + z = 2$  plane 2  $\vec{n}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\vec{n}_1 \cdot \vec{n}_2 = 1 - 4 + 1 = -2 = \|\vec{n}_1\| \|\vec{n}_2\| \cos \theta$$

so  $90^\circ < \theta < 180^\circ$

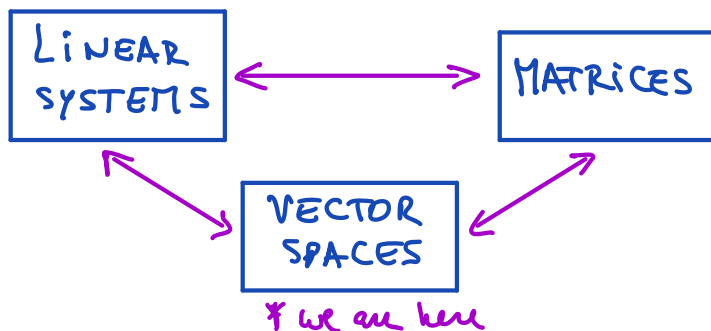


If we use  $-\vec{n}_2$  we'll get the acute angle

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{n}_1 \cdot (-\vec{n}_2)}{\|\vec{n}_1\| \|\vec{n}_2\|} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3} \sqrt{18}} \quad \text{so } \theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{54}}\right)$$

## §2. Intro to $\mathbb{R}^n$ as a vector space

Recall the original 3 components of this course



The Geometry of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  &  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (including lines & planes) was a warm-up for the algebra of vectors in  $n$ -space, which is our next topic

So far, we have seen 2 constructions:

① (Column) Vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R}^4, \dots$

② Solutions to homogeneous systems in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  can be written in vector form as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_{i_1} \vec{v}_1 + x_{i_2} \vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_{i_s} \vec{v}_s$$

( $x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots, x_{i_s}$  are the independent variables of the system)

Example:  $\begin{cases} x_1 + x_2 + 2x_4 + 3x_5 = 0 \\ x_3 + x_4 + x_5 = 0 \end{cases}$   $B = \left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$   $x_2, x_4, x_5$  indep vars

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -x_2 - 2x_4 - 3x_5 \\ x_2 \\ -x_4 - x_5 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_4 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_5 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\vec{v}_1$   $\vec{v}_2$   $\vec{v}_3$   $x_2, x_4, x_5$  free

Q: What do these 2 constructions have in common?

- A:
- $\vec{0}$  lies in the space
  - Add Vectors / solutions gives a new vector / solution
  - Scalar Multiplication preserves vectors / space of solutions
- } 3 basic properties for vector spaces & subspaces

### § 3. Defining Properties for $\mathbb{R}^n$ (same properties for abstract vector sp.)

Theorem 1: Write  $\mathcal{V} = \mathbb{R}^n$ . For  $\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$ ,  $a, b$  scalars we have:

- ① Closure Properties (C1) If  $\vec{x}, \vec{y}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$ , then  $\vec{x} + \vec{y}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$   
 (C2) If  $\vec{x}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$ , then  $a\vec{x}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$  for all scalars  $a$ .
- ② Addition Properties: (A1)  $\vec{x} + \vec{y} = \vec{y} + \vec{x}$  (Commutative)  
 (A2)  $\vec{x} + (\vec{y} + \vec{z}) = (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) + \vec{z}$  (Associative)  
 [Neutral Elem] (A3)  $\vec{0}$  satisfies  $\vec{x} + \vec{0} = \vec{0} + \vec{x} = \vec{x}$  for all  $\vec{x}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$

[Additive Inverse] (A4) Given  $\vec{x}$  in  $V$  we can find " $-\vec{x}$ " in  $V$  satisfying  $\vec{x} + (-\vec{x}) = \vec{0}$  (here " $-\vec{x}$ " =  $(-1)\vec{x}$ )

### ③ Scalar Multiplication Properties

(M1)  $a(b\vec{x}) = (ab)\vec{x}$  (Associative)

(M2)  $a(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = a\vec{x} + a\vec{y}$  (Distributive I)

(M3)  $(a+b)\vec{x} = a\vec{x} + b\vec{x}$  (————— II)

(M4)  $1\vec{x} = \vec{x}$  for all  $\vec{x}$

Note: (A4) follows from (c2) +  $0 \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{0}$ .

### §2. Subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$

Definition: A subspace  $S$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a subset  $S$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that satisfies:

(S1)  $\vec{0}$  is in  $S$

(S2) for any  $\vec{u}, \vec{v}$  in  $S$ ,  $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$  is in  $S$

(S3) for any scalar  $a$  and vector  $\vec{v}$  in  $S$ ,  $a\vec{v}$  is in  $S$ .

Examples: (1)  $S = \{\vec{0}\}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

(2)  $S = \mathbb{R}^n$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

(3) Subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are:  $\cdot \{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \}$  (dim 0)

$\cdot$  Lines through the origin (dim 1)

$\cdot \mathbb{R}^2$  (dim 2)

(4) Subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  are:  $\cdot \{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \}$  (dim 0)

$\cdot$  Lines through the origin (dim 1)

$\cdot$  Planes \_\_\_\_\_ (dim 2)

$\cdot \mathbb{R}^3$  (dim 3)