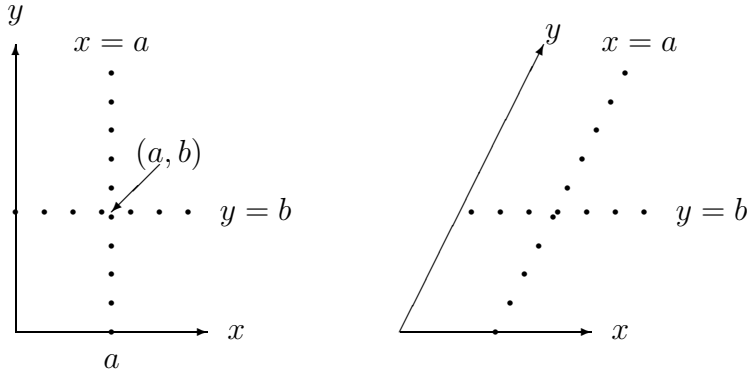


Coordinate Geometry

In this section we shall discuss various co-ordinate systems in 2 and 3 dimensions and equations for a variety of curves.

Cartesian coordinates are formed by two sets of parallel lines, usually orthogonal, although not necessarily so. A point is specified by an ordered pair (a, b) , and can be thought of as the intersection of the lines $x = a$ and $y = b$.



You will be familiar with many equations and the corresponding curves in rectangular cartesian co-ordinates. You should note that the shape of a curve connected with an equation depends on the co-ordinate system. e.g. $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is the equation of a circle in rectangular cartesian co-ordinates, but in oblique cartesian co-ordinates it represents an ellipse.

Polar Co-ordinates

This system is set up with an origin O and a direction fixed through O . The co-ordinates of a point P are specified as the distance OP and the angle OP makes with the fixed direction. Thus we have $P(r, \theta)$. Each pair of numbers specifies a point, but without any restrictions on r and θ a point may be assigned more than one set of co-ordinates.

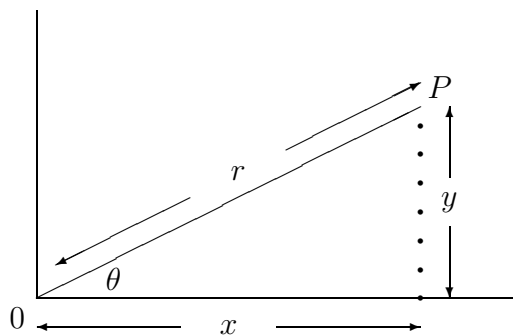
e.g. $(1, 0)$ $(1, 2\pi)$

If we interpret negative r as reflected through the origin then $(1, 0)$ $(-1, \pi)$. In order to achieve uniqueness we make the restriction $r > 0$, and we restrict θ to belong to some interval of length 2π . e.g. $-\pi < \theta \leq \pi$ is the most common. In describing some curves with more than one point in a given

direction like spirals it is however convenient to relax this restriction on θ . We shall always take $r \geq 0$ however. There is still a slight problem about the origin O . Clearly $r = 0$, but what about θ ? We do not specify co-ordinates uniquely for O , but if we obtain $r = 0$ from an equation then that will correspond to O .

Just as the grid for Cartesian co-ordinates consists of lines $x=\text{const}$, $y=\text{const}$ so the grid for polar co-ordinates consists of $r=\text{const}$ (circles centre O), $\theta=\text{const}$ (half-lines starting at O).

We can transform from cartesian to polar co-ordinates as follows.



If P has cartesian co-ordinates (x, y) and polar co-ordinates (r, θ) then
 $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$, $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$.

Note that it is ambiguous to write $\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$

since if $(x, y) = (1, 1)$ $\frac{y}{x} = 1$ and $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$
 and if $(x, y) = (-1, -1)$ $\frac{y}{x} = 1$ but $\theta = -\frac{3\pi}{4}$

We could write unambiguously $\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$ where $0 < \theta < \pi$ if $y > 0$
 and $-\pi < \theta < \pi$ if $y < 0$

(We still need the special cases $x = 0$, $y = 0$ for completeness) but it is better to draw a diagram as well.

Notice that to say "the point P has co-ordinates (a, b) " is ambiguous out of context. It depends what co-ordinate system we are using.

So rectangular cartesia $P = (2, 1)$
 60° oblique, same O and x axis $P = (2 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}})$
 polars, same O and x axis $P = (\sqrt{5}, 0.464)$ (radians)

Some Equations in Polar Co-ordinates

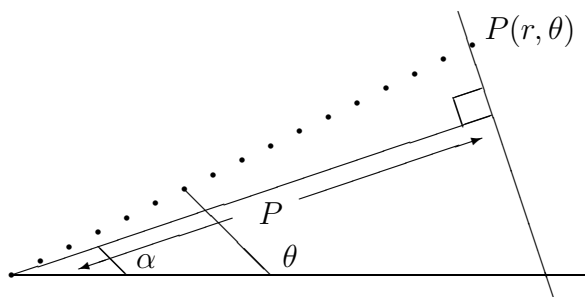
i) Straight line

Since the cartesian equation is $ax + by + c = 0$

we use $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$ to obtain

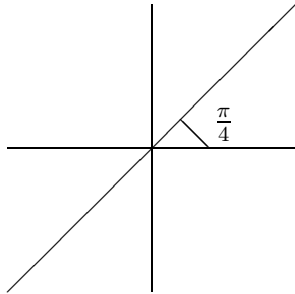
$$r(a \cos \theta + b \sin \theta) + c = 0 \quad (*)$$

alternatively we have $r \cos(\theta - \alpha) = p \quad (*)$

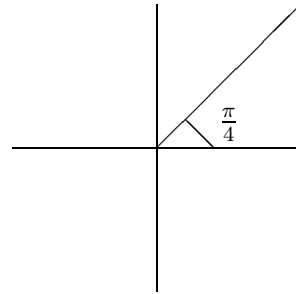


You should try and relate the two forms of equation above.

Note that the equation $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$ does not represent the whole line



but only



You should analyse what happens to the equations (*) when the line passes through O .

ii) circle

A circle centred at O has equation $r = a$.

A circle having O on the circumference and the initial line as diameter.

DIAGRAM

$$r = a \cos \theta$$

DIAGRAM

$$r = a \cos(\theta - \alpha)$$

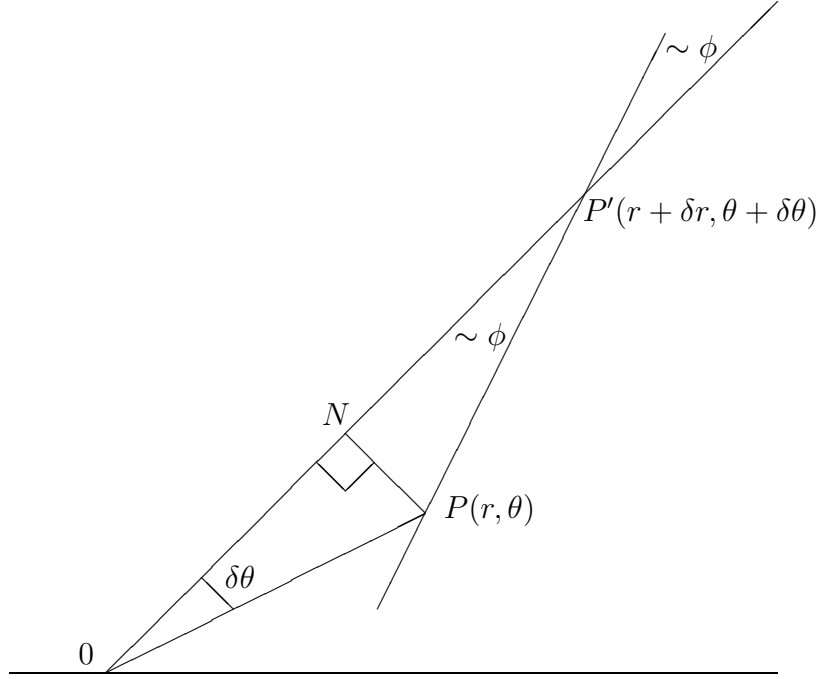
DIAGRAM

Applying the cosine formula to the triangle POC gives

$$a^2 = r^2 + d^2 - 2rd \cos(\theta - \alpha).$$

Again you should convert from cartesian to polar and try to relate the equations.

We now consider slopes of tangents in polar co-ordinates.



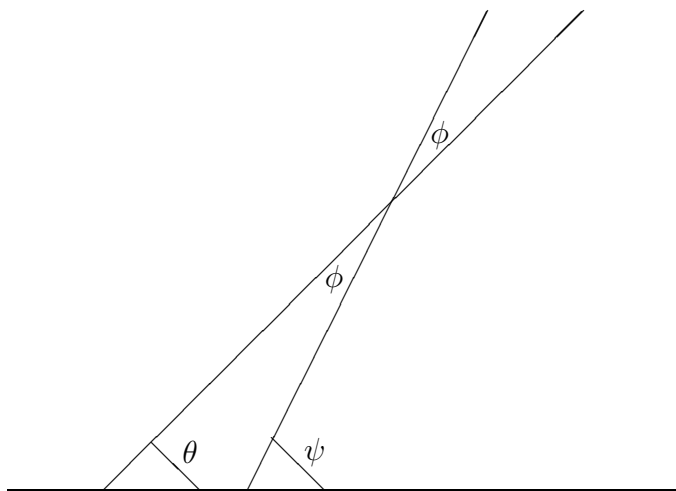
$$\tan \phi \approx \frac{PN}{NP'} \approx \frac{r\delta\theta}{\delta r} \approx r \frac{d\theta}{dr}$$

$$PN = OP \sin PON = r \sin \delta\theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} P'N &= OP' - ON = r + \delta r - r \cos \delta\theta = \delta r + r(1 - \cos \delta\theta) \\ &= \delta r + r * 2 \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tan OP'P &= \frac{PN}{P'N} = \frac{r \sin \delta\theta}{\delta r + r(2 \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta)} = \frac{r * 2 \sin \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta \cos \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta}{\delta r + r(2 \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta)} \\ &= \frac{r \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta}{\frac{1}{2} \delta\theta} \frac{\delta\theta}{\delta r} \cos \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta}{1 + r \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta}{\frac{1}{2} \delta\theta} \frac{\delta\theta}{\delta r} \sin \frac{1}{2} \delta\theta} \\ &\rightarrow \frac{r * 1 * \frac{d\theta}{dr} * 1}{1 + r * 1 * \frac{d\theta}{dr} * 0} = r \frac{d\theta}{dr} \quad \text{as } P' \rightarrow P \end{aligned}$$

$OP'P$ tends to the angle ϕ shown below



$$\tan \phi = r \frac{d\theta}{dr}, \quad \cot \phi = \frac{1}{r} \frac{dr}{d\theta}$$

You should check through the above in the case when $\delta r < 0$, or $OP' < ON$.

Example

Consider the circle $r = a \cos \theta$

DIAGRAM

$$\frac{dr}{d\theta} = -a \sin \theta \quad \frac{1}{r} \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -\tan \theta = \cot \phi$$

$$\text{So } -\tan \theta = \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \phi\right) = -\tan\left(\phi - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{so } \theta = \phi - \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \text{or } \phi = \frac{\pi}{2} + \theta.$$

Consider the equation $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$. Because $\cos \theta = \cos(-\theta)$ this curve is symmetrical about the line $\theta = 0$. As θ increases from 0 to π , r decreases from $2a$ to 0.

$$\frac{dr}{d\theta} = -a \sin \theta$$

$$\text{so } r \frac{d\theta}{dr} = -\frac{1 + \cos \theta}{\sin \theta} = -\cot \frac{1}{2}\theta = \tan \phi$$

$$\tan \phi = -\cot \frac{1}{2}\theta = \tan \frac{1}{2}(\pi + \theta)$$

so $\phi = \frac{1}{2}(\pi + \theta)$

when $\theta = 0$, $\phi = \frac{1}{2}\pi$ so the curve is at right angles to the initial line.

DIAGRAM

when $\psi = 0$, since $\psi = \phi + \theta$ we have $\theta = -\frac{\pi}{3}$.

when $\theta = \frac{\pi}{3}$, $\psi = \pi$ so the highest points are at $\theta = \frac{\pi}{3}$.