

**Examples of Surfaces.** This section describes a few simple examples of surfaces. Generally, surfaces will be given by an equation  $g(x, y, z) = 0$ .

**Cylinders.** An equation in which one of the variables does not appear describes a **cylinder**. All values of the missing variable are allowed while the included variables describe a curve in one of the coordinate planes that gives the common cross-section. Note that the shape of the cross-section is arbitrary.

**Cones.** Another way to trace a surface with lines is to take a curve in the plane  $z = 1$  and join all points on the curve to the origin. Then a point  $(x, y, z)$  with  $z \neq 0$  lies on this surface if and only if  $(x/z, y/z, 1)$  lies on the given curve. If the curve has a polynomial equation, it can be multiplied by a power of  $z$  to obtain a polynomial equation of the cone. This equation has the special property that all terms have the same degree.

Conversely, all such **homogeneous** equations define cones.

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$y$ , keeping a  $z$  coordinate with the same interpretation. This gives the **cylindrical coordinates** in space that will be considered later in this course.

**Changes of Scale.** If  $x$  is replaced by  $cx$  for some constant  $c$  without changing the other coordinates, the effect may be described by changing the scale on the  $x$  axis without changing the graph. If you prefer to have fixed scales on the axes, this corresponds to shrinking or stretching uniformly in a direction parallel to the  $x$  axis. Such transformations take circles into ellipses.

**Graphs of Functions.** One of the easiest descriptions of surfaces is  $z = f(x, y)$ . The **implicit function theorem** says that our general formula  $g(x, y, z) = 0$  may be assumed to be of this special form in a neighborhood of any point with  $g_3(x, y, z) \neq 0$ . Here  $g_3$  refers to the partial derivative with respect to the third variable.

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**Quadrics.** A surface with an equation of second degree is called a **quadric**. Several such surfaces are explored in Maple Lab 2. Only the special cases with equations

$$Ax^2 + By^2 + Cz^2 + J = 0$$

or

$$Ax^2 + By^2 + z = 0$$

will be considered here since the general equation can be put in one of these forms by a rotation and translation of coordinates.

A major tool in recognizing these surfaces is to consider the intersections with the coordinate planes.

**Figures of Rotation.** If  $A = B$ , the sections in the  $xz$  plane and the  $yz$  plane look the same. Indeed, one has the same section in any plane through the  $z$  axis. If we denote the distance from the  $z$  axis by  $r$ , then  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$  and the equation depends only on  $r$  and  $z$ . This  $r$  is the  $r$  of **polar coordinates** in the  $xy$  plane. More generally, we can use polar coordinates  $r$  and  $\theta$  as an alternative to the rectangular coordinates  $x$  and

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**Some examples.**

#9.  $x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 1$ .

#11.  $4x^2 + 9y^2 + 26z^2 = 36$ .

#15.  $y^2 = x^2 + z^2$ .

#31.  $z = x^2 + y^2 + 1$ .

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