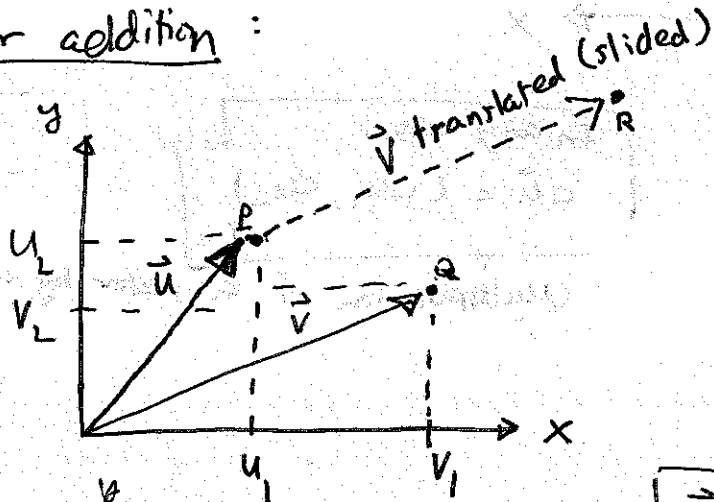


Lectures 3

Vectors = Arrows indicating direction and position.

Vector addition :

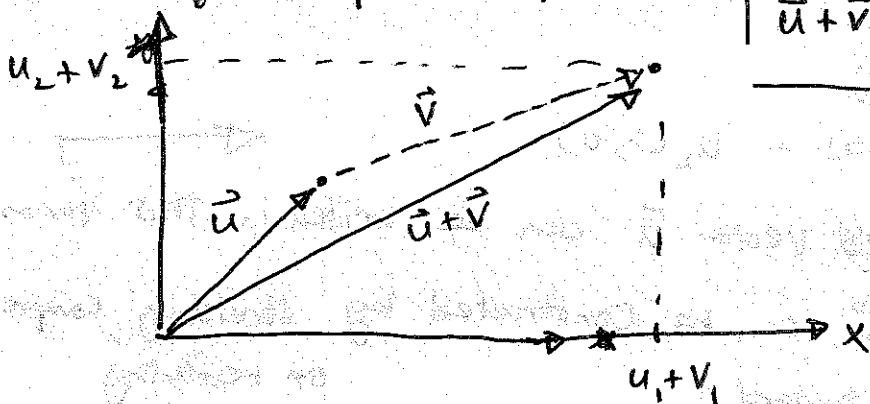


Point P : $(u_1, u_2) = \vec{u}$

Point Q : $(v_1, v_2) = \vec{v}$

Point R : location of the arrow head of vector $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$.

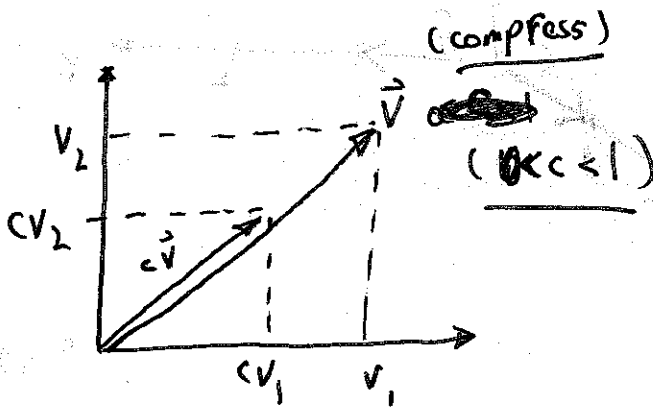
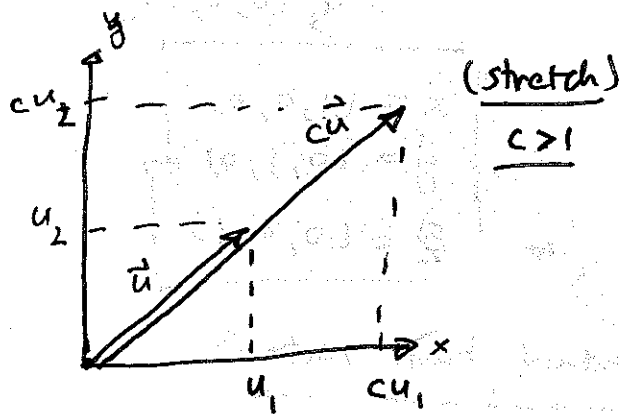
$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2)$$

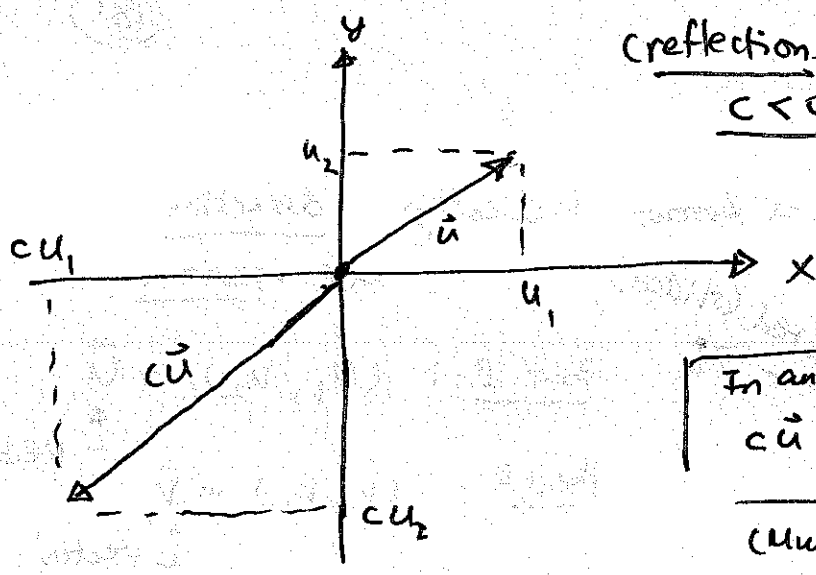


* To add 2 vectors together, move the tail end of ~~one~~ one vector to the arrow head of the other vector.

(Notice that it doesn't matter which one you glide since $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$.)

• We can also stretch or compress (and reflect) a vector by multiplying it by appropriate number (aka "scalar") c :





(reflection)
 $c < 0$

In any case:
 $c\vec{u} = (cu_1, cu_2)$

(Multiplication of a vector by a scalar.)

Standard basis vectors

Notice that $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2)$
 $= u_1(1, 0) + u_2(0, 1)$

So in 2-dimensions, any vector \vec{u} can be written in this form

(i.e. Any vector \vec{u} can be constructed by stretching, compression or reflecting

the two "standard basis vectors": $(1, 0)$
 $(0, 1)$.)

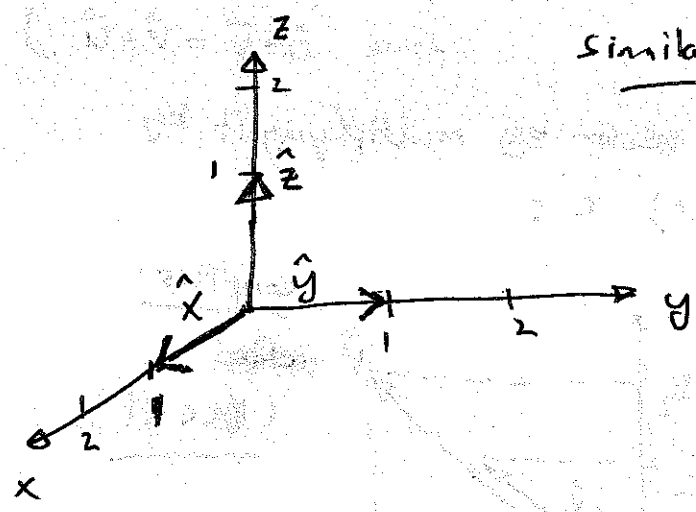
$(1, 0) = \hat{x}$
 $(0, 1) = \hat{y}$

Similarly, in 3-dimensions:

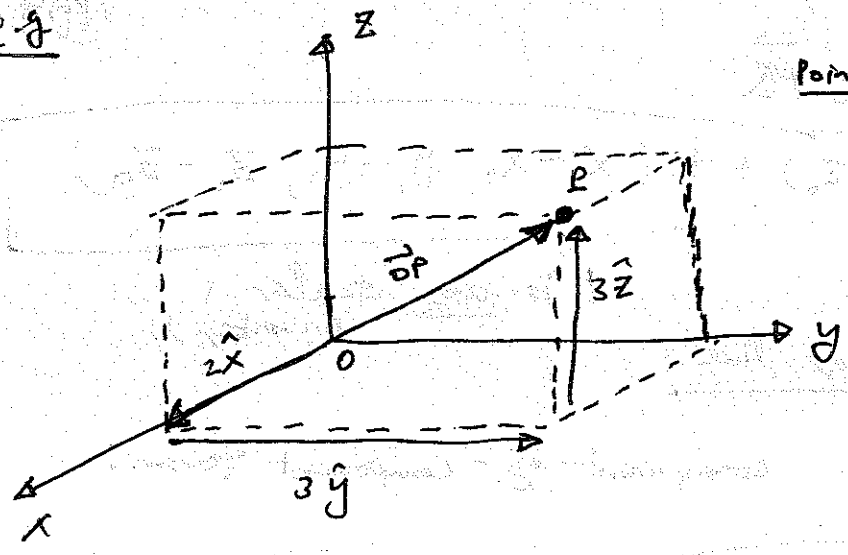
$\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$
 $= u_1(1, 0, 0) + u_2(0, 1, 0) + u_3(0, 0, 1)$

$\hat{x} = (1, 0, 0)$
 $\hat{y} = (0, 1, 0)$
 $\hat{z} = (0, 0, 1)$

"standard basis vectors"



eg



Point P : $(2, 3, 3) = \vec{OP}$

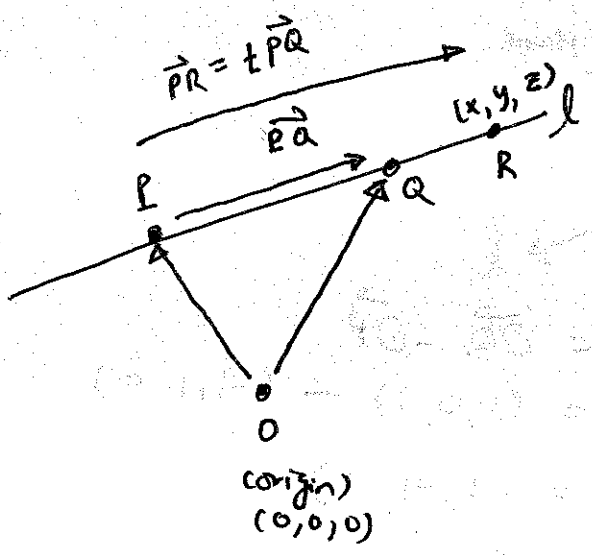
↑ vector.

emanating from origin "O" and with arrow head ending at point P.

$$\vec{OP} = 2\hat{x} + 3\hat{y} + 3\hat{z}$$

(Notice that you can get to point P by following the vector addition rule mentioned on (Pg 1).)

Eqn of a straight line in any arbitrary direction in 3 dimensional space. (on 2-dim also works too).



Let P & Q be 2 points on the line l.

P : $(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \vec{OP}$

Q : $(x_1, y_1, z_1) = \vec{OQ}$

Then $\vec{OP} + \vec{PQ} = \vec{OQ}$ (see diagram) and use our vector addition rule.)

So:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{PQ} &= \vec{OQ} - \vec{OP} \\ &= (x_1 - x_0, y_1 - y_0, z_1 - z_0) \end{aligned}$$

Consider any arbitrary point R (with coordinates (x, y, z)) that also lies on l.

Then graphically, (see above), notice that \vec{PR} either points in the same direction as \vec{PQ} or in the opposite direction (reflected) of \vec{PQ} . In either case: $\vec{PR} = t\vec{PQ}$ (t is some scalar.)

Hence, $\vec{OR} = \vec{OP} + t \vec{PQ}$

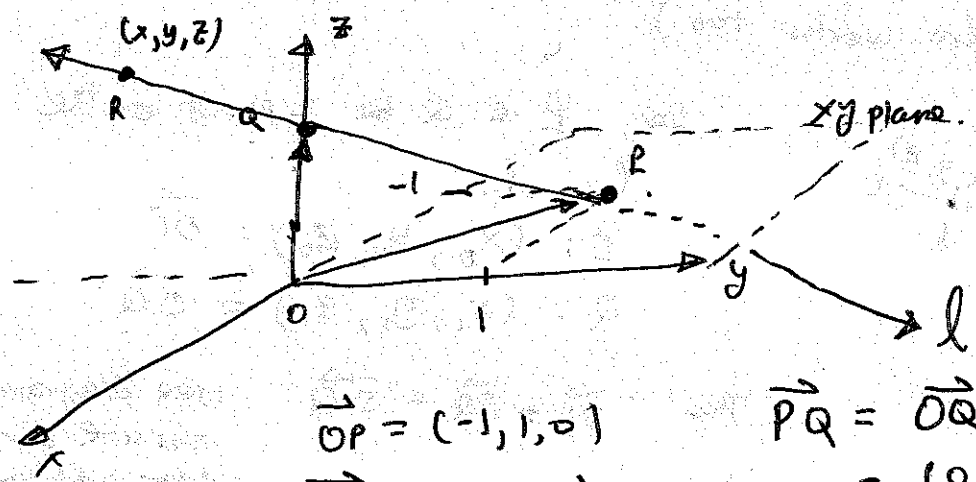
$$\Rightarrow (x, y, z) = (x_0, y_0, z_0) + t(x_1 - x_0, y_1 - y_0, z_1 - z_0)$$

↑ Eqn of a straight line. t is any scalar (number).

We can write above in component-by-component form:

$$\begin{aligned} X &= X_0 + t(X_1 - X_0) \\ Y &= Y_0 + t(Y_1 - Y_0) \\ Z &= Z_0 + t(Z_1 - Z_0) \end{aligned}$$

Ex. Find eqn of line passing through 2 points: $(-1, 1, 0)$ P & $(0, 0, 1)$ Q



$$\begin{aligned} \vec{OP} &= (-1, 1, 0) & \vec{PQ} &= \vec{OQ} - \vec{OP} \\ \vec{OQ} &= (0, 0, 1) & &= (0, 0, 1) - (-1, 1, 0) \\ & & &= (1, -1, 1) \end{aligned}$$

So: any point R: (x, y, z) on the line l is:

$$\begin{aligned} (x, y, z) &= \vec{OP} + t \vec{PQ} \\ &= (-1, 1, 0) + t(1, -1, 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} X &= -1 + t \\ Y &= 1 - t \\ Z &= t \end{aligned}$$

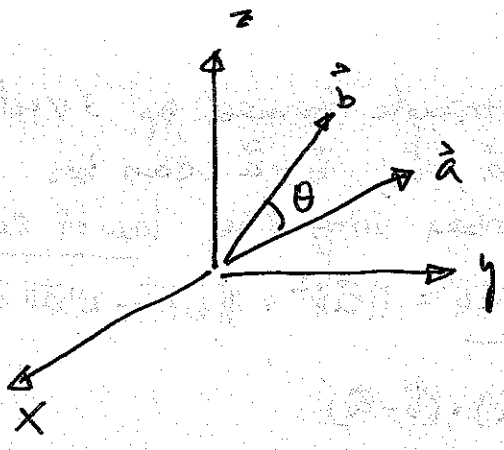
← eqn of line l.
(for any scalar t.)



Inner product : (aka dot product)

↳ Helps us find an angle between 2 vectors.

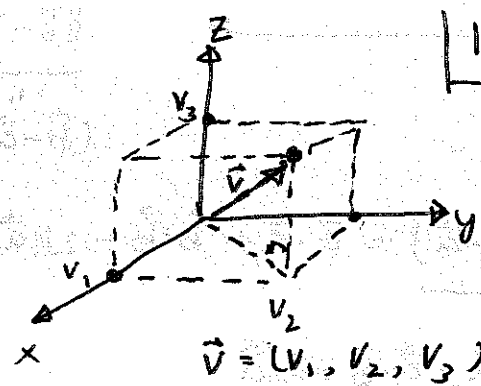
$\theta = ?$



To define dot product, first we

define length of a vector: ~~$\sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$~~

$$\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{(v_1^2 + v_2^2) + v_3^2}$$



↳ straight application of pythagorean theorem.

Define dot product between 2 vector \vec{a} & \vec{b} to be:

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 \quad \leftarrow \text{(dot product)}$$

"dot" product

where $\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$
 $\vec{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$

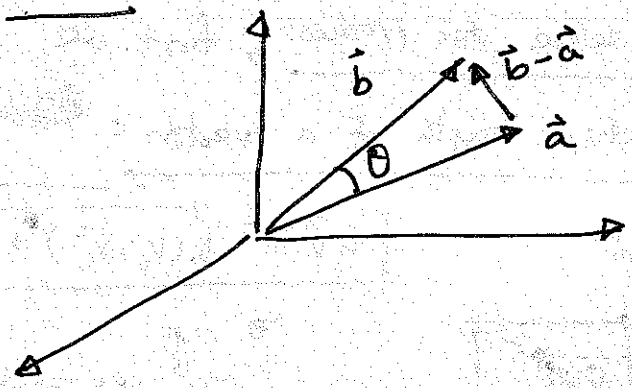
Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{v}\|^2 &= v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2 \\ &= v_1 v_1 + v_2 v_2 + v_3 v_3 \\ &= \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} \end{aligned}$$

Claim : $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta$

(see diagram on previous page.)

Proof :



This triangle formed by 3 vectors \vec{a} , \vec{b} , $\vec{b}-\vec{a}$ can be described using the law of cosines:

$$\|\vec{b}-\vec{a}\|^2 = \|\vec{a}\|^2 + \|\vec{b}\|^2 - 2\|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta$$

$$\|\vec{b}-\vec{a}\| \cdot \|\vec{b}-\vec{a}\|$$

so: $(\vec{b}-\vec{a}) \cdot (\vec{b}-\vec{a}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{b} - 2\|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta$

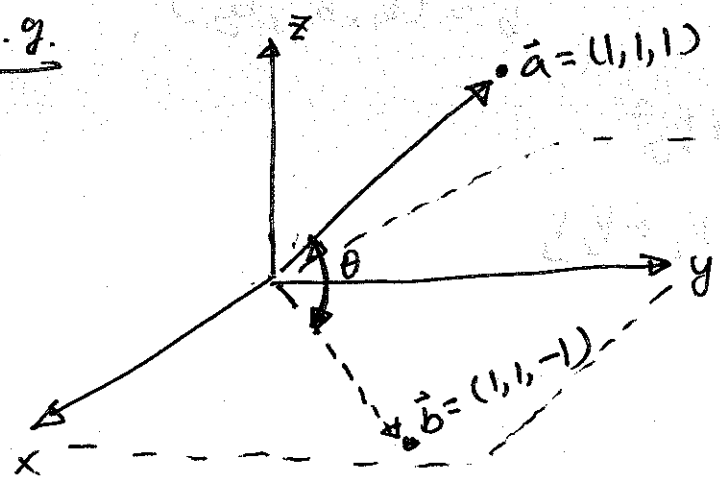
$$\vec{b} \cdot \vec{b} - \vec{b} \cdot \vec{a} - \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} + \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}$$

so: $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{b} - 2\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{b} - 2\|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta$

\Rightarrow $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta$

proved.
Indeed. \square

e.g.



$\theta = ?$

Ans : $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 1+1-1 = 1$

but also,
 $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta = \sqrt{3} \sqrt{3} \cos \theta = 3 \cos \theta$

Thus: $1 = 3 \cos \theta$

$\Rightarrow \cos \theta = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow$

$\theta = \text{ArcCos}(\frac{1}{3})$

\hookrightarrow In radians \square