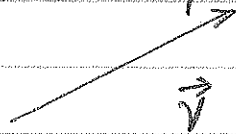


VECTORS IN \mathbb{R}^N

Definition. A (real) vector in \mathbb{R}^N is a quantity which has both magnitude and direction. The magnitude is a nonnegative number, and the directions are described by rays in \mathbb{R}^N .

Geometric Representation of Vectors:



An oriented line segment in \mathbb{R}^N represents a vector \vec{v} . The length of the line segment represents the magnitude of \vec{v} , and the orientation represents the direction of \vec{v} .

Note that a vector is determined by its magnitude and direction, but not its position. In other words, if we can translate a vector to coincide with another, then these two vectors are equal.

Now we are going to review the basic algebraic operations on vectors.

• **Scalar Multiplication:** If \vec{v} is a vector and c is a real number (called a scalar), we can define the scalar multiplication $c\vec{v}$, which is a vector, as follows:

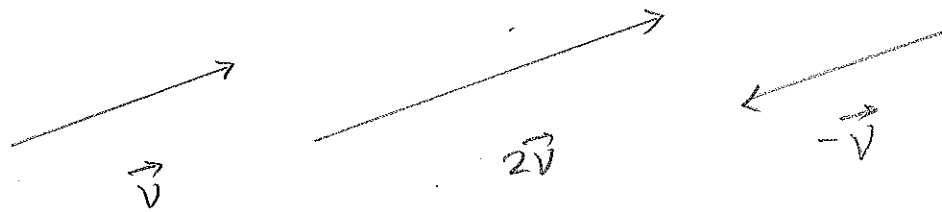
The magnitude of $c\vec{v}$ is $|c|$ times the magnitude of \vec{v} , and for the direction:

① If $c > 0$, $c\vec{v}$ has the same direction as that of \vec{v} .

② If $c = 0$, $c\vec{v} = \vec{0}$, no direction.

③ If $c < 0$, $c\vec{v}$ has the opposite direction as that of \vec{v} .

①



And we write $-\vec{v}$ for $(-1)\vec{v}$

• Vector Addition:

If \vec{u} and \vec{v} are vectors positioned so the initial point of \vec{v} is at the terminal point of \vec{u} , then $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$ is the vector from the initial point of \vec{u} to the terminal point of \vec{v}

Note that vector addition is commutative: $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$
and associative: $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w})$

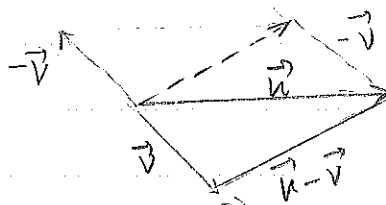
There's also a distributive law of scalars on vectors:

$$c(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = c\vec{u} + c\vec{v}$$

The above laws can be verified using some geometry.

• Vector Subtraction

If \vec{u} and \vec{v} are vectors, then define $\vec{u} - \vec{v}$ to be $\vec{u} + (-\vec{v})$



- Vector Representation in Coordinates: (We'll take \mathbb{R}^3 as example, but the principle extends naturally to all \mathbb{R}^N)
In a coordinate system, for any point $P = (x, y, z)$, we can construct the vector with initial point the origin $O = (0, 0, 0)$, and terminal point P . We denote this vector \vec{OP} and call it the position vector of the point P .

Observe that the assignment of position vector to point P gives an identification of (3-dimensional) vectors and points in \mathbb{R}^3 . Another observation is that for each vector \vec{v} , and any point $A = (a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, there is a point $B = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$ such that \vec{v} is equivalent to \vec{AB} . We say \vec{AB} is a representation of the vector \vec{v} .

In a coordinate system, if \vec{v} is equivalent to the position vector of $P = (a, b, c)$, we can write $\vec{v} = (a, b, c)$.

The coordinate system makes vector algebra simple to compute:

Theorem. If $\vec{u} = (a_1, b_1, c_1)$, $\vec{v} = (a_2, b_2, c_2)$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then:
 $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = (a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2, c_1 + c_2)$, $\vec{u} - \vec{v} = (a_1 - a_2, b_1 - b_2, c_1 - c_2)$
 $\lambda \vec{u} = (\lambda a_1, \lambda b_1, \lambda c_1)$

Theorem. If $\vec{u} = (a, b, c)$, then $|\vec{u}| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}$

Example. If $\vec{u} = (3, 2, 5)$, $\vec{v} = (4, 1, 3)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u} - 2\vec{v} &= (3, 2, 5) - 2 \cdot (4, 1, 3) = (3, 2, 5) - (8, 2, 6) \\ &= (-5, 0, -1) \end{aligned}$$

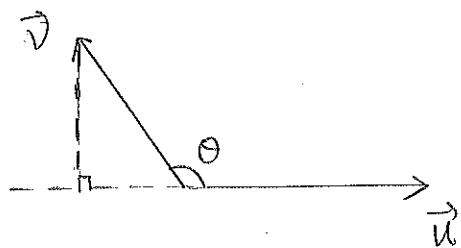
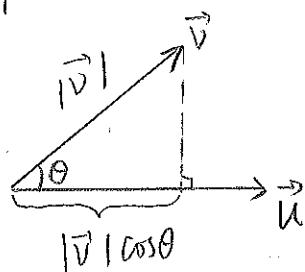
Definition. If a vector has length 1, we call it a unit vector.

For example, $\vec{i} = (1, 0, 0)$, $\vec{j} = (0, 1, 0)$, $\vec{k} = (0, 0, 1)$

Observe that if \vec{v} is a nonzero vector, then there's a unit vector which has the same direction as \vec{v} , and the unit vector is $\frac{1}{|\vec{v}|}\vec{v}$.

Example $\vec{v} = (2, -2, -1)$. $|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-2)^2 + (-1)^2} = 3$, so the unit vector in the direction of \vec{v} is $(\frac{2}{3}, -\frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3})$.

Definition. If θ is the angle between two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} , we define the dot product of \vec{u} and \vec{v} to be $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = |\vec{u}||\vec{v}|\cos\theta$



By this definition, we can immediately see some of the properties of dot product:

(i) $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v}$

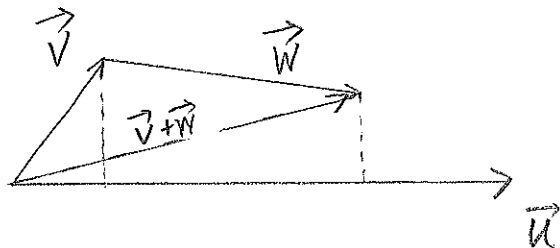
(ii) $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{0} = 0 \quad \forall \vec{u}$

(iii) If $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$, i.e. $\vec{u} \perp \vec{v}$, then $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$

(iv) $c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) = (c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{u} \cdot (c\vec{v}) \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v}, \forall c \in \mathbb{R}$

Lemma. Dot product is distributive: $\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w}$

Proof.



From Linear Algebra, we know that we can choose a standard basis of \mathbb{R}^3 , $\{\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}\}$ such that $|\vec{i}| = |\vec{j}| = |\vec{k}| = 1$,

they're pairwise perpendicular to each other, and they're the unit vectors in the direction of the Cartesian Coordinate axis. i.e. in coordinates, $\vec{i} = (1, 0, 0)$, $\vec{j} = (0, 1, 0)$ and $\vec{k} = (0, 0, 1)$

Each vector $\vec{u} = (a, b, c)$ can therefore be decomposed into $\vec{u} = (a, 0, 0) + (0, b, 0) + (0, 0, c)$
 $= a(1, 0, 0) + b(0, 1, 0) + c(0, 0, 1)$
 $= a\vec{i} + b\vec{j} + c\vec{k}$

Lemma If $\vec{u} = (a_1, b_1, c_1)$, $\vec{v} = (a_2, b_2, c_2)$, then $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2 + c_1 c_2$

Proof $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = (a_1 \vec{i} + b_1 \vec{j} + c_1 \vec{k}) \cdot (a_2 \vec{i} + b_2 \vec{j} + c_2 \vec{k})$
 $= (a_1 \vec{i} \cdot a_2 \vec{i}) + (a_1 \vec{i} \cdot b_2 \vec{j}) + (a_1 \vec{i} \cdot c_2 \vec{k})$
 $+ (b_1 \vec{j} \cdot a_2 \vec{i}) + (b_1 \vec{j} \cdot b_2 \vec{j}) + (b_1 \vec{j} \cdot c_2 \vec{k})$
 $+ (c_1 \vec{k} \cdot a_2 \vec{i}) + (c_1 \vec{k} \cdot b_2 \vec{j}) + (c_1 \vec{k} \cdot c_2 \vec{k})$
 $= a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2 + c_1 c_2$
(since $\vec{i} \cdot \vec{j} = \vec{j} \cdot \vec{k} = \vec{k} \cdot \vec{i} = 0$)

Lemma. $|\vec{v}|^2 = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}$

Proof. $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = |\vec{v}| |\vec{v}| \cos 0 = |\vec{v}|^2 \cdot 1 = |\vec{v}|^2$

Corollary. If $\vec{v} = (a, b, c)$, then $|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}$