

# M110C Week1

## Goals:

### 2D Vectors.

- definition
- arithmetic
- properties

### Dot product.

- angle between vectors
- projections of vectors

### 3 Dimensional Space.

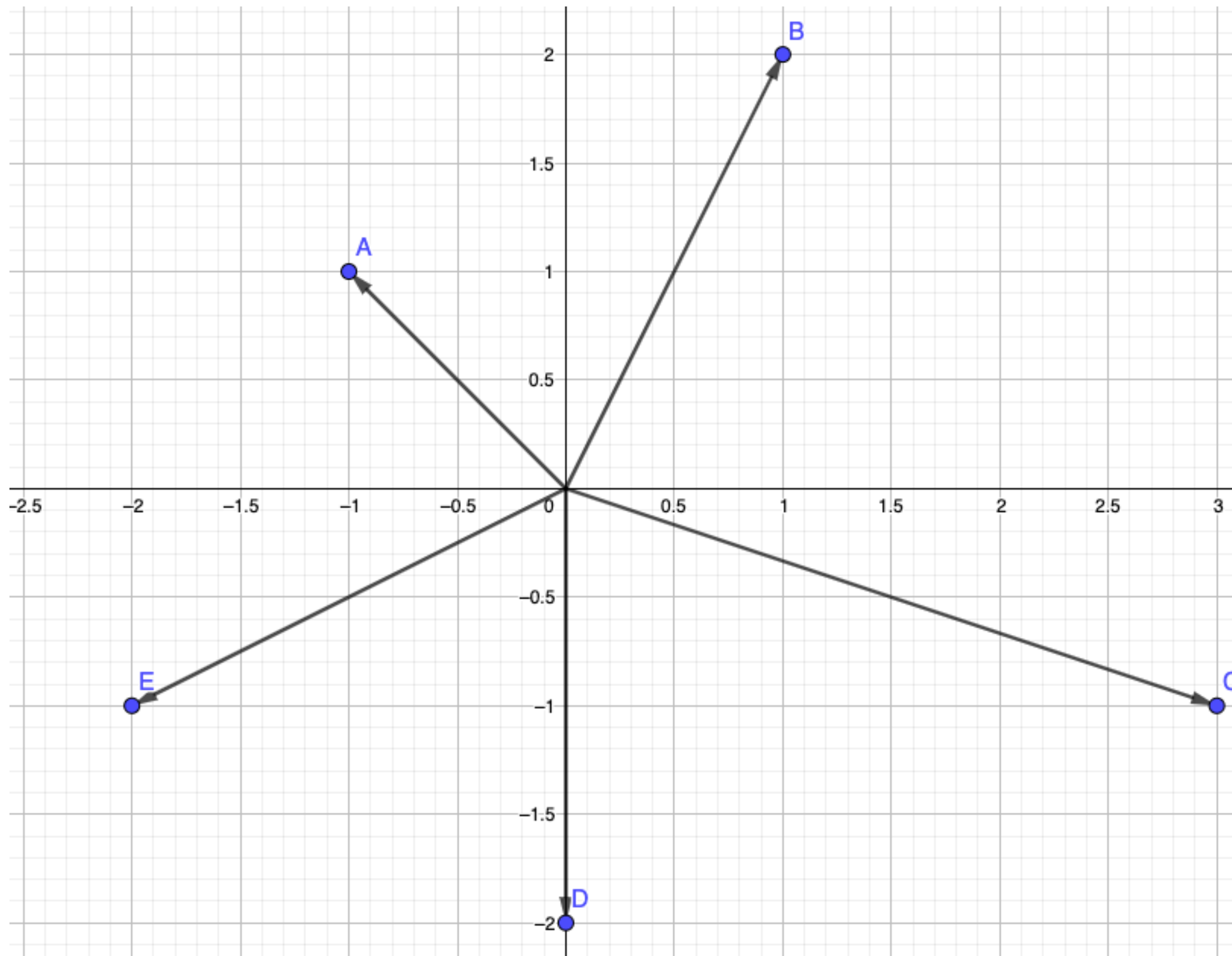
- plotting points
- sketching some surfaces
- 3D vectors, angles, projections

### Cross Product.

- derivation
- examples

**Vectors: Definition.** A **vector** in math is an object that has **magnitude** and **direction**.

Here is a picture of some vectors.



Aside from a picture, how do we represent vectors?

Vectors can be described more specifically using x- and y-components.

Examples:

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \langle 3, -1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{d} = \langle 0, -2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{e} = \langle -2, -1 \rangle$$

You may see many different notations for vectors, such as...

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

or even

$$\mathbf{a} = (-1, 1)$$

You may also see an arrow instead of bold notation:

$$\vec{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$$

# Vectors: Magnitude.

In the context of vectors, **magnitude** means length.

Examples.

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$$

The magnitude of  $\vec{a}$  is

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

Similarly

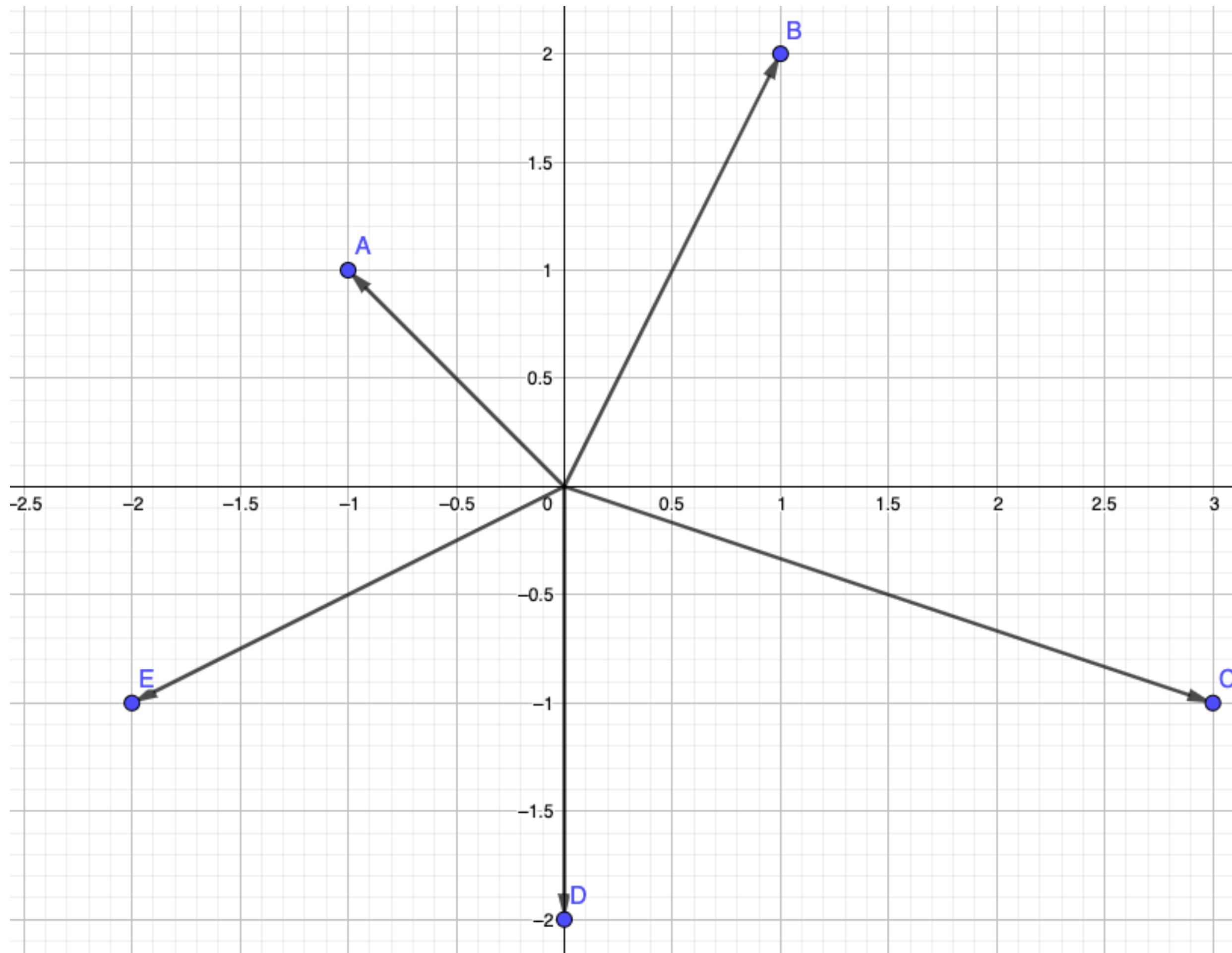
$$|\mathbf{b}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{5}$$

Try to compute  $|\mathbf{c}|$ ,  $|\mathbf{d}|$ , and  $|\mathbf{e}|$ .

$$|\mathbf{c}| = \sqrt{10}$$

$$|\mathbf{d}| = \sqrt{4} = 2$$

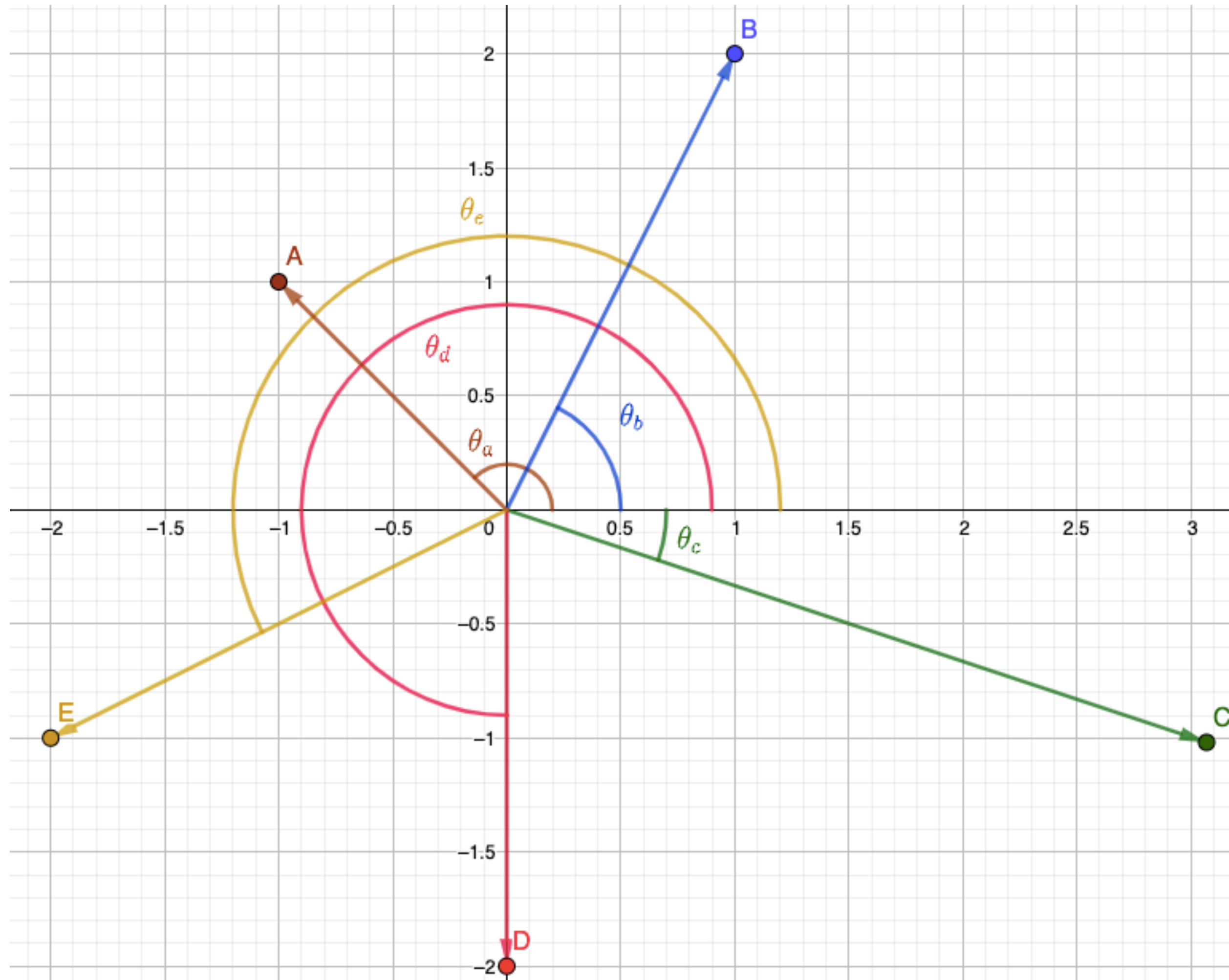
$$|\mathbf{e}| = \sqrt{5}$$



# 2D Vectors: Direction.

There are many ways to define direction of a vector.

For 2D vectors, one common measure of direction is the angle off of the positive x axis.



Examples

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle \quad \tan(\theta_a) = \frac{1}{-1} = -1$$

$$\theta_a = \tan^{-1}(-1) \in \left\{ -\frac{\pi}{4} \pm n\pi \mid n \in \mathbf{N} \right\}$$

$$\theta_a = -\frac{\pi}{4} + 1\pi = \frac{3\pi}{4}$$

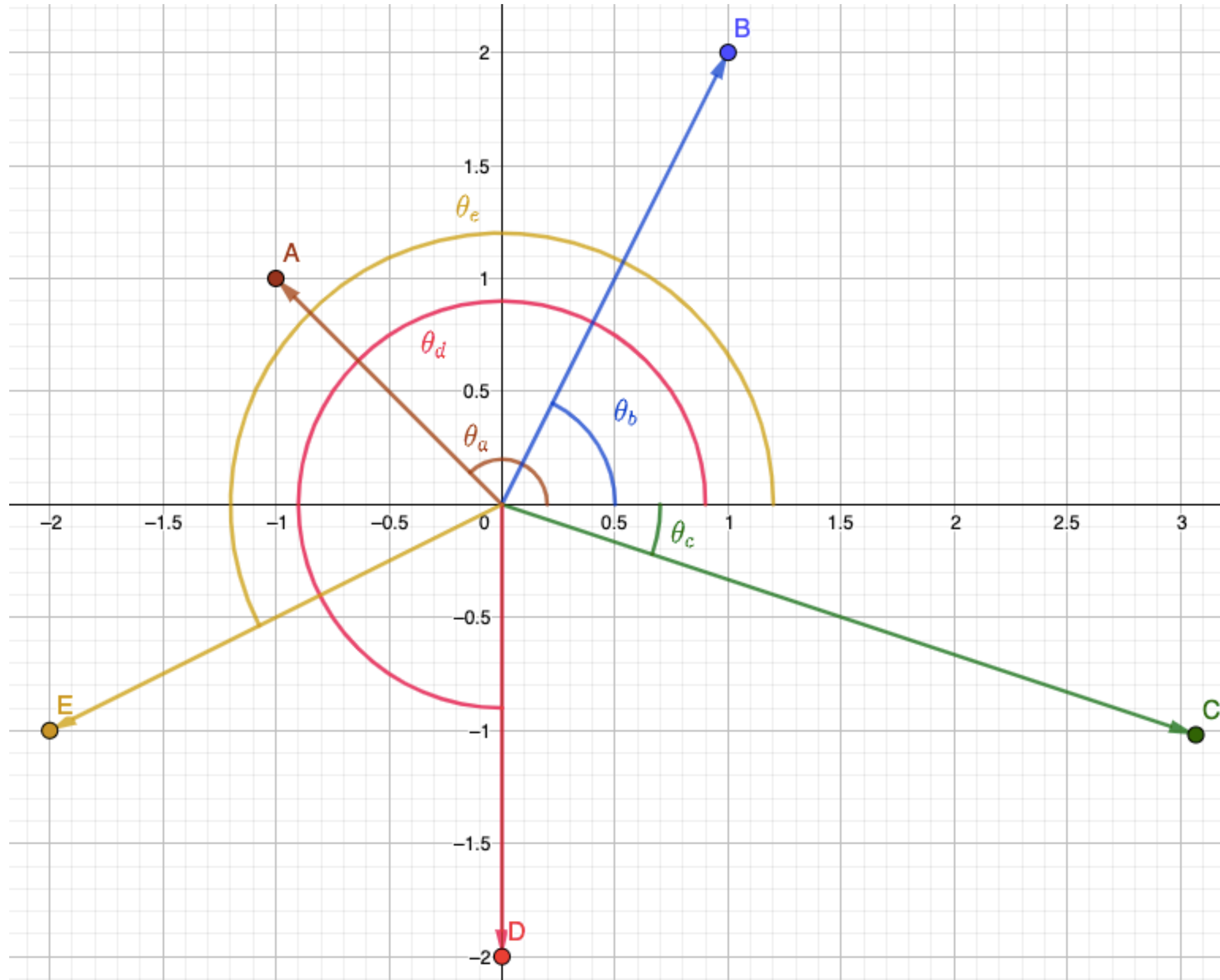
$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle \quad \tan(\theta_b) = \frac{2}{1} = 2$$

$$\theta_b = \tan^{-1}(2) \in \{ 1.107 \pm n\pi \mid n \in \mathbf{N} \}$$

$$\theta_b \approx 1.107 \text{ rad} \approx 63.43^\circ$$

Try to find  $\theta_c, \theta_d, \theta_e$

# Vectors: Direction, pg 2.



(continued from previous slide...)

$$\mathbf{c} = \langle 3, -1 \rangle$$

$$\theta_c = \tan^{-1}\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right) \approx -0.322 \text{ rad} \approx -18.43^\circ$$

$$\mathbf{d} = \langle 0, -2 \rangle$$

$$\theta_d = \dots = \frac{3\pi}{2} \quad \leftarrow \text{A calculator didn't help here. We need to recognize angles on the y axis.}$$

$$\mathbf{e} = \langle -2, -1 \rangle$$

$$\theta_e = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-1}{-2}\right) \approx 0.464 + \pi \text{ rad} \approx 206.565^\circ$$

NOTE: There are many angles that can describe a single vector!

$$\text{e.g. } \theta_d \text{ can be any of these: } \left\{ \dots -\frac{9\pi}{2}, -\frac{5\pi}{2}, -\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{7\pi}{2}, \frac{11\pi}{2}, \dots \right\} = \left\{ -\frac{\pi}{2} \pm 2\pi n \mid n \in \mathbf{N} \right\}$$



## 2D Vectors: Direction, pg 3.

You can also measure direction by finding the *unit vector* of a given vector.

To get the unit vector of a given  $\mathbf{v}$ , you divide  $\mathbf{v}$  by its magnitude.

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}} := \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}$$

Examples:

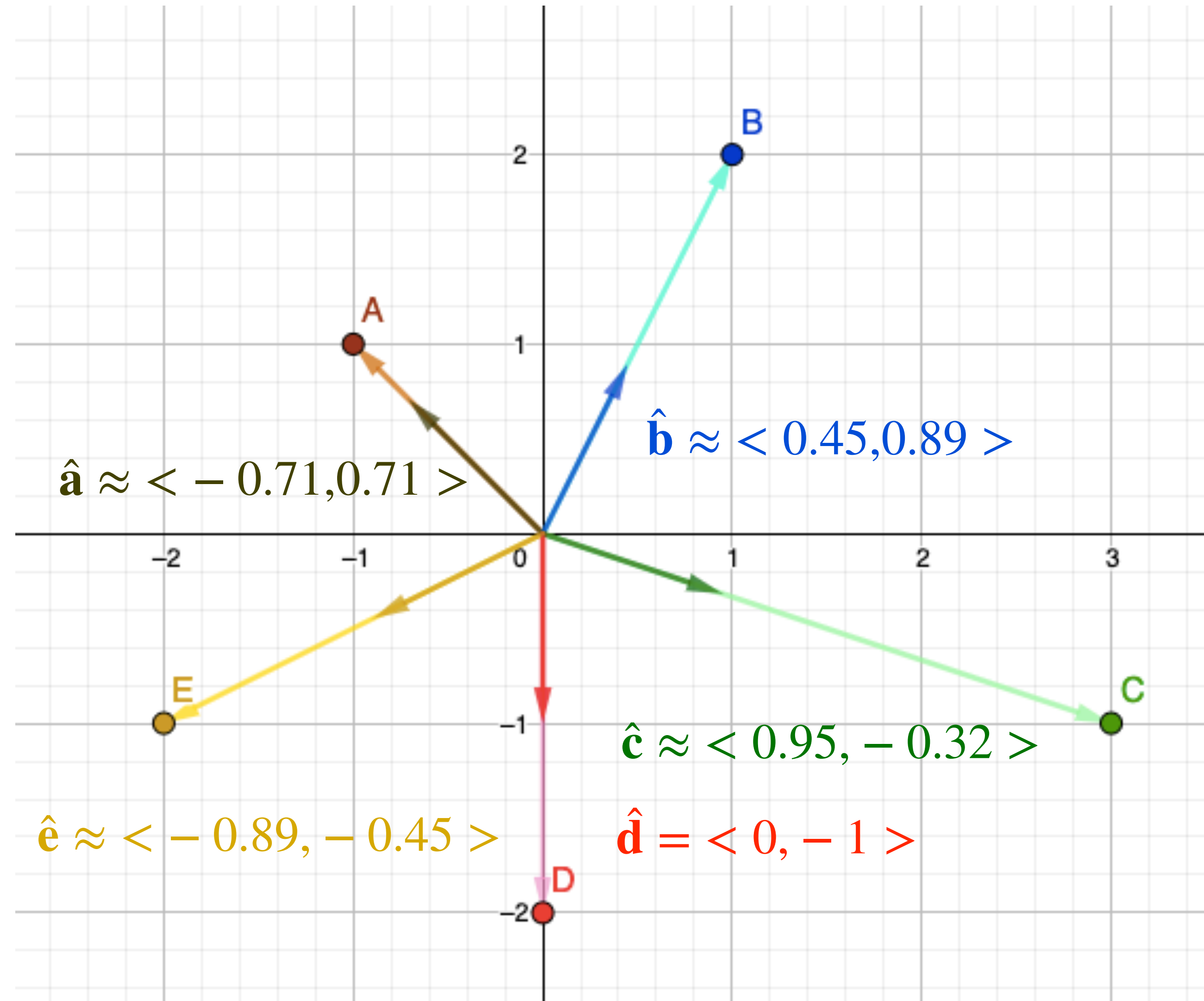
$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|} = \frac{\langle -1, 1 \rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \left\langle \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right\rangle \approx \langle -0.71, 0.71 \rangle$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \frac{\mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|} = \frac{\langle 1, 2 \rangle}{\sqrt{5}} = \left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \right\rangle \approx \langle 0.45, 0.89 \rangle$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{c}} = \frac{\mathbf{c}}{|\mathbf{c}|} = \frac{\langle 3, -1 \rangle}{\sqrt{10}} = \left\langle \frac{3}{\sqrt{10}}, \frac{-1}{\sqrt{10}} \right\rangle \approx \langle 0.95, -0.32 \rangle$$

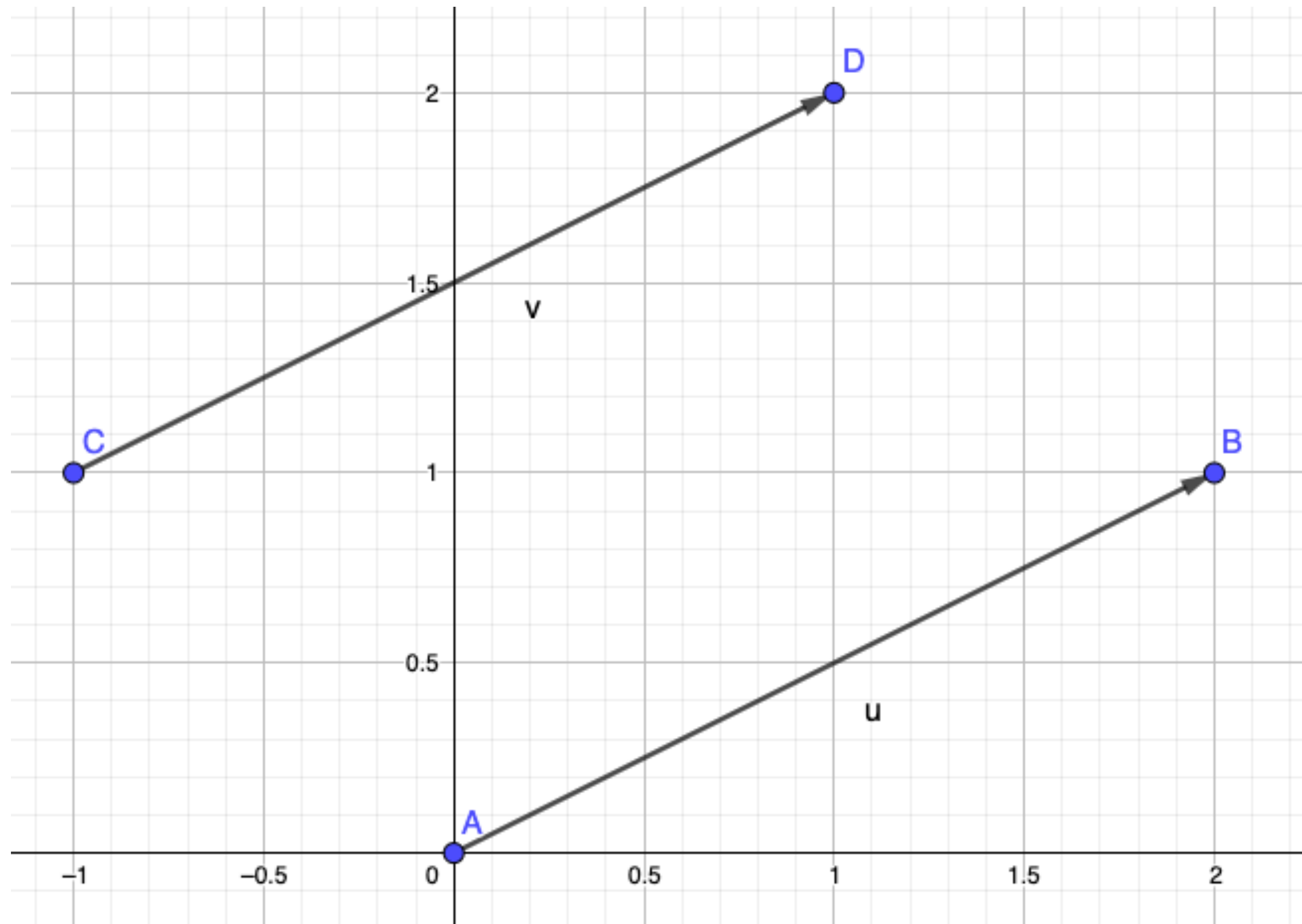
$$\hat{\mathbf{d}} = \frac{\mathbf{d}}{|\mathbf{d}|} = \frac{\langle 0, -2 \rangle}{2} = \left\langle \frac{0}{2}, \frac{-2}{2} \right\rangle = \langle 0, -1 \rangle$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{e}} = \frac{\mathbf{e}}{|\mathbf{e}|} = \frac{\langle -2, -1 \rangle}{\sqrt{5}} = \left\langle \frac{-2}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{-1}{\sqrt{5}} \right\rangle \approx \langle -0.89, -0.45 \rangle$$



# Vectors: Initial and Terminal Points.

Vectors don't have to start at the origin. They can start anywhere!



The *initial point* of **u** is  $A(0,0)$ ,  
its *terminal point* is  $B(2,1)$ .

It's the vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle 2, 1 \rangle$

The initial point of **v** is  $C(-1,1)$ ,  
and its terminal point is  $D(1,2)$ .

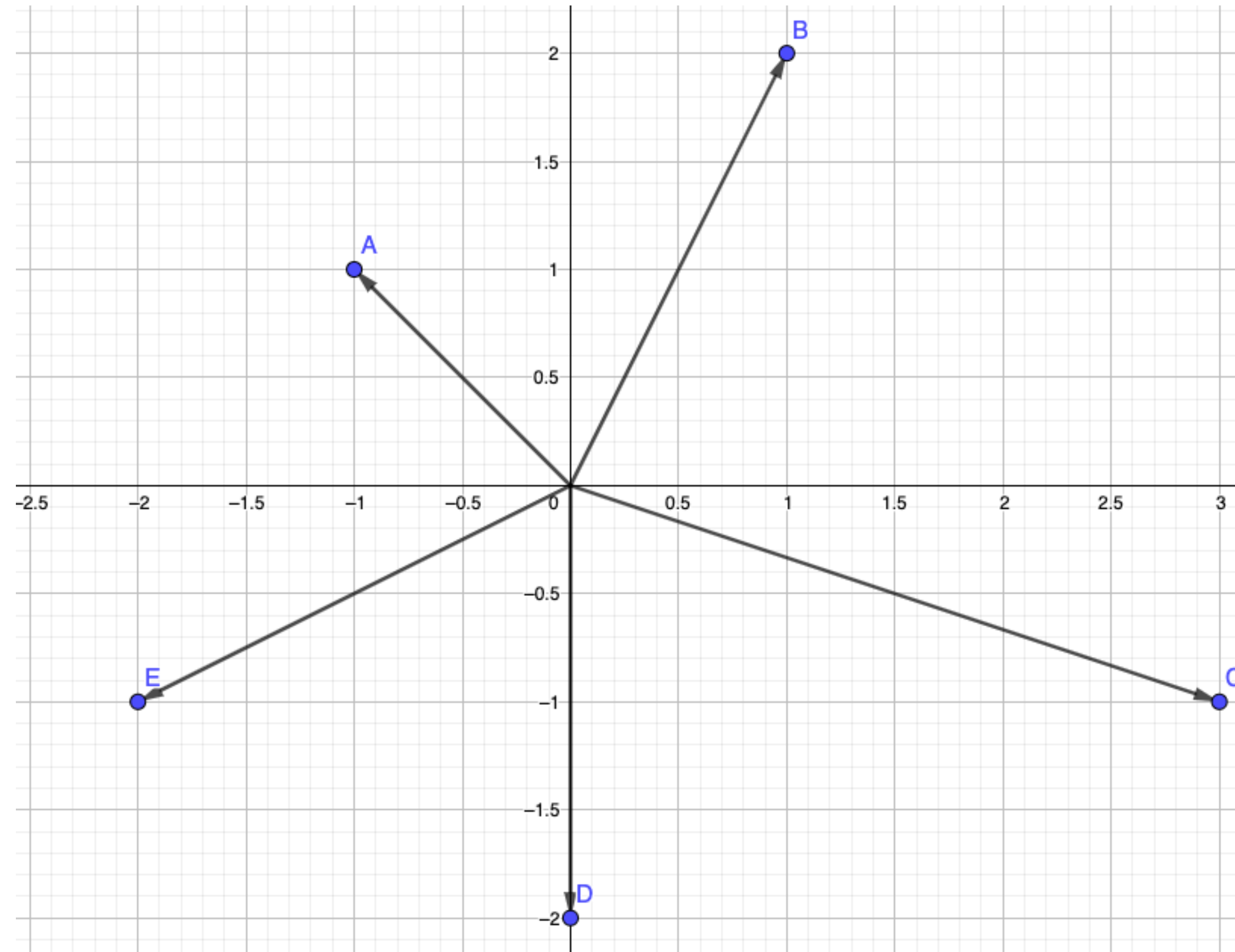
It's the vector  $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, 1 \rangle$

**u** and **v** are considered equal vectors!

They both have the same *displacement*  
from their initial to their terminal points,  
namely, 2 units in the positive x direction,  
and 1 unit in the positive y direction.

# Vector Arithmetic: Algebraic Perspective.

Examples.



$$\mathbf{c} = \langle 3, -1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{d} = \langle 0, -2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{e} = \langle -2, -1 \rangle$$

Vector Addition Example.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} &= \langle -1, 1 \rangle + \langle 1, 2 \rangle \\ &= \langle -1 + 1, 1 + 2 \rangle = \langle 0, 3 \rangle\end{aligned}$$

Vector Subtraction Example.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} &= \langle -1, 1 \rangle - \langle 1, 2 \rangle \\ &= \langle -1 - 1, 1 - 2 \rangle = \langle -2, -1 \rangle\end{aligned}$$

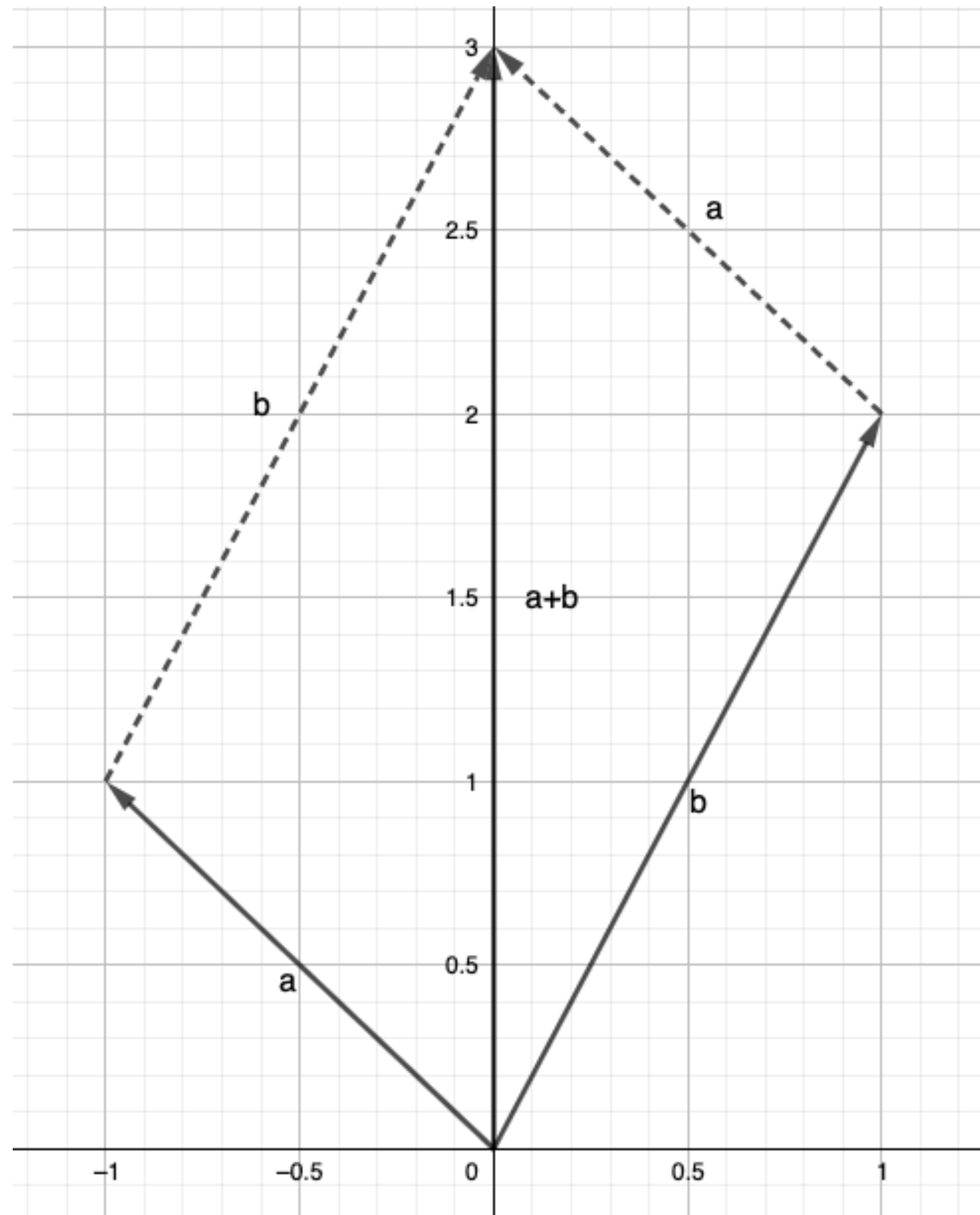
Scalar Multiplication Example.

$$\begin{aligned}5 \cdot \mathbf{a} &= 5 \cdot \langle -1, 1 \rangle \\ &= \langle 5 \cdot (-1), 5 \cdot 1 \rangle = \langle -5, 5 \rangle\end{aligned}$$



# Vector Arithmetic, Geometric Perspective : Addition.

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle + \langle 1, 2 \rangle = \langle 0, 3 \rangle$$



You can compute  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$  by placing a copy of **b** at the terminal point of **a**.

$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$  is then the vector that starts at the initial point of **a**, and ends at the terminal point of the copy of **b**.

Also,...

$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$  is a vector along one of the diagonals of the parallelogram formed by two vectors **a** and two vectors **b**.

# Vector Addition. You try!

Try computing the following vector sums.  
Do both the algebraic computation,  
and draw a picture!

1.  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{d}$

2.  $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$

3.  $\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{c}$

Solutions:

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{d} = \langle -1 + 0, 1 + -2 \rangle = \langle -1, -1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c} = \langle 1 + 3, 2 + -1 \rangle = \langle 4, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{c} = \langle -2 + 3, -1 + -1 \rangle = \langle 1, -2 \rangle$$

(Pictures are on the next page.)

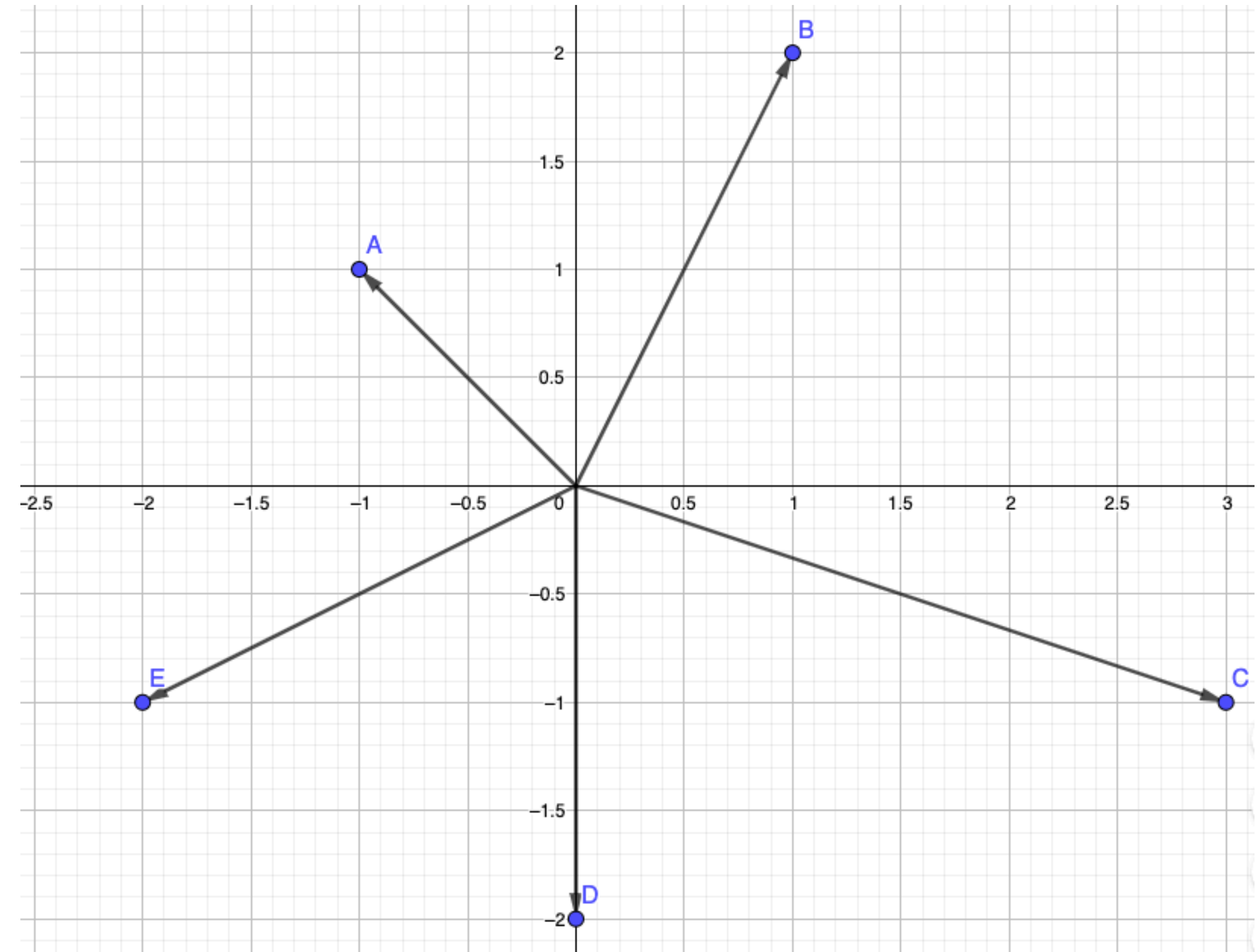
$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \langle 3, -1 \rangle$$

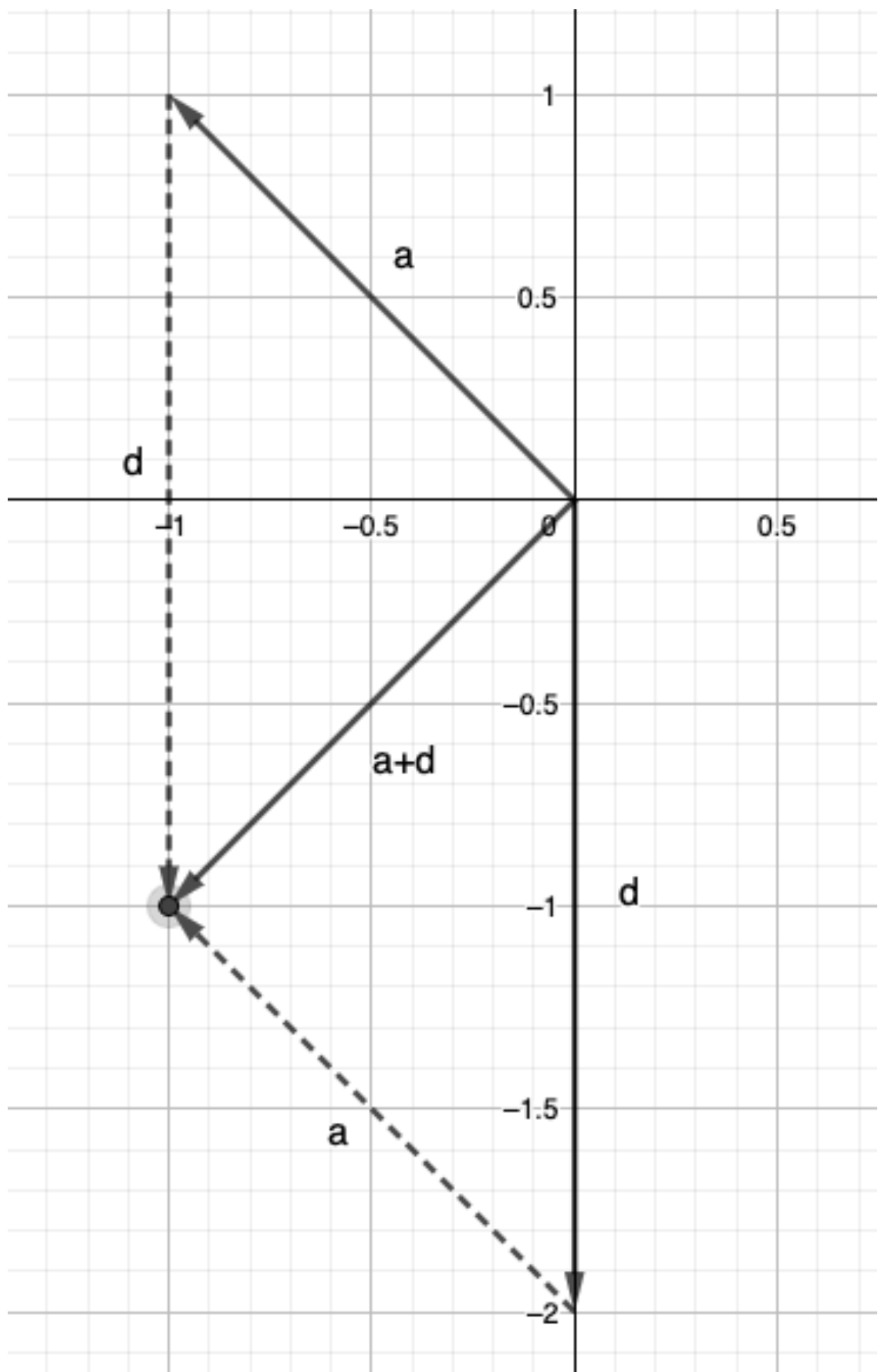
$$\mathbf{d} = \langle 0, -2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{e} = \langle -2, -1 \rangle$$

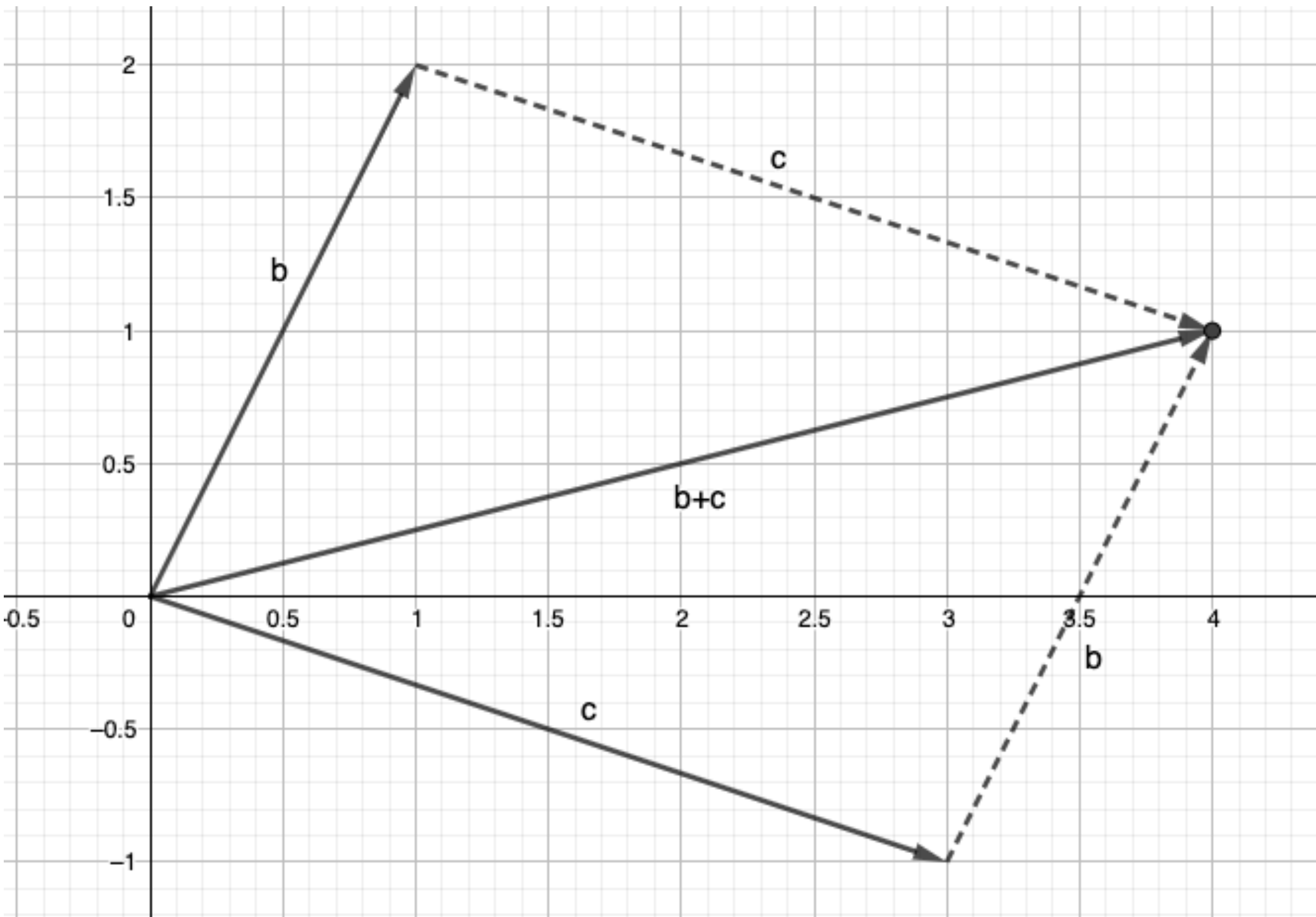


# Vector Addition: previous examples' pictures

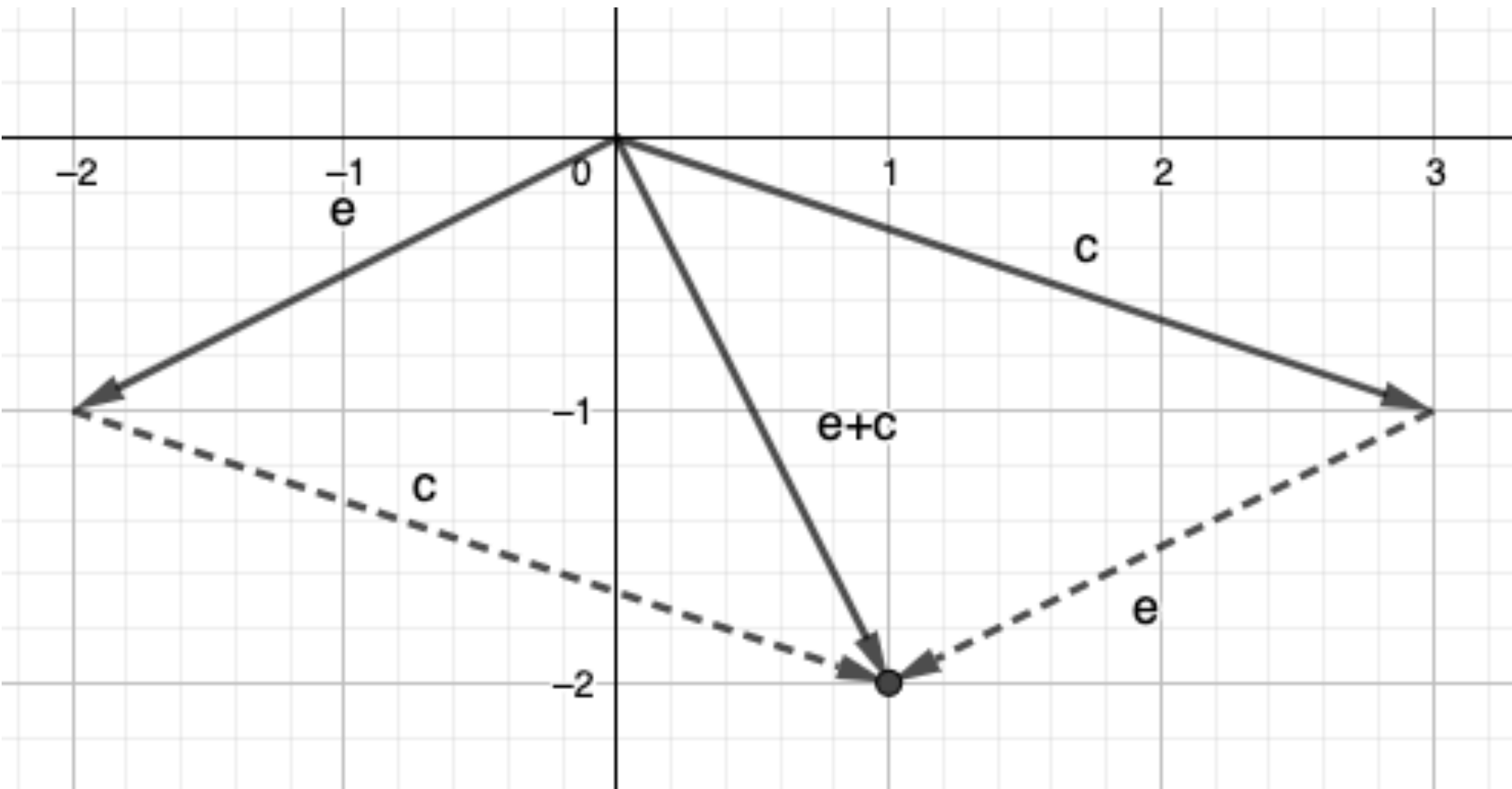
$a + d = \langle -1, 1 \rangle + \langle 0, -2 \rangle = \langle -1, -1 \rangle$



$b + c = \langle 1, 2 \rangle + \langle 3, -1 \rangle = \langle 4, 1 \rangle$

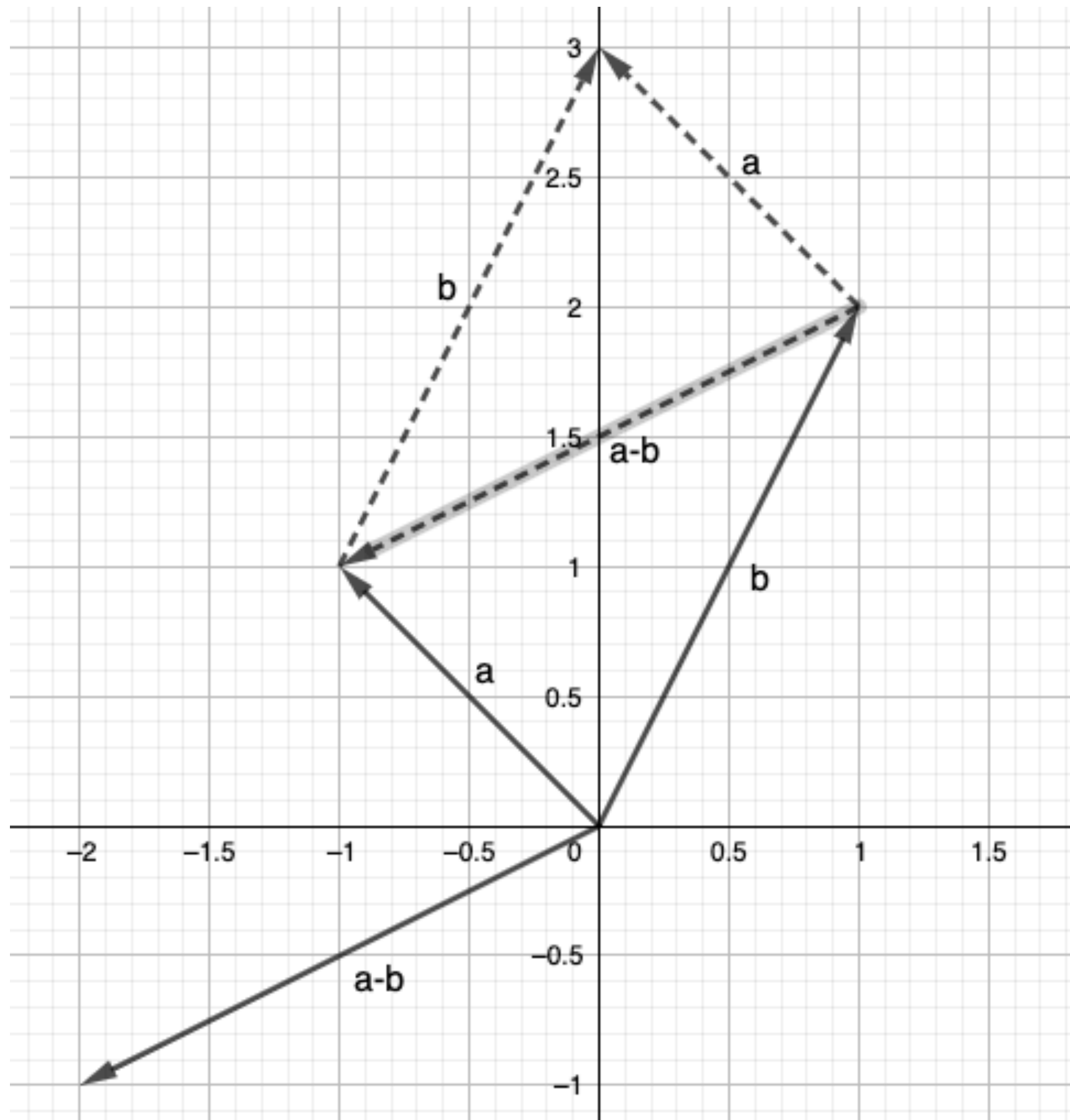


$e + c = \langle -2, -1 \rangle + \langle 3, -1 \rangle = \langle 1, -2 \rangle$



# Vector Arithmetic, Geometric Perspective : Subtraction.

$$\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle - \langle 1, 2 \rangle = \langle -2, -1 \rangle$$



Earlier we saw that  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$  formed a diagonal of the parallelogram formed by two  $\mathbf{a}$ 's and two  $\mathbf{b}$ 's.

**$\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$**  is equal to the vector that forms the other diagonal of the same parallelogram!

## Also, ...

**$\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$**  completes a triangle whose other two sides are formed by  **$\mathbf{a}$**  and  **$\mathbf{b}$** :

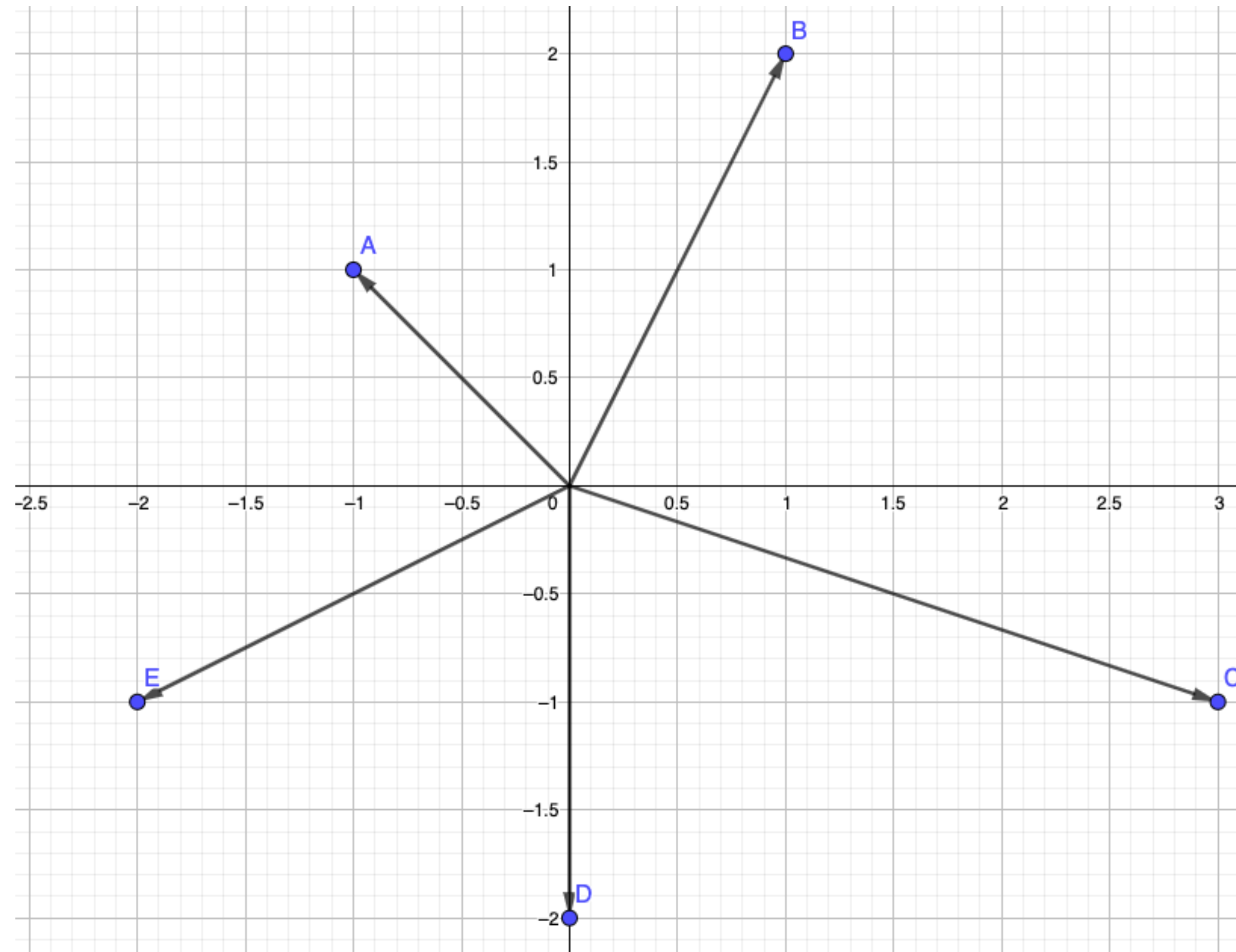
The initial point of  $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$  is the terminal point of  $\mathbf{b}$   
 The terminal point of  $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$  is the terminal point of  $\mathbf{a}$ .

Note that subtracting in the other order does this:

$$\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle - \langle -1, 1 \rangle = \langle 2, 1 \rangle = -(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})$$

In the picture  $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}$  has the same magnitude as  $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$ , but the opposite direction.

# Vector Subtraction: You Try!



$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \langle 3, -1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{d} = \langle 0, -2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{e} = \langle -2, -1 \rangle$$

Try to compute the following.  
Do the computation algebraically,  
and draw a nice picture!

1.  $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}$

2.  $\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{a}$

Solutions.

$$\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle - \langle 3, -1 \rangle = \langle -2, 3 \rangle$$

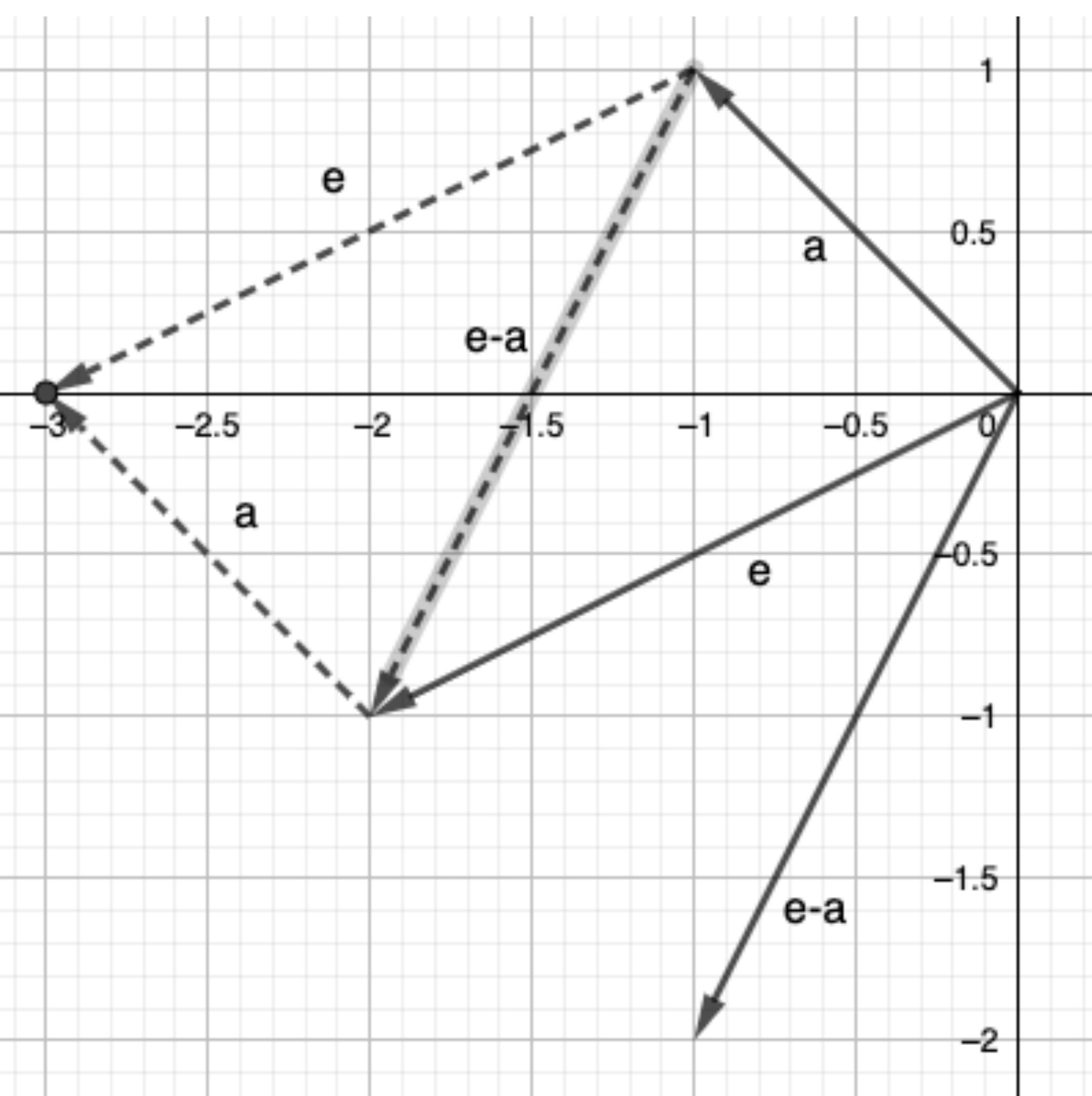
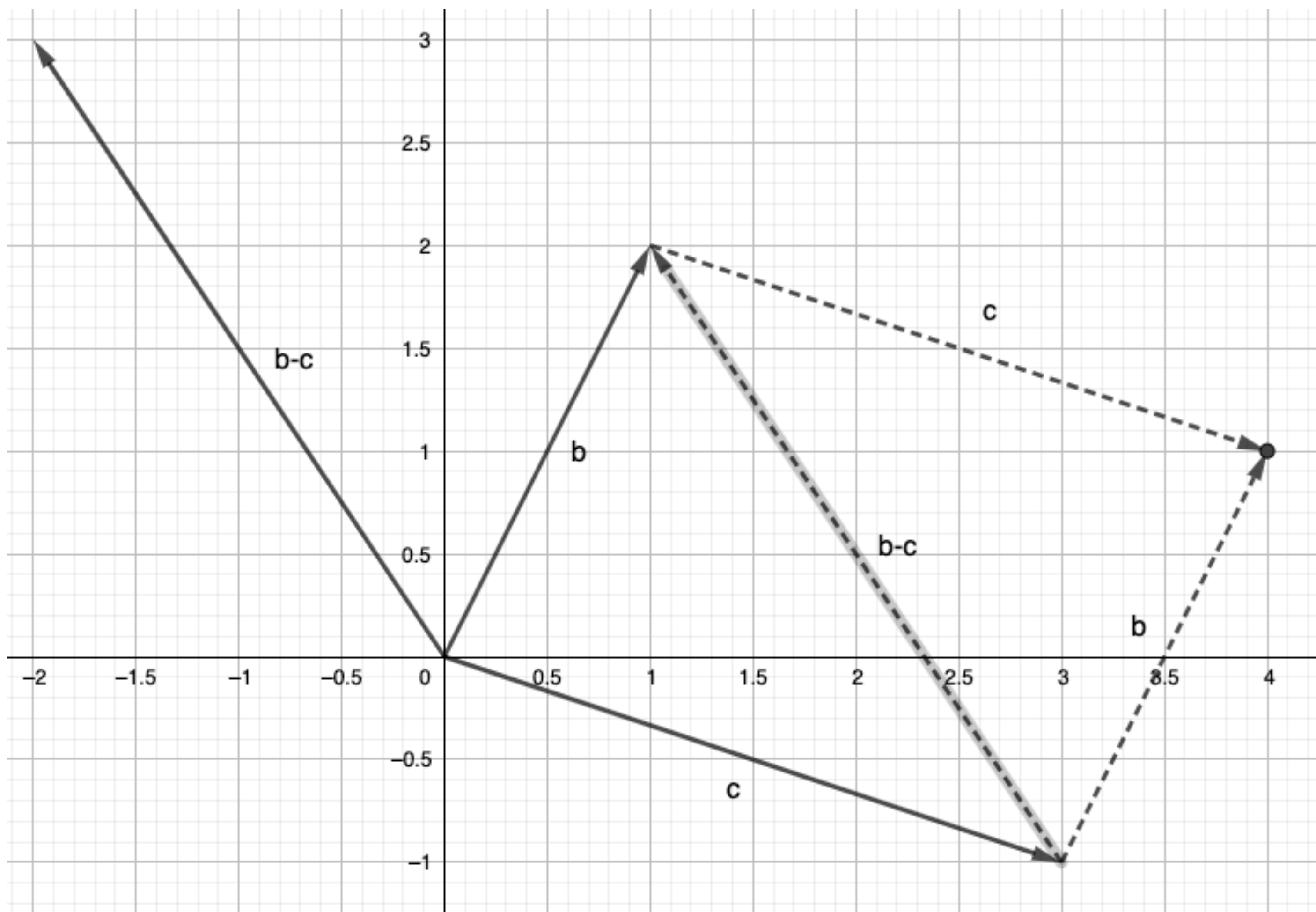
$$\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{a} = \langle -2, -1 \rangle - \langle -1, 1 \rangle = \langle -1, -2 \rangle$$



# Vector Subtraction, Illustrations of previous.

$\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle - \langle 3, -1 \rangle = \langle -2, 3 \rangle$

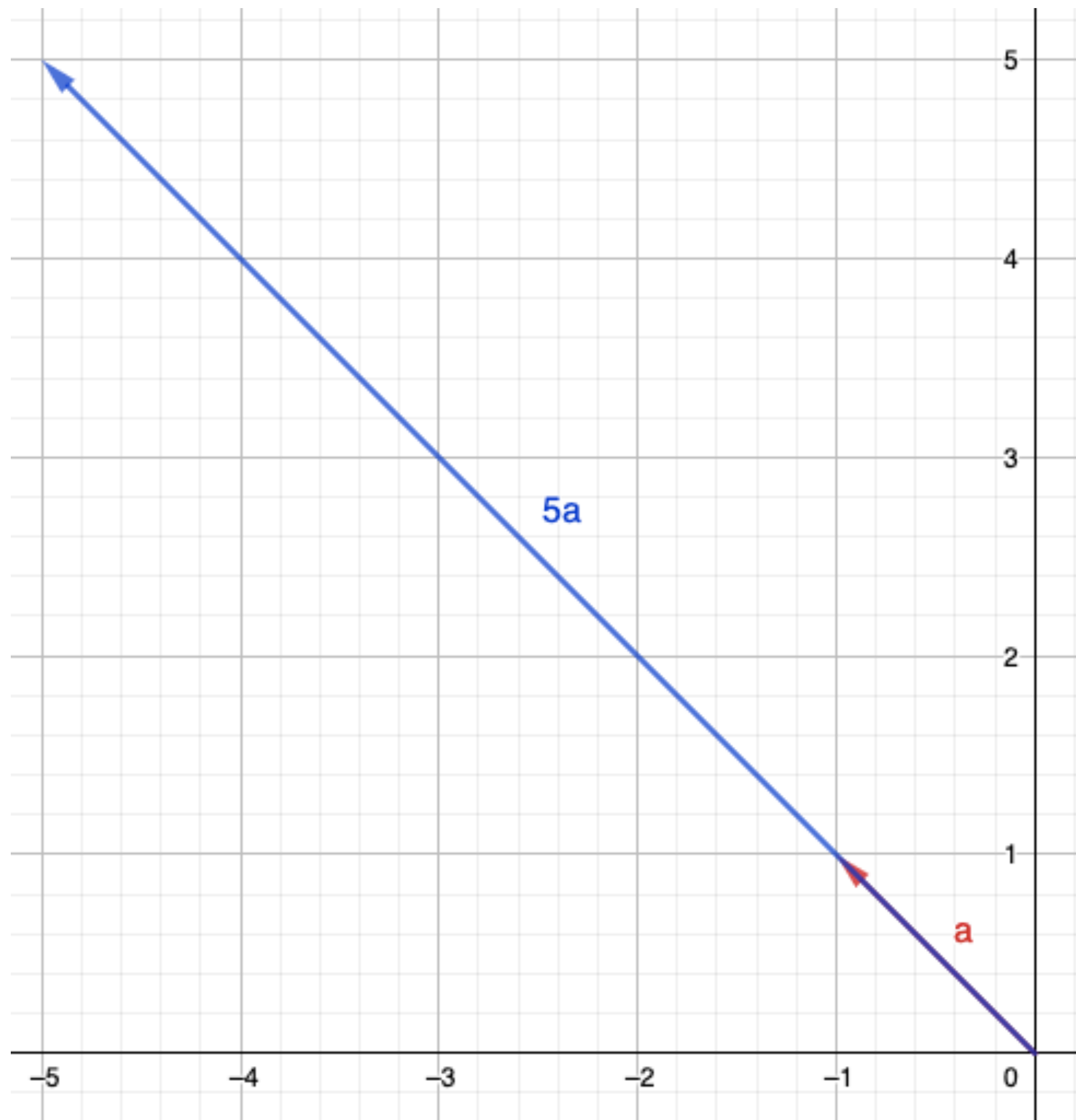
$\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{a} = \langle -2, -1 \rangle - \langle -1, 1 \rangle = \langle -1, -2 \rangle$



# Vector Arithmetic, Geometric Perspective : Scalar Multiplication.

Previously we saw this calculation...  $\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$

$$5 \cdot \mathbf{a} = 5 \cdot \langle -1, 1 \rangle = \langle 5 \cdot (-1), 5 \cdot 1 \rangle = \langle -5, 5 \rangle$$



Multiplying  $\mathbf{a}$  by 5 has stretched  $\mathbf{a}$  so that it's 5 times larger.

$5 \cdot \mathbf{a}$  has the same direction as  $\mathbf{a}$ , but its magnitude has increased.

Here are some for you to try:

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

Compute the following. Include a picture!

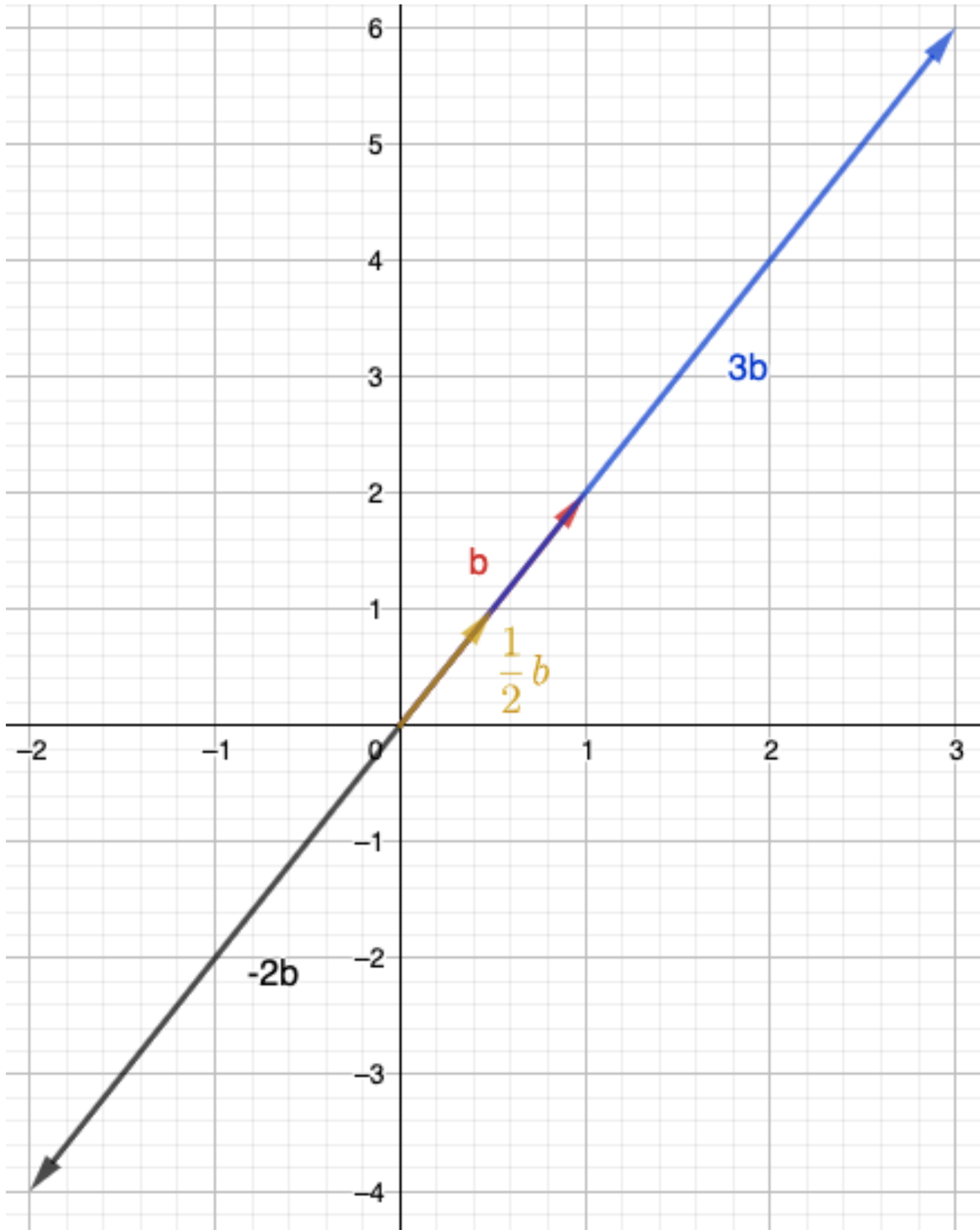
$$3 \cdot \mathbf{b} = \langle 3, 6 \rangle$$

$$-2 \cdot \mathbf{b} = \langle -2, -4 \rangle$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \left\langle \frac{1}{2}, 1 \right\rangle$$

Pictures on the next slide...

# Scalar Multiplication of Vectors: Illustrations.



$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$3 \cdot \mathbf{b} = \langle 3, 6 \rangle$$

(**b** is stretched by a factor of 3.)

$$-2 \cdot \mathbf{b} = \langle -2, -4 \rangle$$

(**b** is stretched by a factor of 2, and reflected about the origin.)

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \left\langle \frac{1}{2}, 1 \right\rangle$$

(**b** is scaled by a factor of 1/2; you might say it's 'squished' by a factor of 2)

Note 1: scaling a vector by a negative number reflects the vector about the origin.

Note 2: scaling a vector by a scalar  $k$  with  $|k| < 1$  results in a shorter vector (i.e. one with smaller magnitude).

In fact  $|c \cdot \mathbf{v}| = |c| \cdot |\mathbf{v}|$  for any vector  $\mathbf{v}$  and any scalar  $c \in \mathbf{R}$

Here are some more properties of vectors...

**Properties of Vectors.** Suppose  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  are vectors, and that  $c, d \in \mathbf{R}$  are scalars.

THEN the following properties hold:

1.  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
2.  $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$
3.  $\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$  Where  $\mathbf{0} = \langle 0, 0 \rangle$
4.  $-\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$
5.  $c \cdot (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c \cdot \mathbf{u} + c \cdot \mathbf{v}$
6.  $(c + d) \cdot \mathbf{u} = c \cdot \mathbf{u} + d \cdot \mathbf{u}$
7.  $(cd) \cdot \mathbf{u} = c \cdot (d \cdot \mathbf{u})$
8.  $1 \cdot \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$

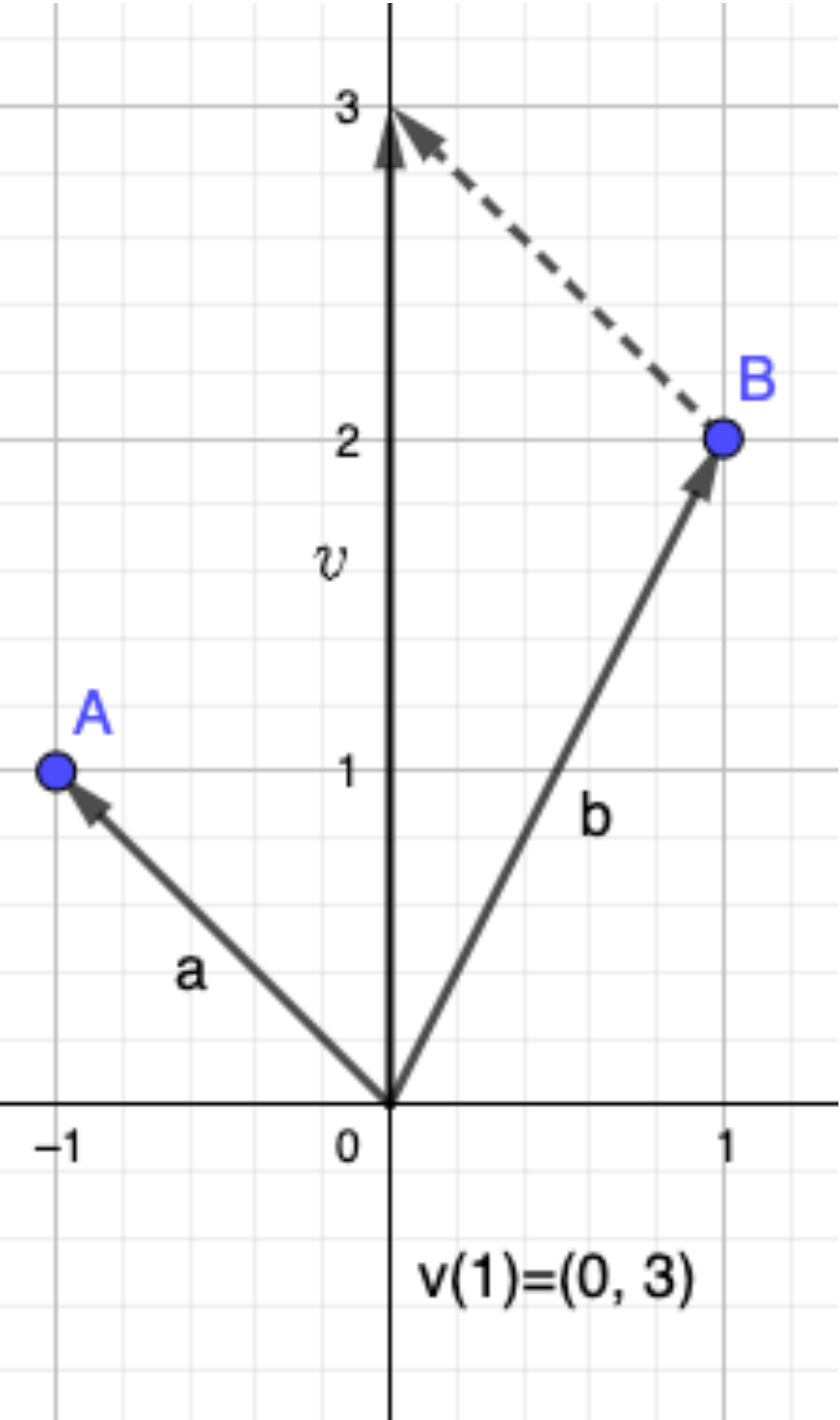
Theoretical Note: These properties are upheld by many mathematical objects, not just the vectors that you have seen.

What other things satisfy these properties?!?!

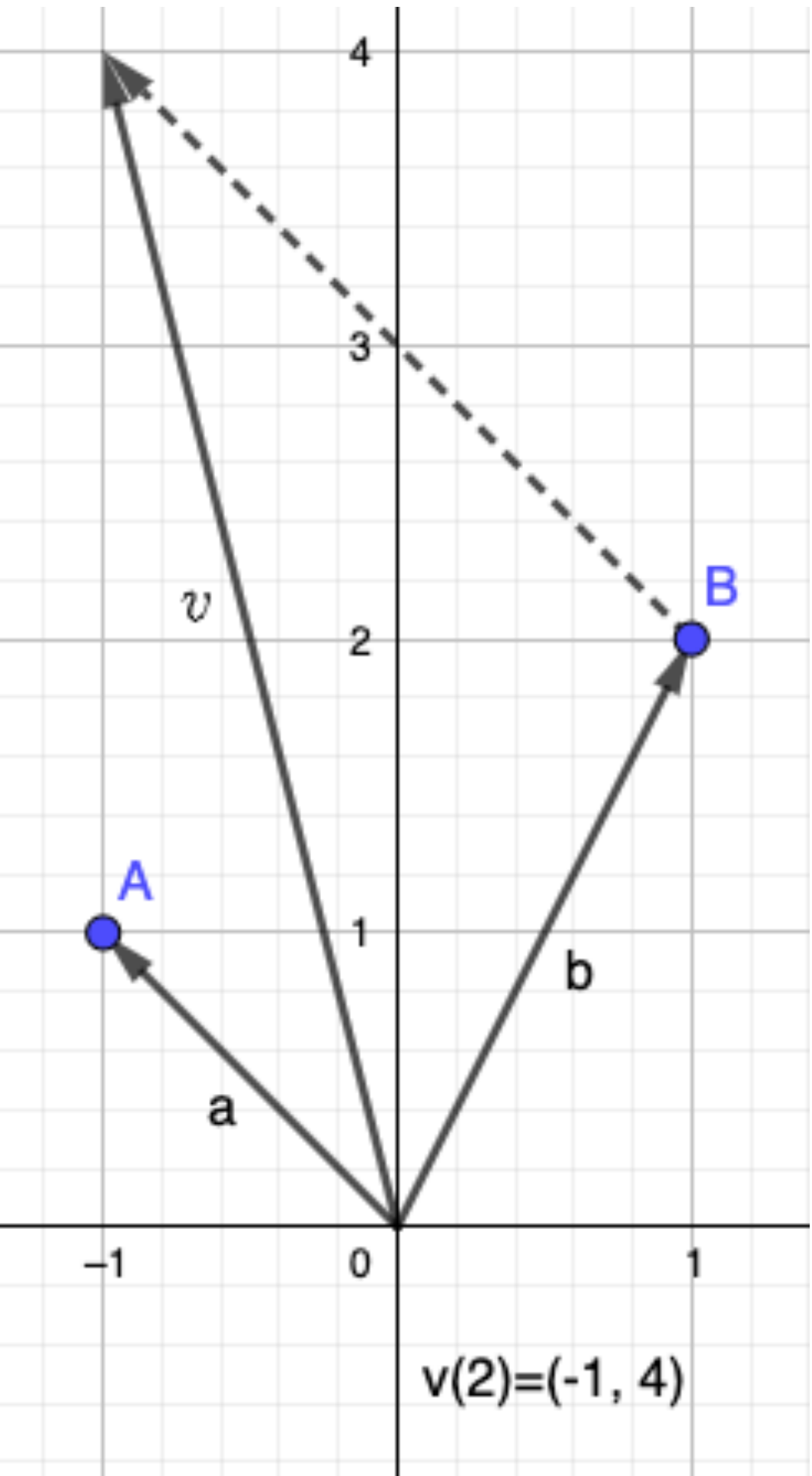
- Real Numbers !
- Complex Numbers!
- Functions!
- also...
- Matrices!!
- Solutions to certain differential equations!!

(Advertisement: You can study Matrices and/or Differential Equations here at CCSF in M120, M125, M130.)  
but for us in M110C, why are vectors important...?

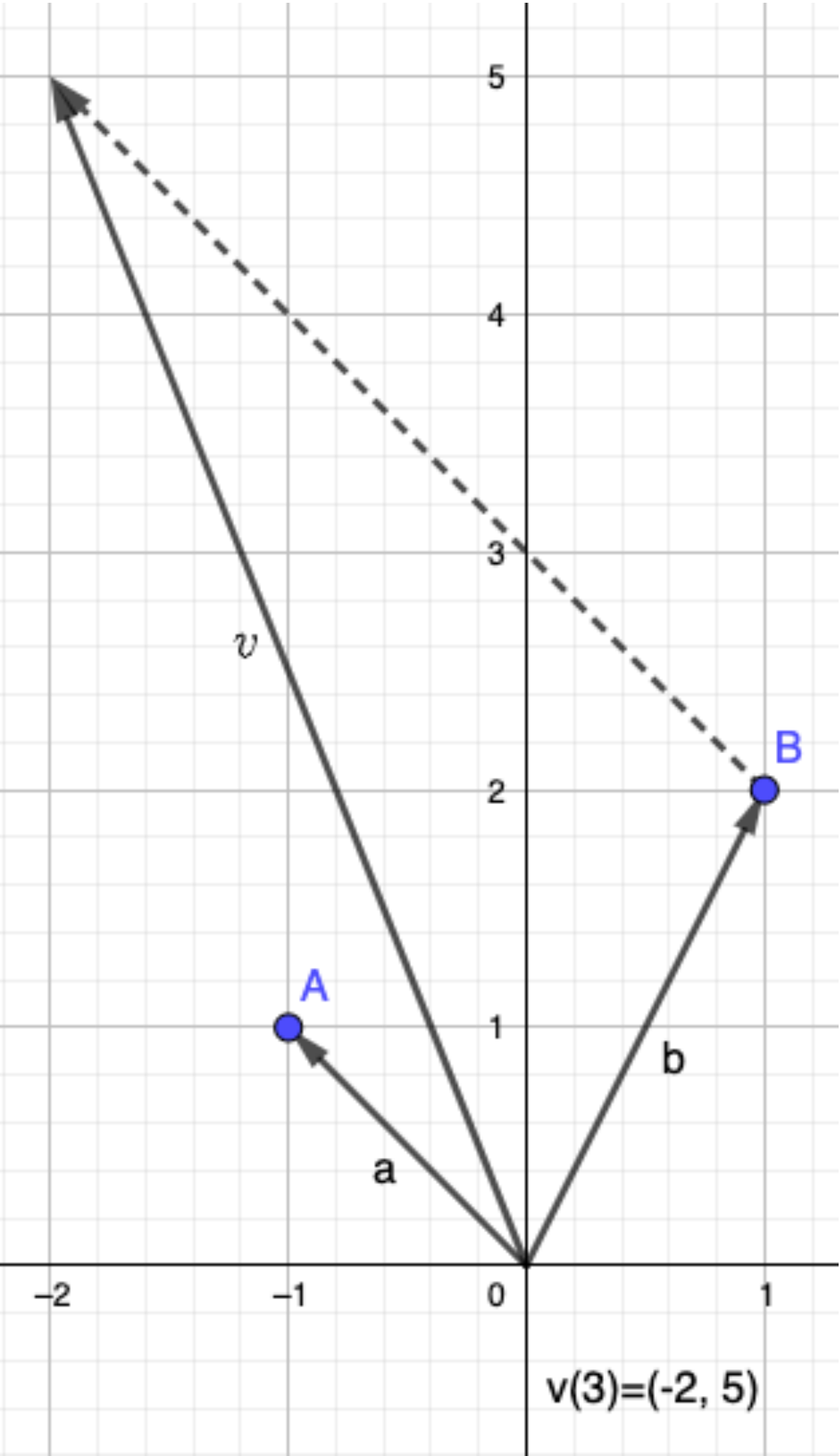
One Reason Why Vectors are Cool. Suppose  $\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 1 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$



$\mathbf{v}(1) = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$

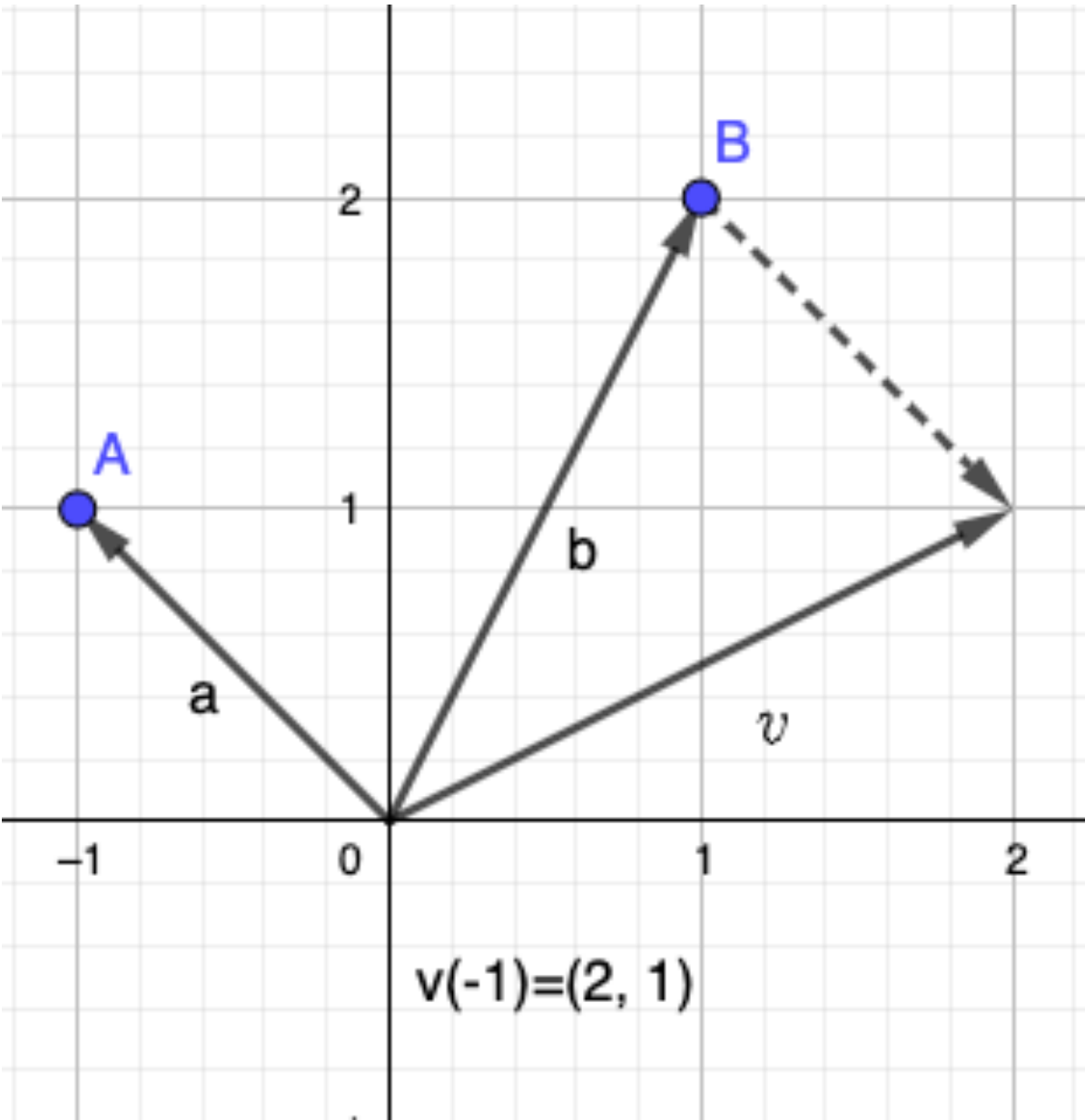


$\mathbf{v}(2) = \mathbf{b} + 2 \cdot \mathbf{a}$



$\mathbf{v}(3) = \mathbf{b} + 3 \cdot \mathbf{a}$

What if we subtract multiples of  $\mathbf{a}$  from  $\mathbf{b}$ ?

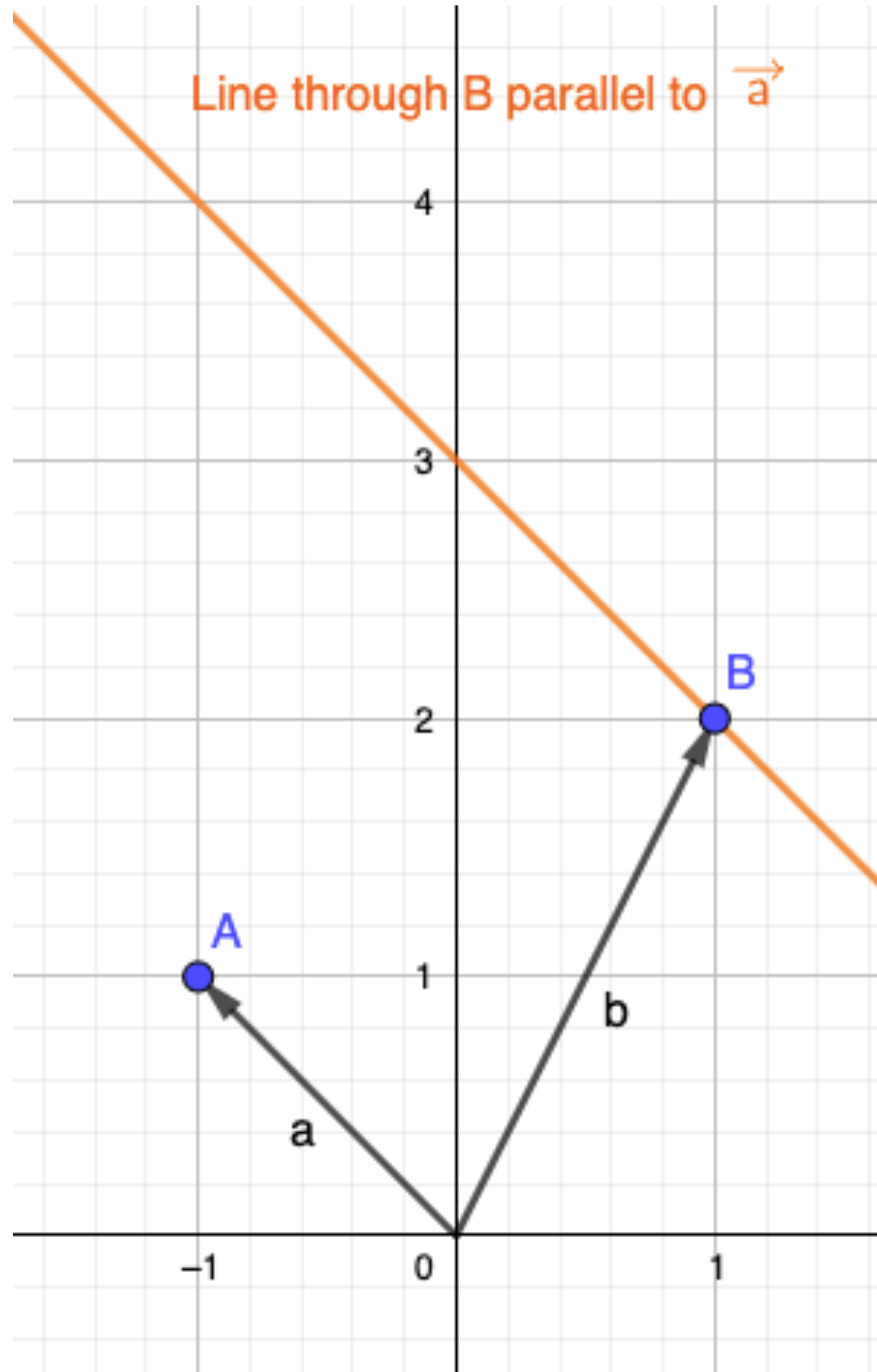


$\mathbf{v}(-1) = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}$

All told, what do we get when we add different multiples of  $\mathbf{a}$  to  $\mathbf{b}$ ??



# One Reason Why Vectors are Cool, pg 2.

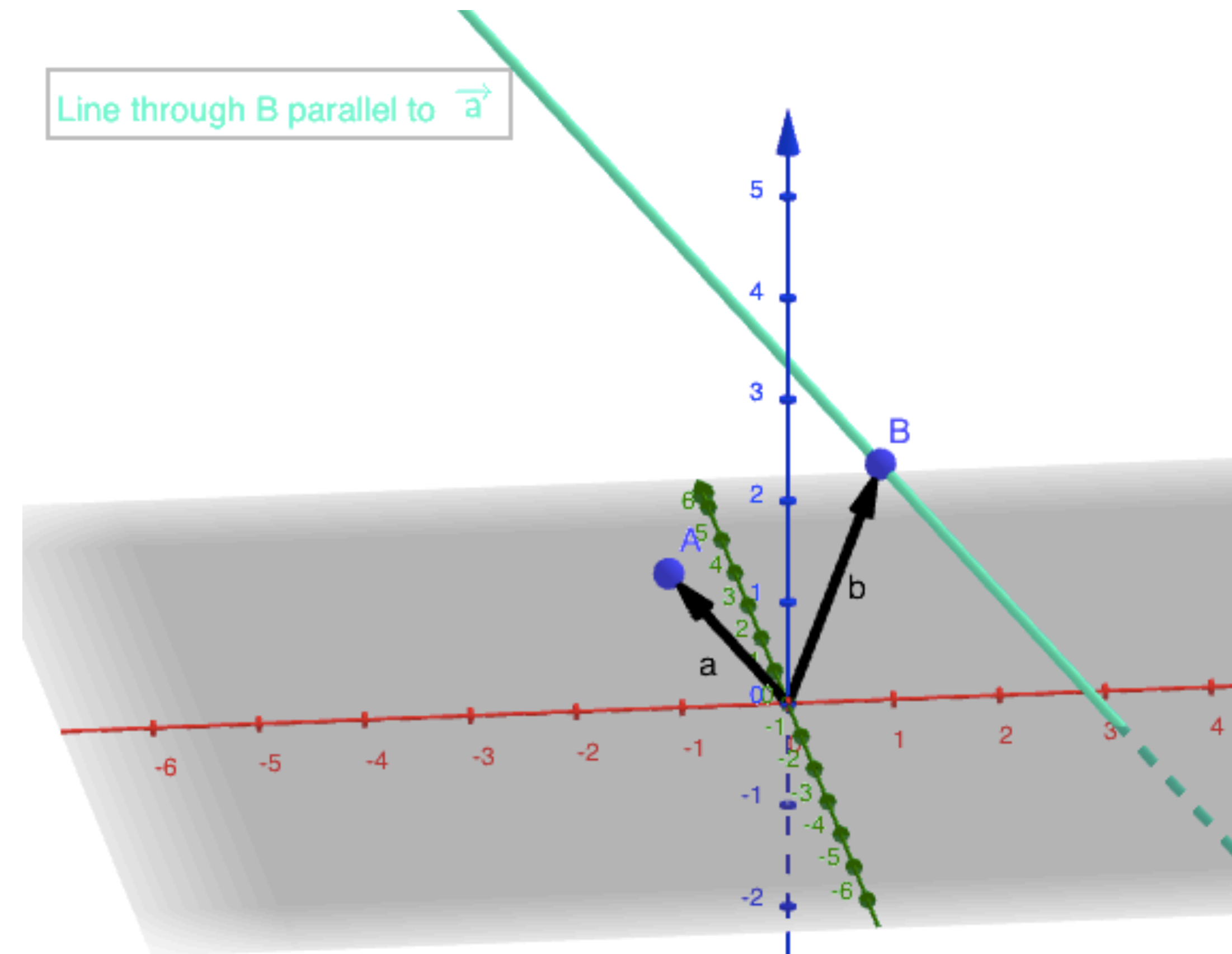


By adding multiples of  $\vec{a}$  to  $\vec{b}$ , we can describe all the points on the line which goes through the terminal point of  $\vec{b}$  parallel to the vector  $\vec{a}$ .

*Why describe lines using these vectors when we already know how to describe lines using slopes and intercepts?*

Link: [2DLineWithVectors](#)

This vector approach to describing lines is used for lines in three dimensions!!!



We will see more in the coming lessons.

Link: [3DLinesWithVectors](#)

# The dot product (2D).

Suppose  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$

Then the *dot product* or *inner product* of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  is the scalar (number)  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} := a_1 \cdot b_1 + a_2 \cdot b_2$

Examples.  $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 3 \rangle$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \langle -2, 4 \rangle$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = \langle 2, 1 \rangle$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 1 \cdot -2 + 3 \cdot 4 = -2 + 12 = 10$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} = 5$$

You try:

$$\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c} = -2 \cdot 2 + 4 \cdot 1 = 0$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = 1 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 3 = 10$$

$$(2 \cdot \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = \langle 2, 6 \rangle \cdot \langle -2, 4 \rangle = 2 \cdot -2 + 6 \cdot 4 = 20$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c} &= (\langle 1, 3 \rangle + \langle -2, 4 \rangle) \cdot \langle 2, 1 \rangle \\ &= \langle -1, 7 \rangle \cdot \langle 2, 1 \rangle = 5 \end{aligned}$$

Observations: The following are true for any vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}$  and scalar  $k$ :

1.  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}$

2.  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{a}|^2$ , or  $|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}}$

3.  $(k \cdot \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = k \cdot (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})$

4.  $(\mathbf{a} \pm \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} \pm \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c}$

5.  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$  exactly when...  
... $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are perpendicular.

# Dot Product: The Angle between two vectors.

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 3 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle -2, 4 \rangle$$

What's the angle,  $\theta$ , between  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ ?

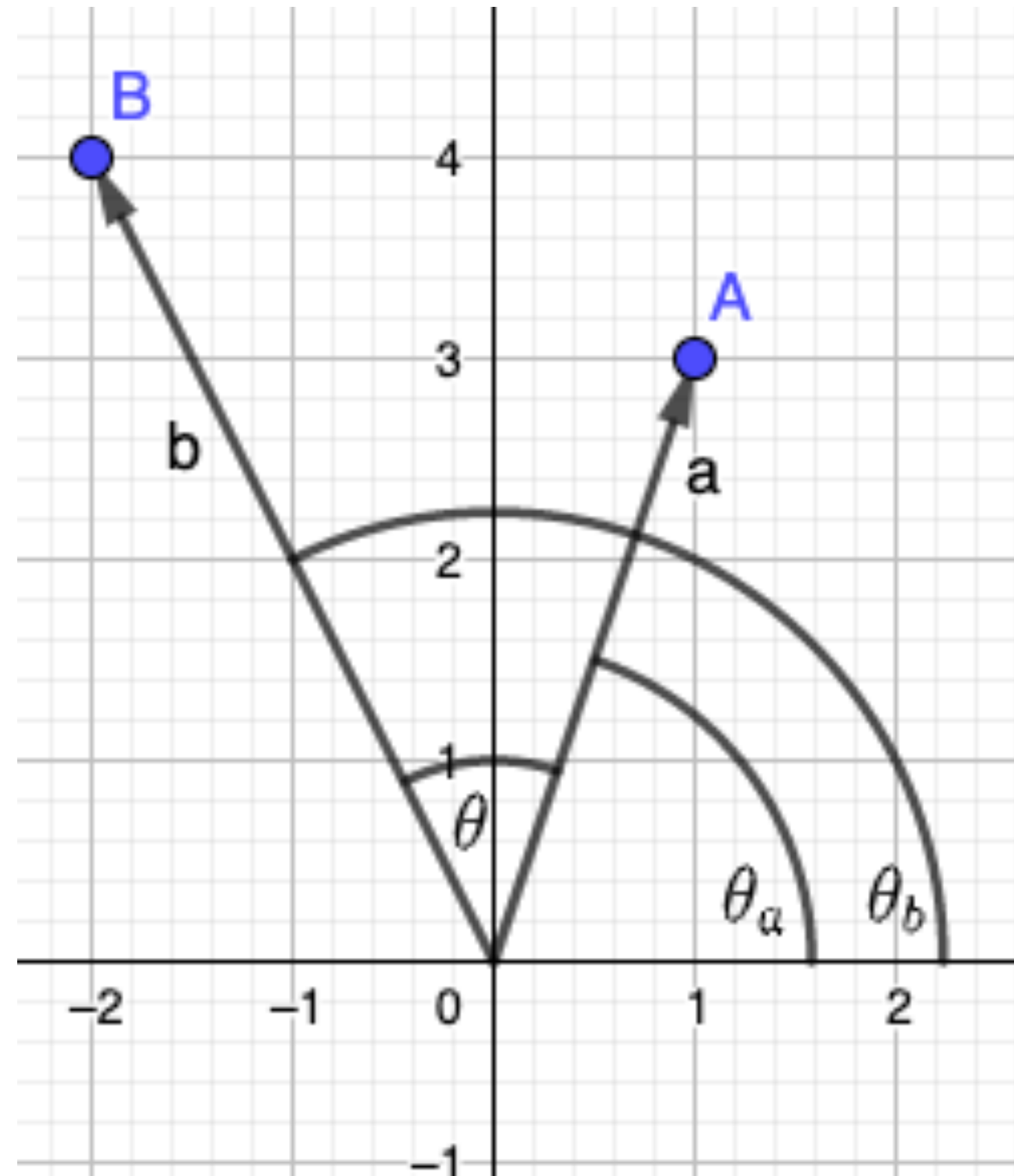
Method 1:  $\theta = \theta_b - \theta_a$

$$\theta_a = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{1}\right) \approx 1.25\text{rad} \approx 71.57^\circ$$

$$\theta_b = \tan^{-1}\left(-\frac{4}{2}\right) + \pi \approx 2.03\text{rad} \approx 116.57^\circ$$

$$\theta = \theta_b - \theta_a = 45^\circ$$

(rounded to the nearest hundredth  
at the very end of the calculation.)



In our specific example...  $\cos(\theta) = \frac{10}{\sqrt{10}\sqrt{20}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \frac{\pi}{4}\text{rad} = 45^\circ$$

Another method:

Suppose  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$   
and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$

$$\theta = \theta_b - \theta_a$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(\theta) &= \cos(\theta_b - \theta_a) \\ &= \cos(\theta_b)\cos(\theta_a) + \sin(\theta_b)\sin(\theta_a) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{b_1}{|\mathbf{b}|} \cdot \frac{a_1}{|\mathbf{a}|} + \frac{b_2}{|\mathbf{b}|} \cdot \frac{a_2}{|\mathbf{a}|}$$

$$= \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}$$

# Dot Product: The Angle between two vectors.

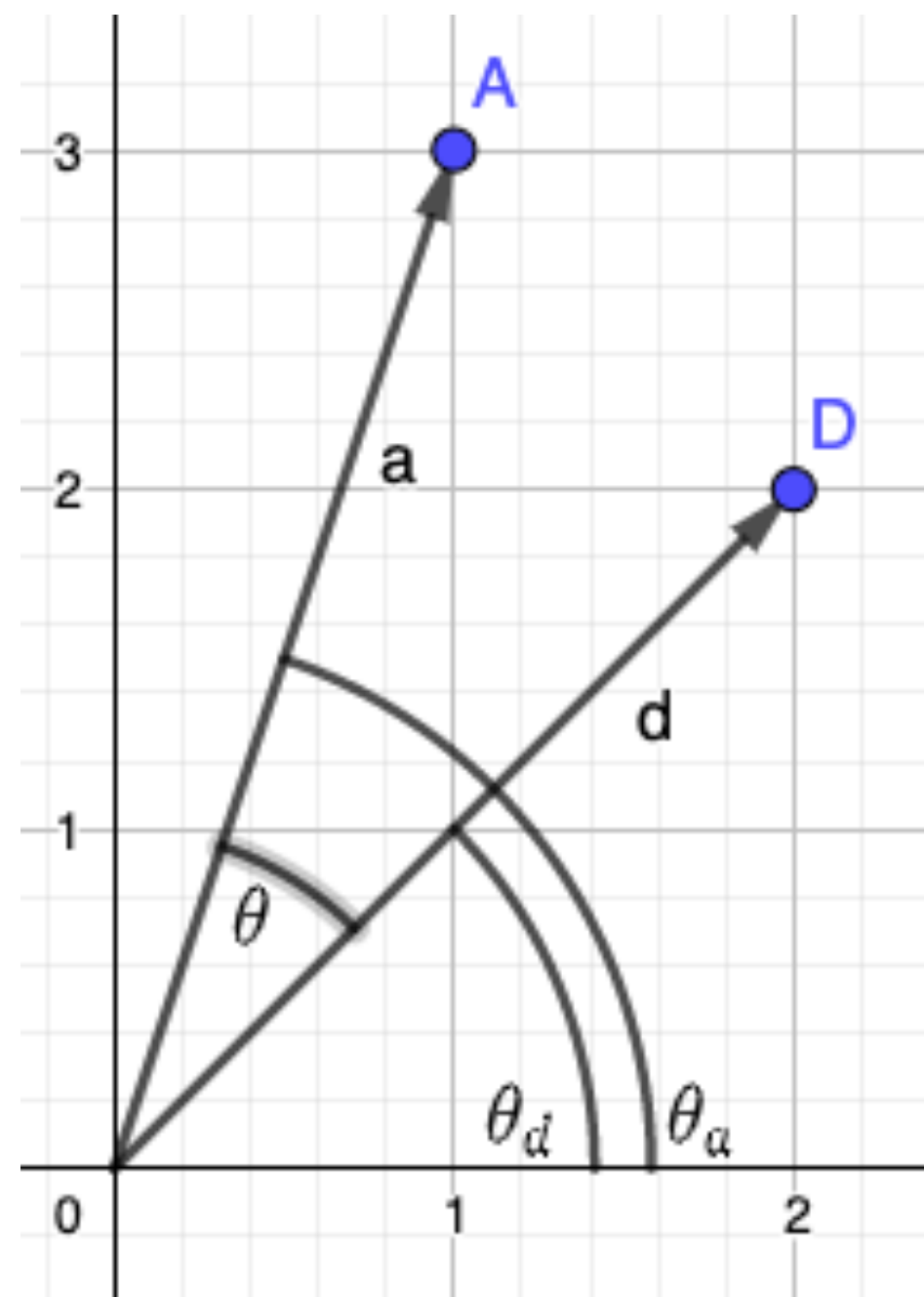
Helpful formula: if  $\theta \in [0^\circ, 180^\circ]$  is the angle between vectors **a** and **b**, then  $\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}$

Equivalently,  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos(\theta)$

This explains the perpendicularity rule we saw earlier:

**a** and **b** are perpendicular when  $\theta = 90^\circ$ , which happens when  $\cos(\theta) = 0$ , which happens when  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$ , and conversely.

Wanna try?



**a** =  $\langle 1, 3 \rangle$  ,    **d** =  $\langle 2, 2 \rangle$

Find the angle between **a** and **d**.

Using our formula:

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{d}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{d}|} = \frac{8}{\sqrt{10}\sqrt{8}} = \frac{2\sqrt{5}}{5}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2\sqrt{5}}{5}\right) \approx 26.57^\circ$$

Or computing each angle separately:

$$\theta_a = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{1}\right) \approx 1.25\text{rad} \approx 71.57^\circ$$

$$\theta_d = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{2}\right) = 45^\circ$$

$$\theta = \theta_a - \theta_d \approx 26.57^\circ$$



# Dot Product: Projecting one vector onto another. Derivation.

Say  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$

We want to compute the  
*projection of  $\mathbf{b}$  onto  $\mathbf{a}$* , written  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$

Imagine the sun shining beams of light in a direction perpendicular to  $\mathbf{a}$ . Then  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$  is the shadow of  $\mathbf{b}$  on the line along  $\mathbf{a}$ .

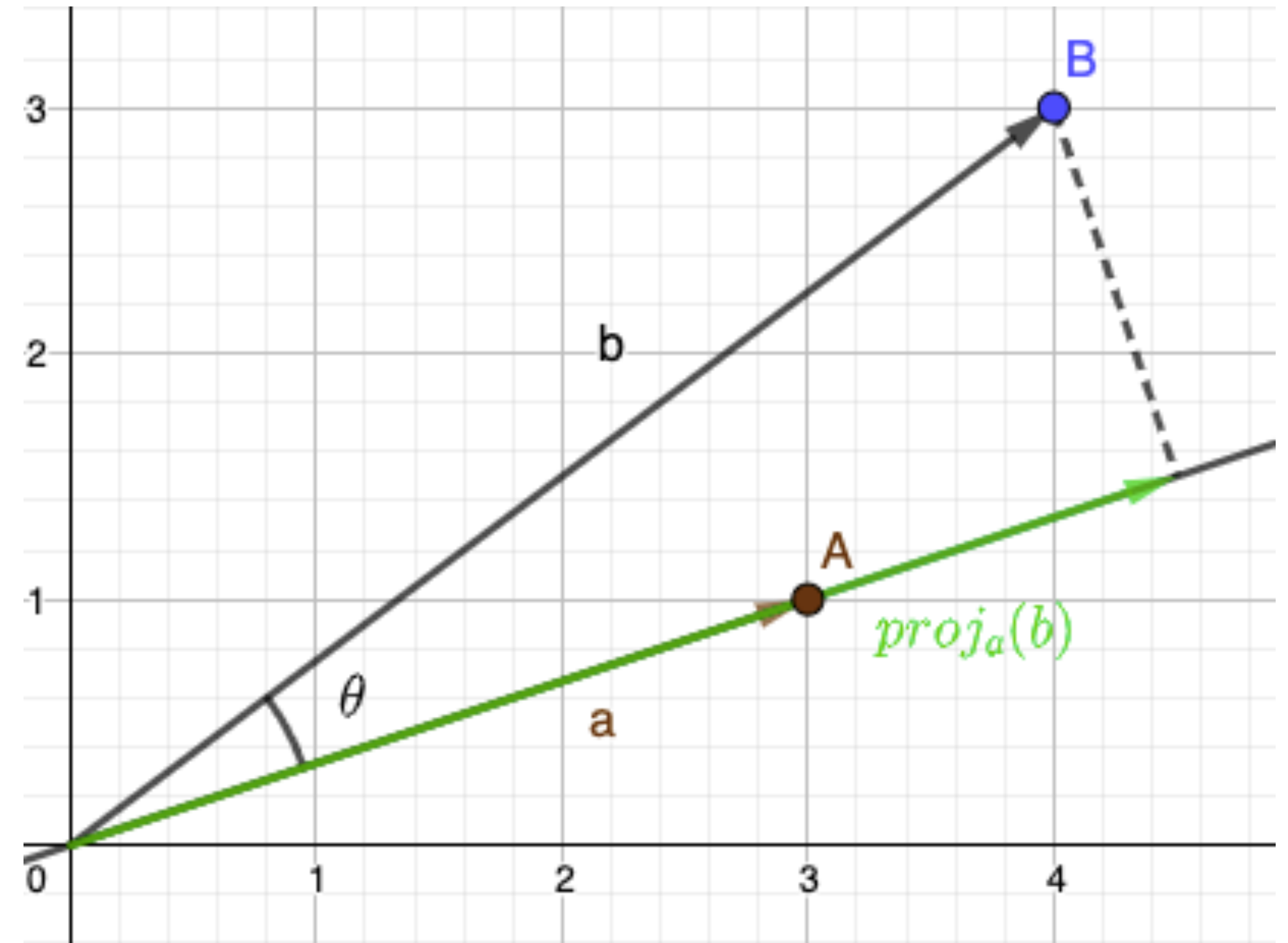
As this vector lies on the same line as  $\mathbf{a}$ , it must be that  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b}) = k\mathbf{a}$  for some scalar  $k$ .

What's  $k$ ? How much of  $\mathbf{a}$  goes into  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$ ?

The requirement that the projection needs to fulfill has to do with perpendicularity:

The vector which completes the triangle from  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$  to  $\mathbf{b}$  should be perpendicular to  $\mathbf{a}$ .

$$0 = (\mathbf{b} - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})) \cdot \mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{b} - k\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a} - k\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}$$

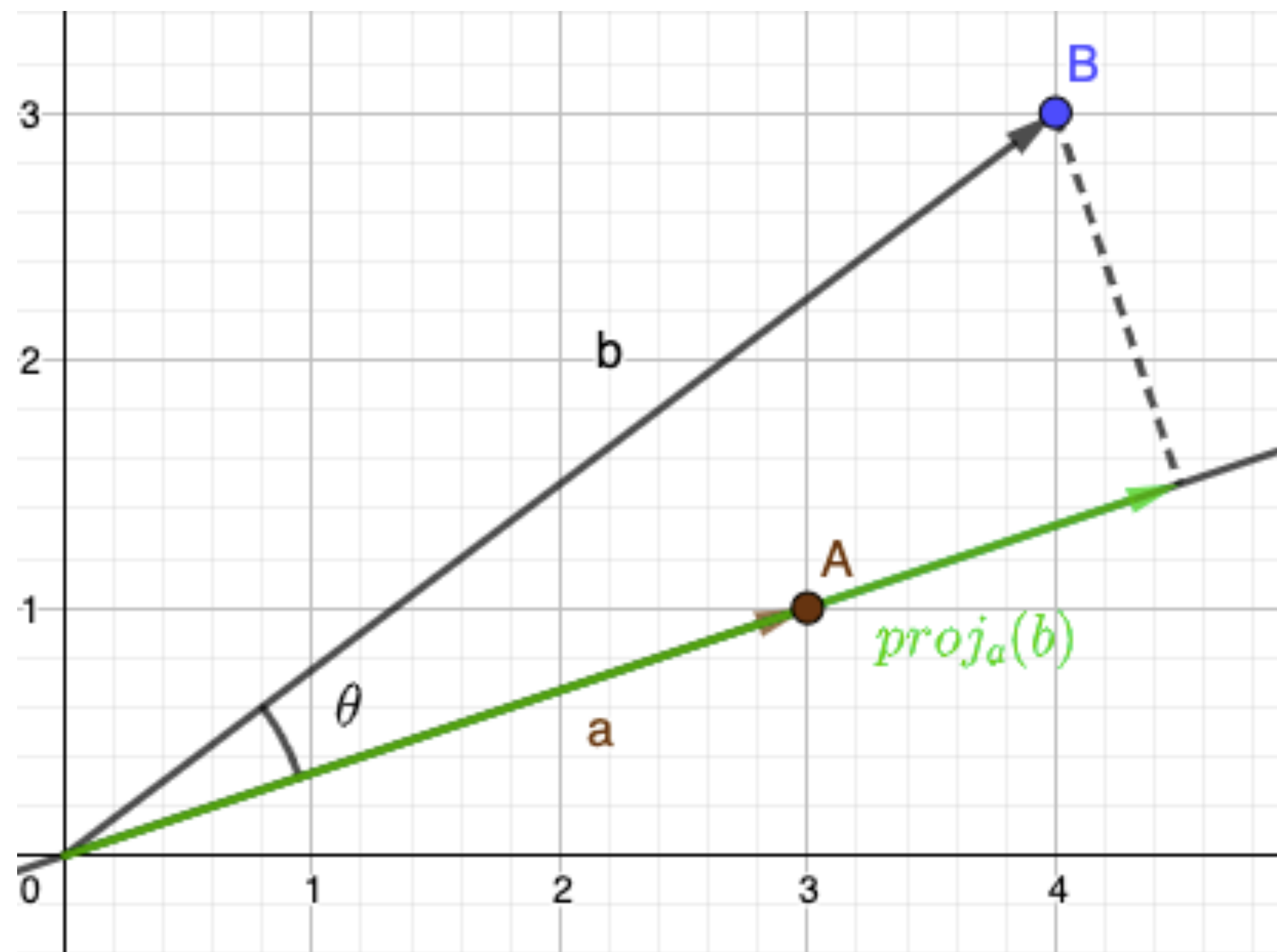


↙ This tells us what  $k$  needs to be.  $k = \frac{\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}}$

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b}) = k\mathbf{a} = \left( \frac{\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \right) \mathbf{a}$$



# Dot Product: Projecting one vector onto another, Example.



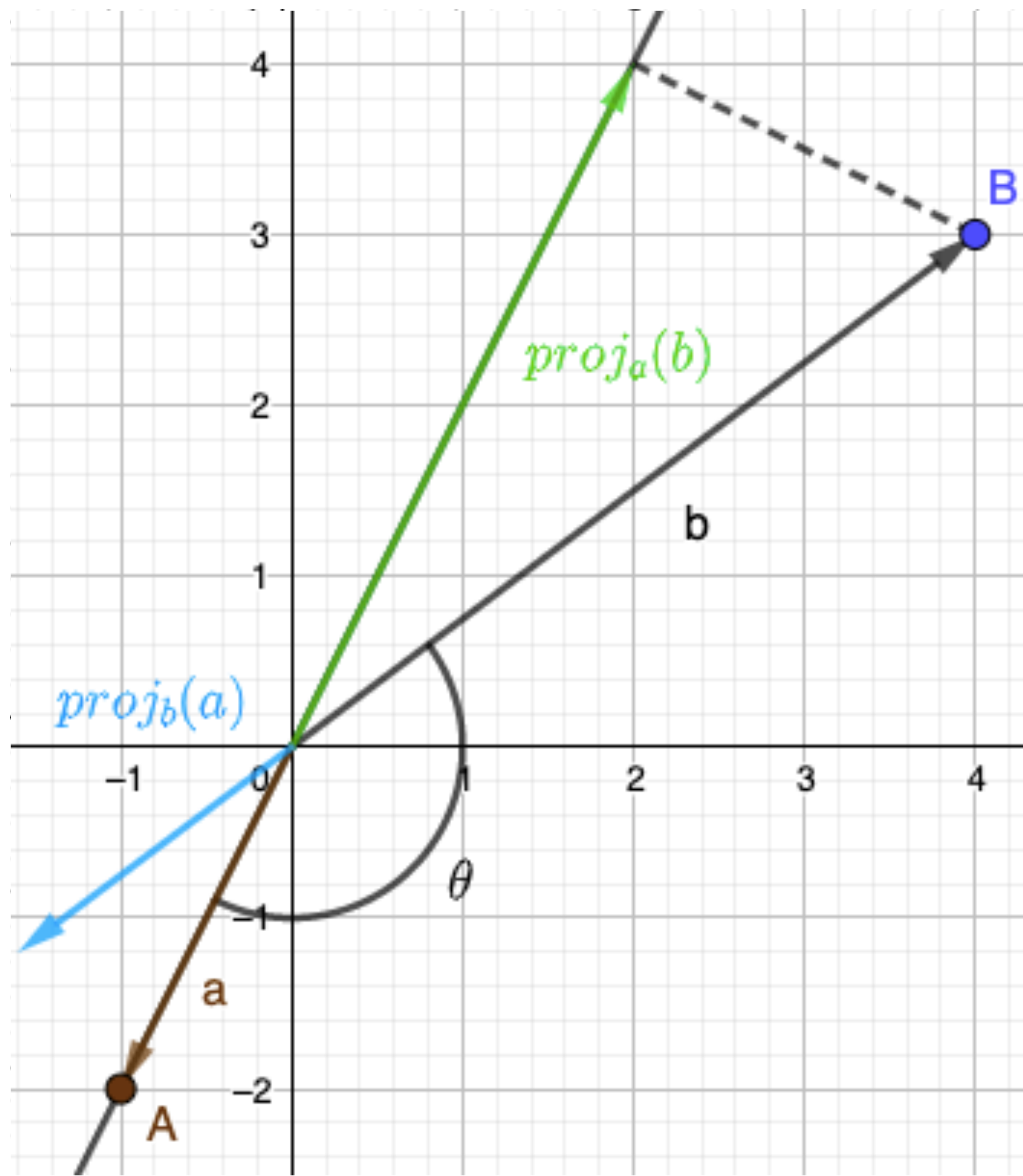
$$\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 1 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 4, 3 \rangle$$

$$\left( \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \right) = \frac{15}{10} = 1.5$$

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b}) = \left( \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \right) \mathbf{a} = 1.5\mathbf{a} = \langle 4.5, 1.5 \rangle$$

You try.

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, -2 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 4, 3 \rangle$$



Find  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b})$

$$\left( \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \right) = \frac{-10}{5} = -2$$

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b}) = -2\mathbf{a} = \langle 2, 4 \rangle$$

What about  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{a})$ ??

(Try computing it,  
and draw a picture!)

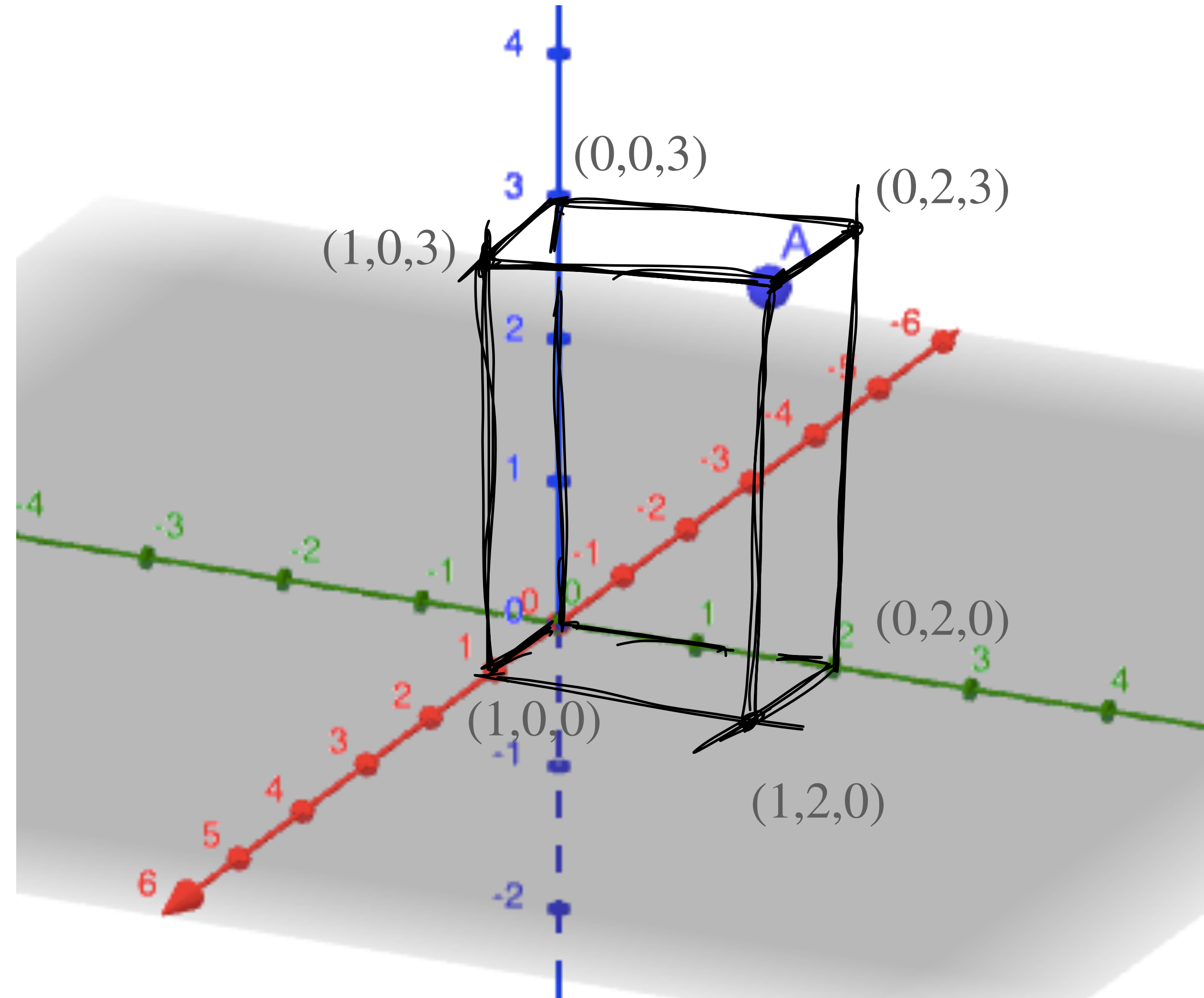
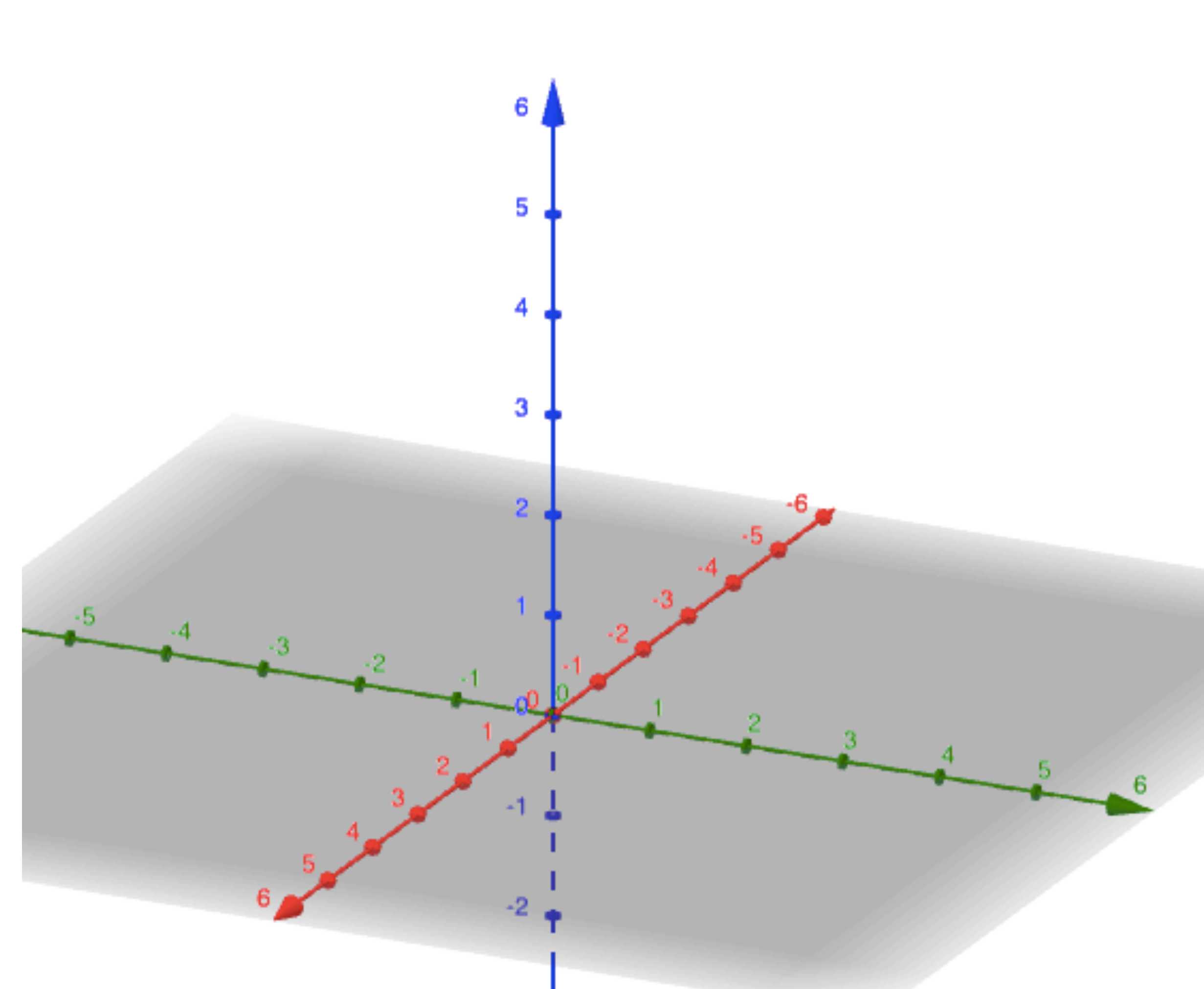
$$\begin{aligned} \text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{a}) &= \left( \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{b}} \right) \mathbf{b} \\ &= \frac{-10}{25} \mathbf{b} \\ &= \langle -1.6, -1.2 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

# Three Dimensional Space (3D)

Now there are three axes,  
an **x-axis**, **y-axis** and **z-axis**.

How do we plot points?

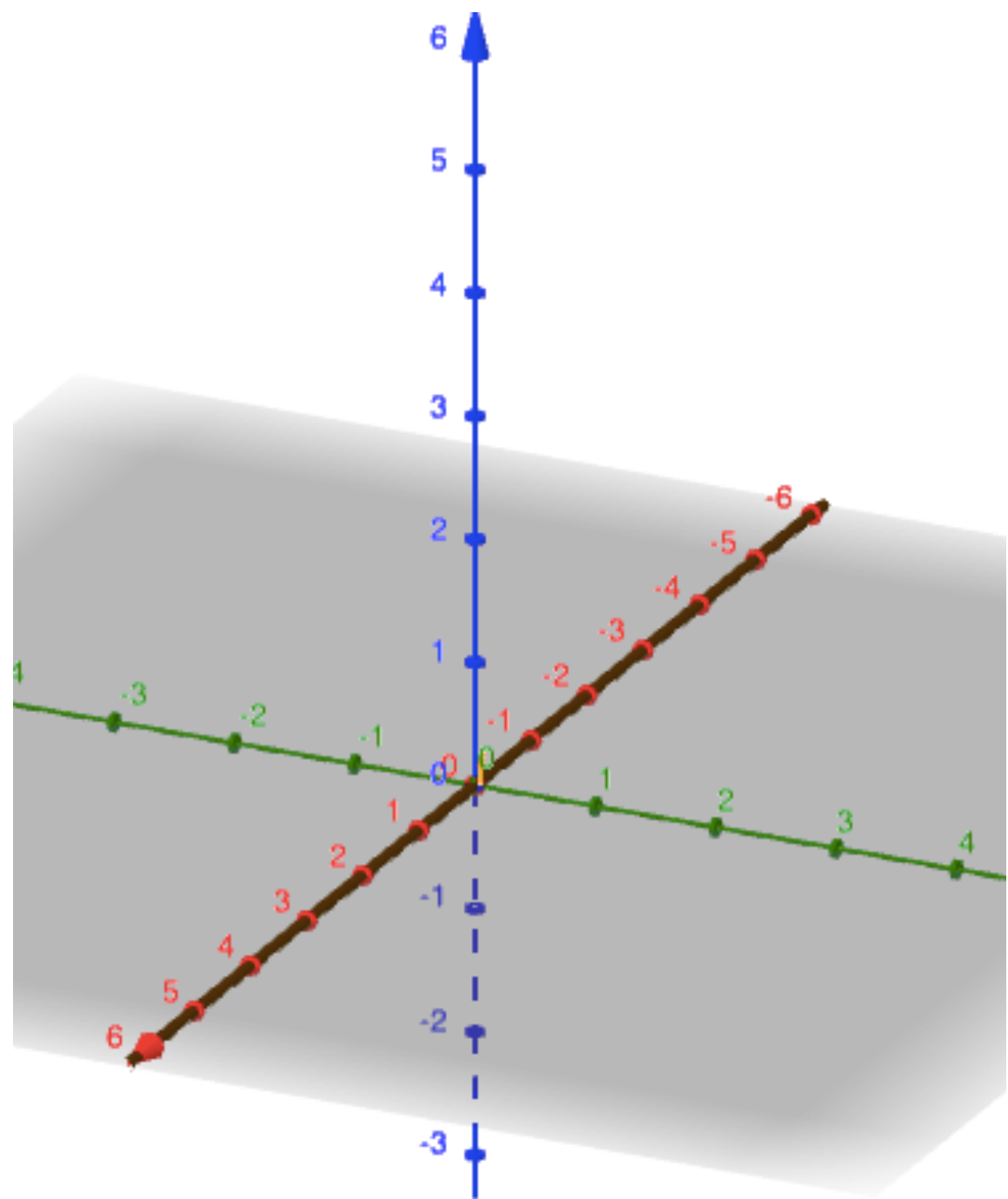
$A(1,2,3)$  is the point where  
 $x = 1$ ,  $y = 2$  and  $z = 3$



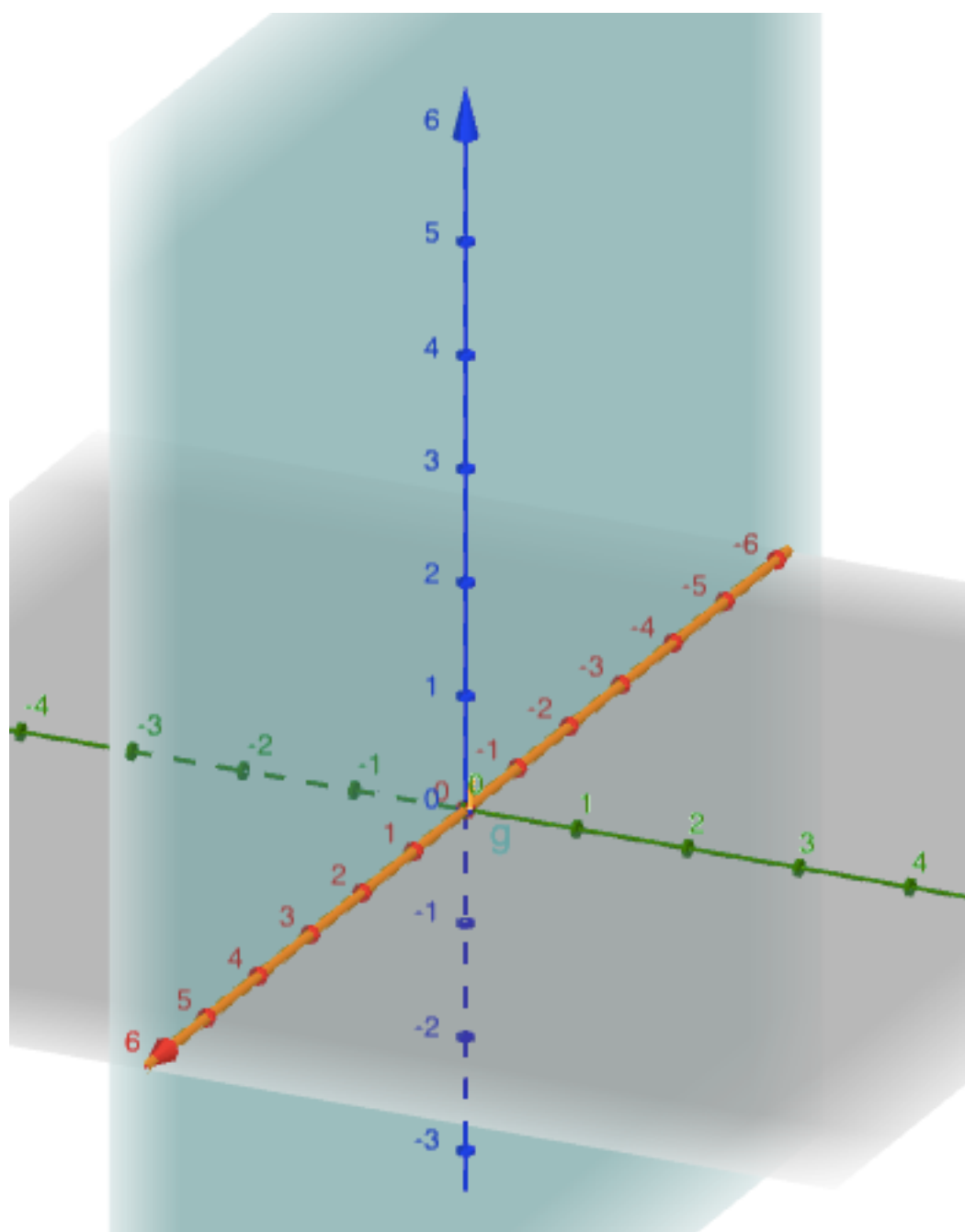
# Some (3D) Equations, and their graphs.

Plot the points which satisfy...

1.  $y = 0$   
(2D version)

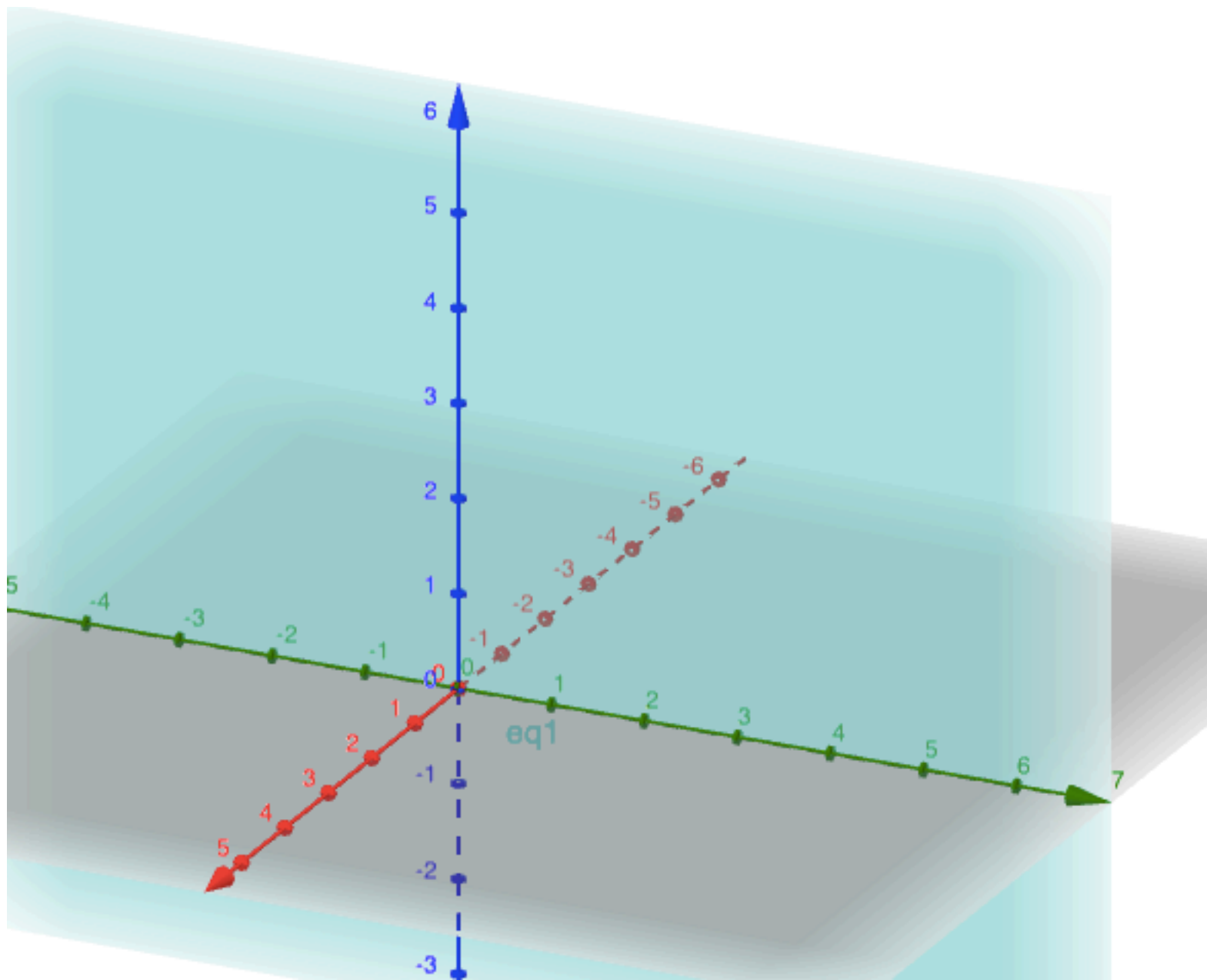


In 3D, the graph looks like this:

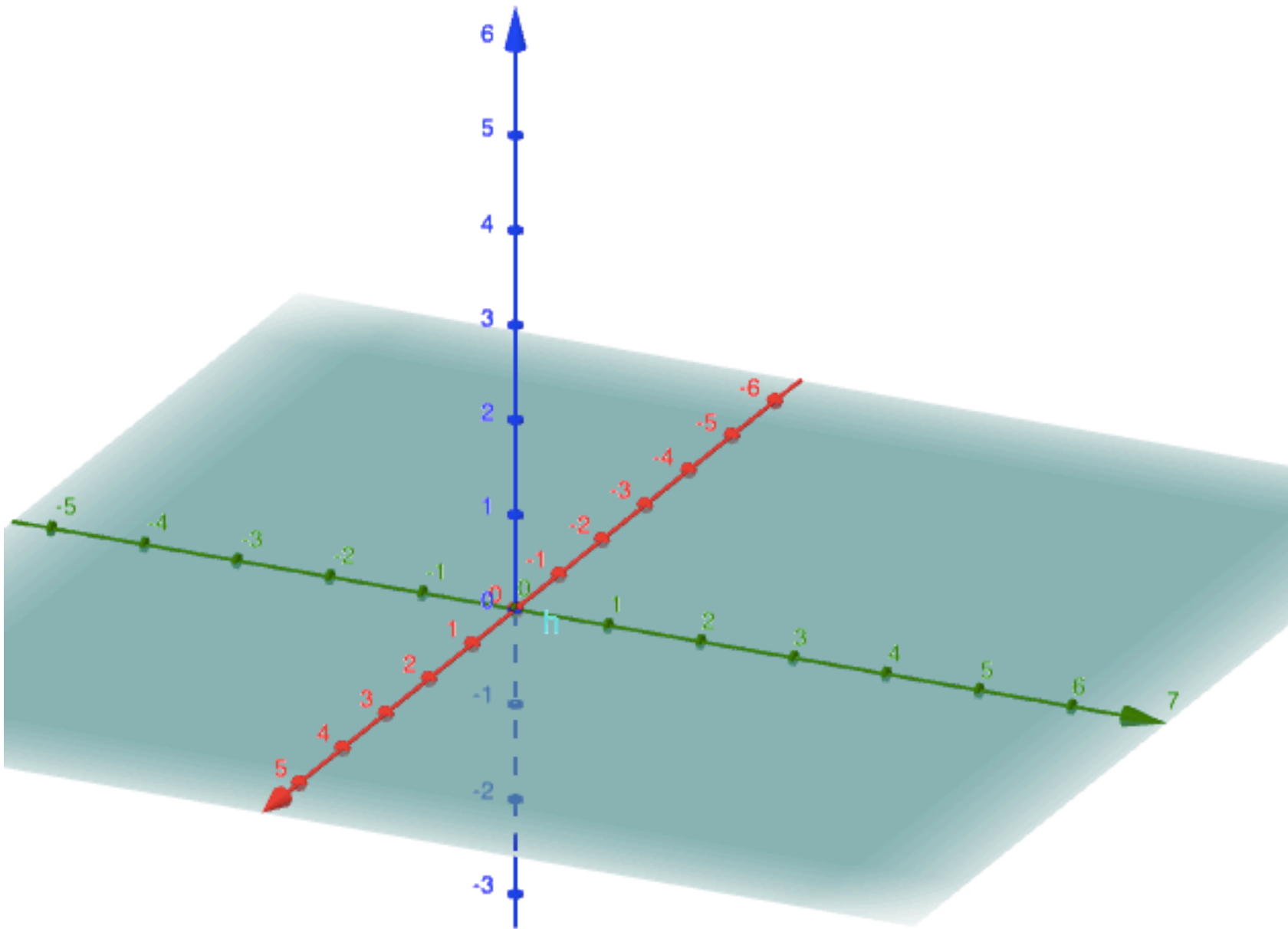


In the equation  $y = 0$ , the variables  $x$  and  $z$  are *free*. They can be anything.

2.  $x = 0$



3.  $z = 0$





# Some (3D) Equations, and their graphs, pg 2.

1.  $y = z$

It's not just this:  
where we only  
have points like

...

$(0,1,1)$

$(0,2,2)$

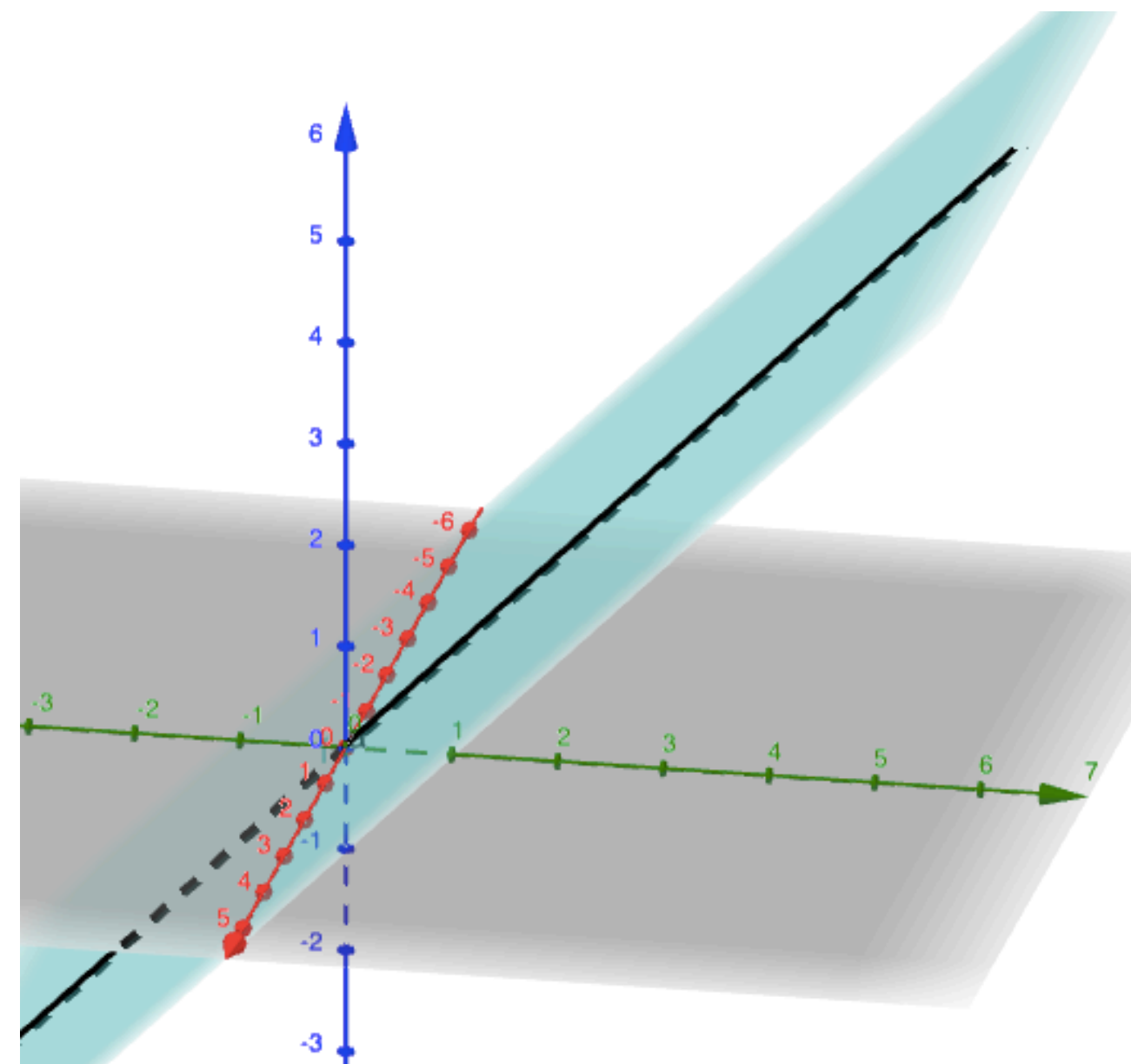
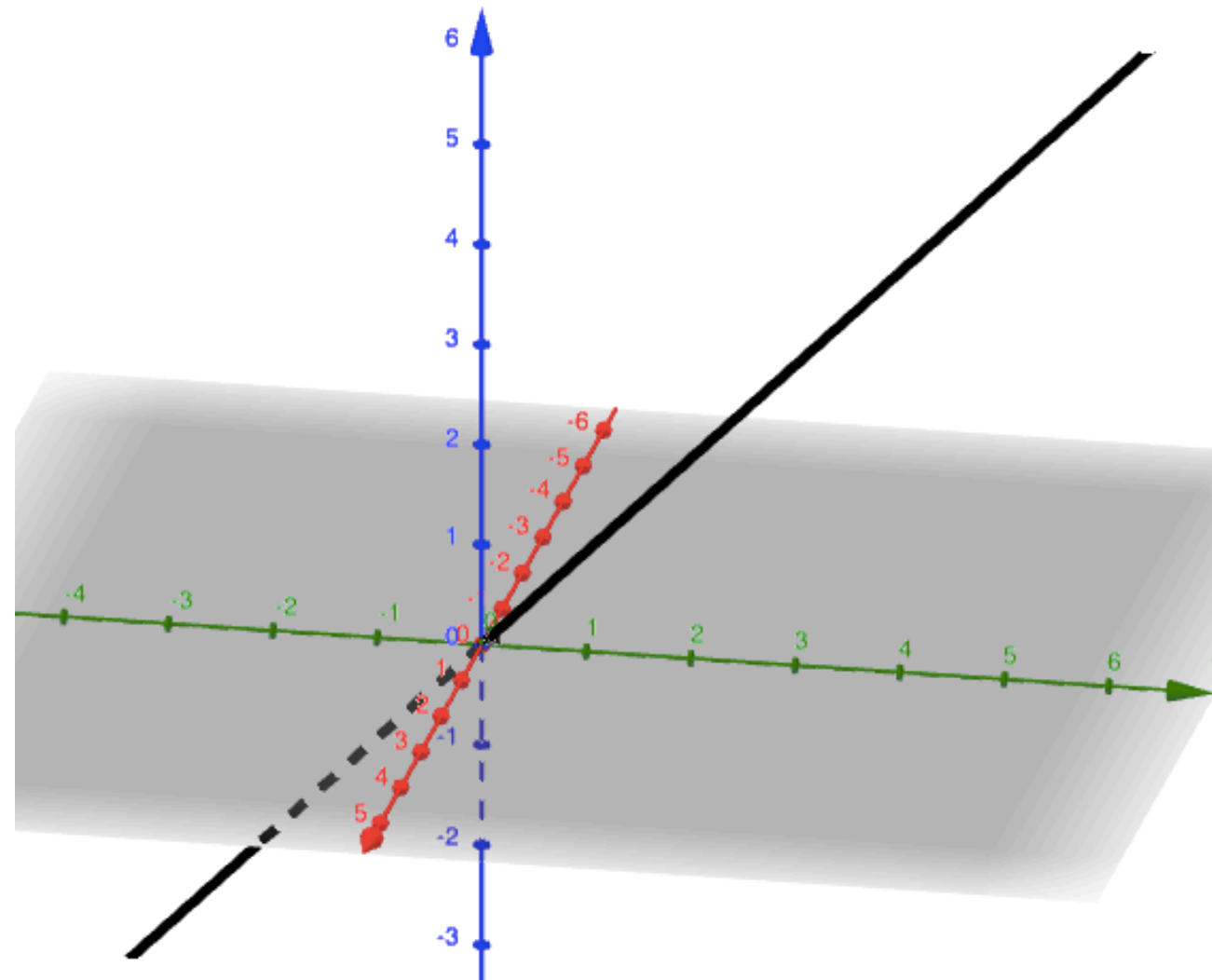
$(0,3,3)$

...

The graph is this:

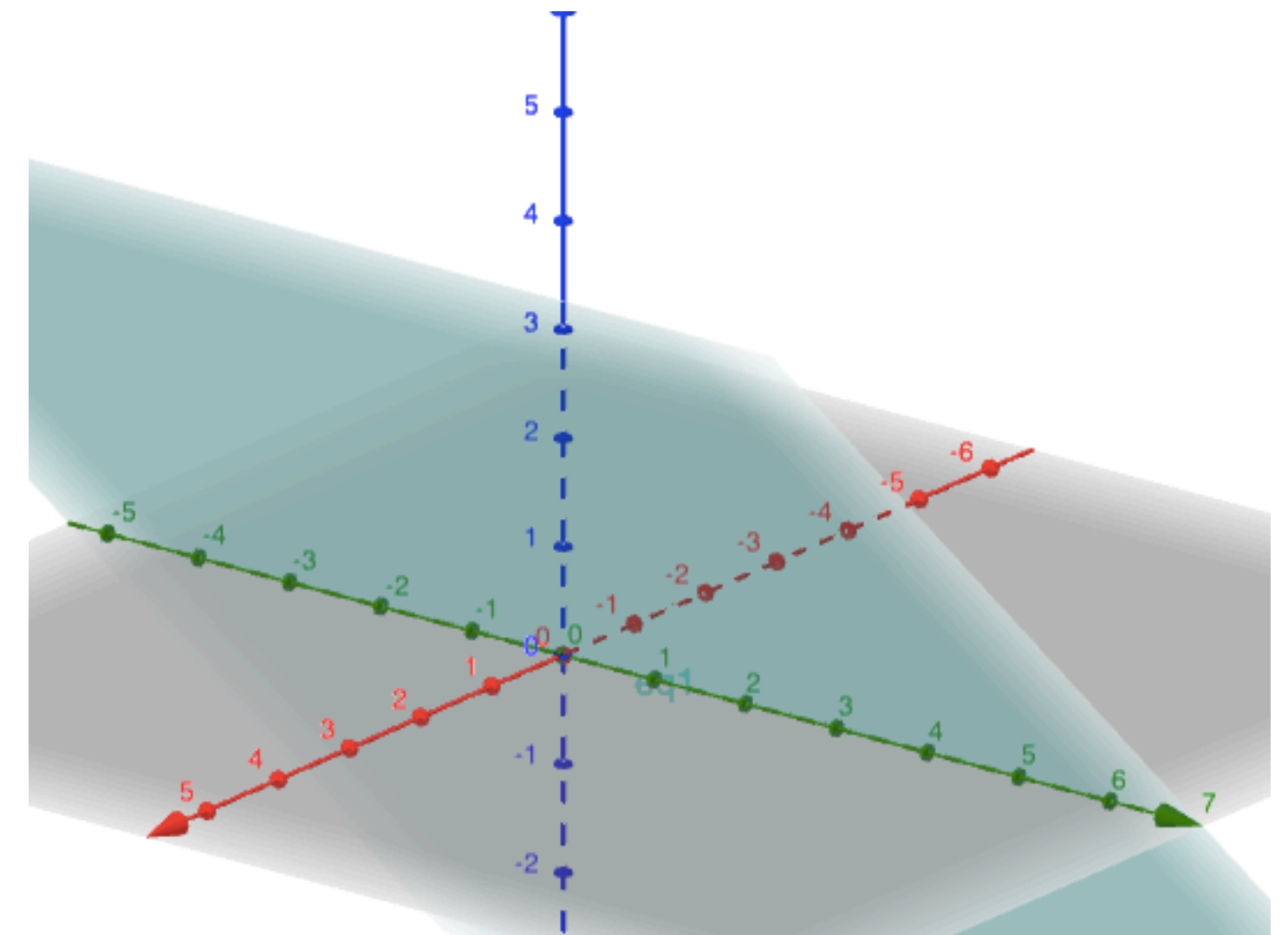
In the equation  $y = z$ ,  
the variable  $x$  is free.  
 $x$  can be anything.

e.g. the graph  
includes points  
 $(x,1,1)$  for all  $x \in \mathbf{R}$



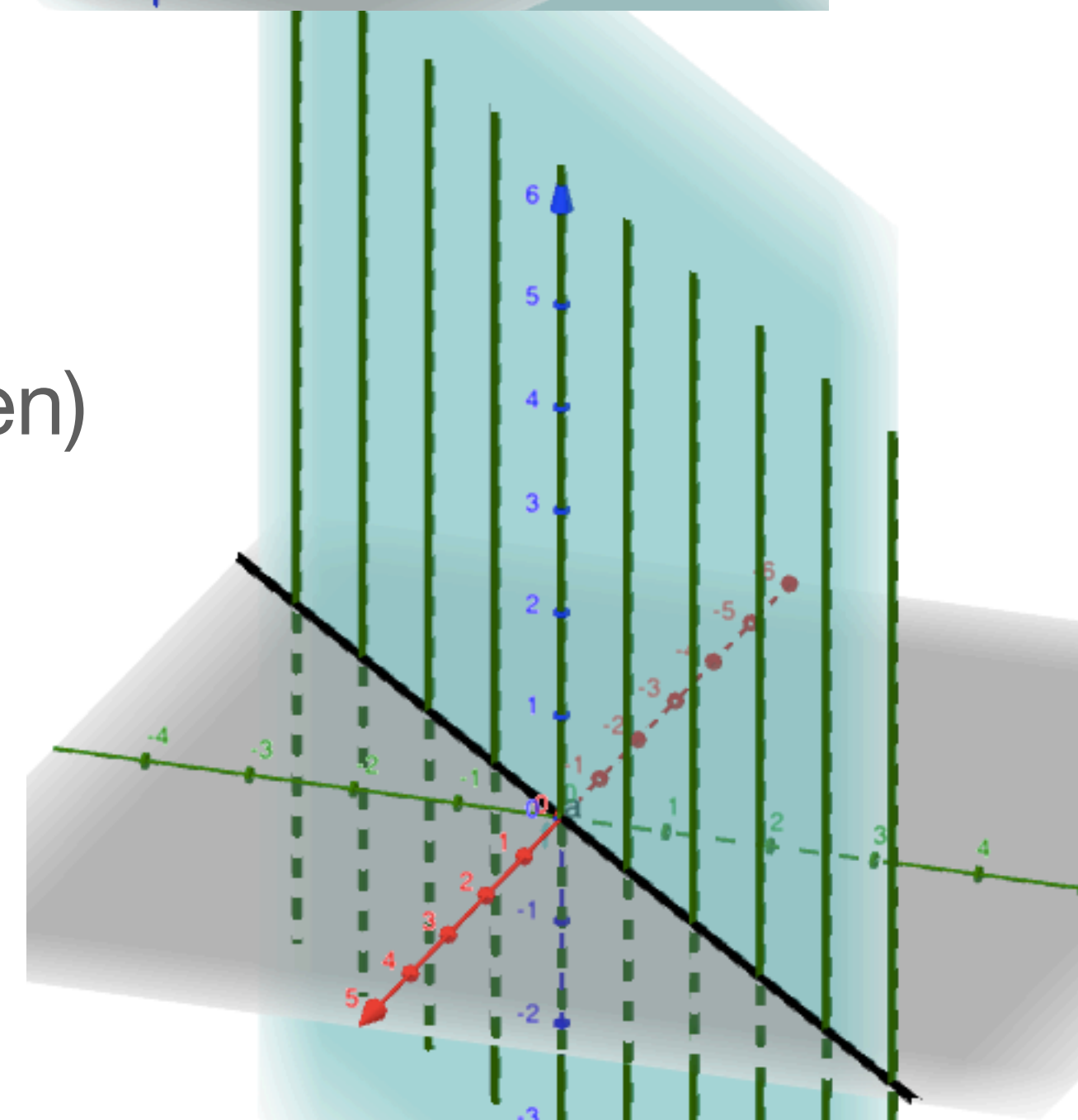
2.  $x = z$

Plot the points which satisfy...  
What about these?



3.  $y = x$

Additional illustration  
to 3: all of the lines (in green)  
through a point on the 2D  
line  $y = x$  (in black)  
parallel to the  $z$ -axis lie  
on the graph of  $y = x$ .



# Some (3D) Equations, and their graphs, pg 3.

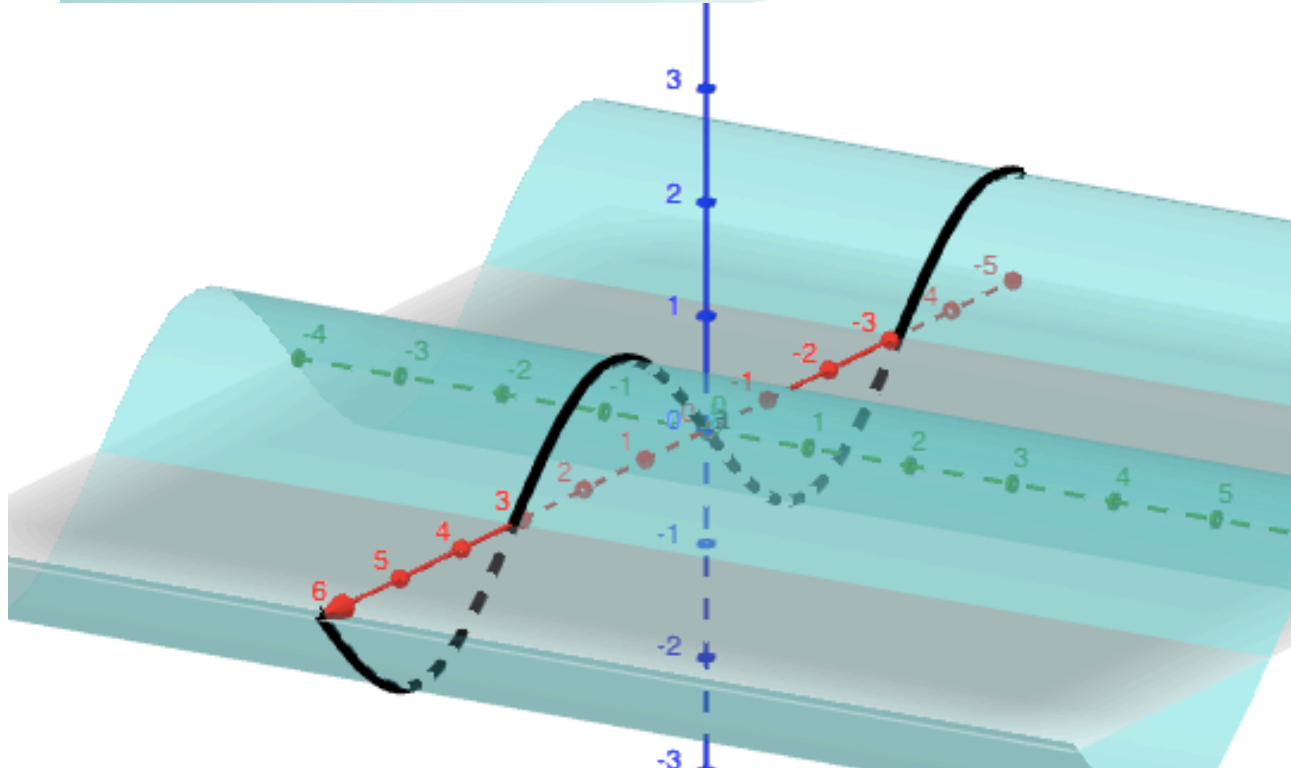
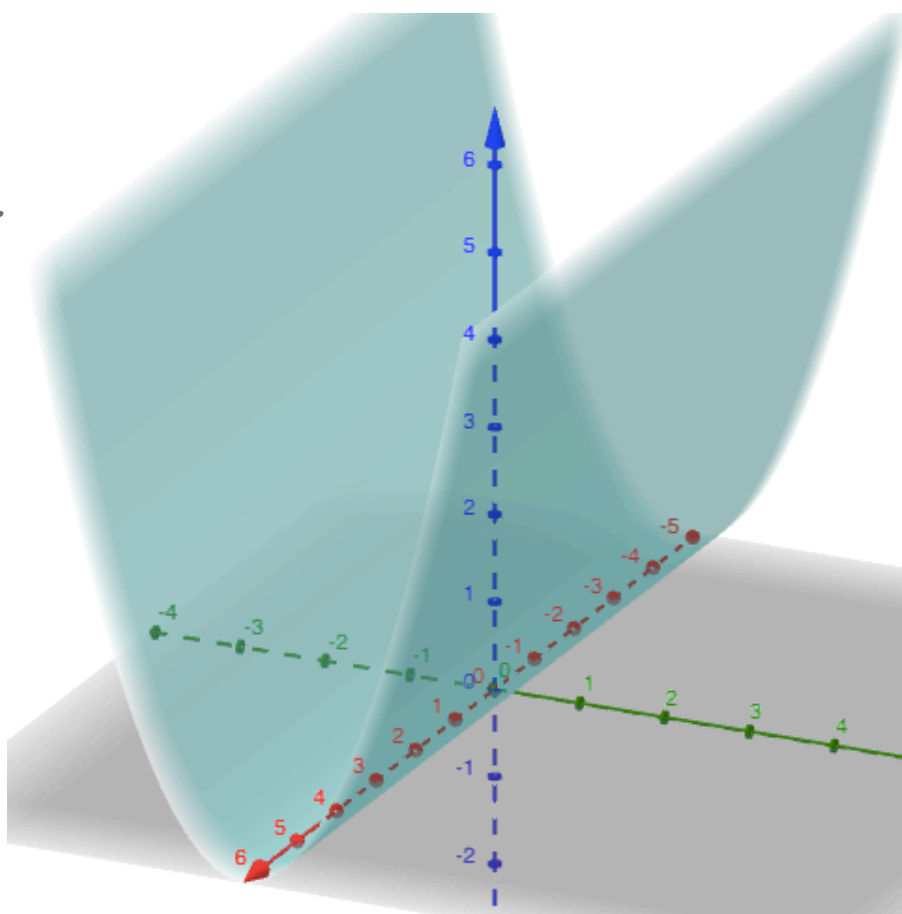
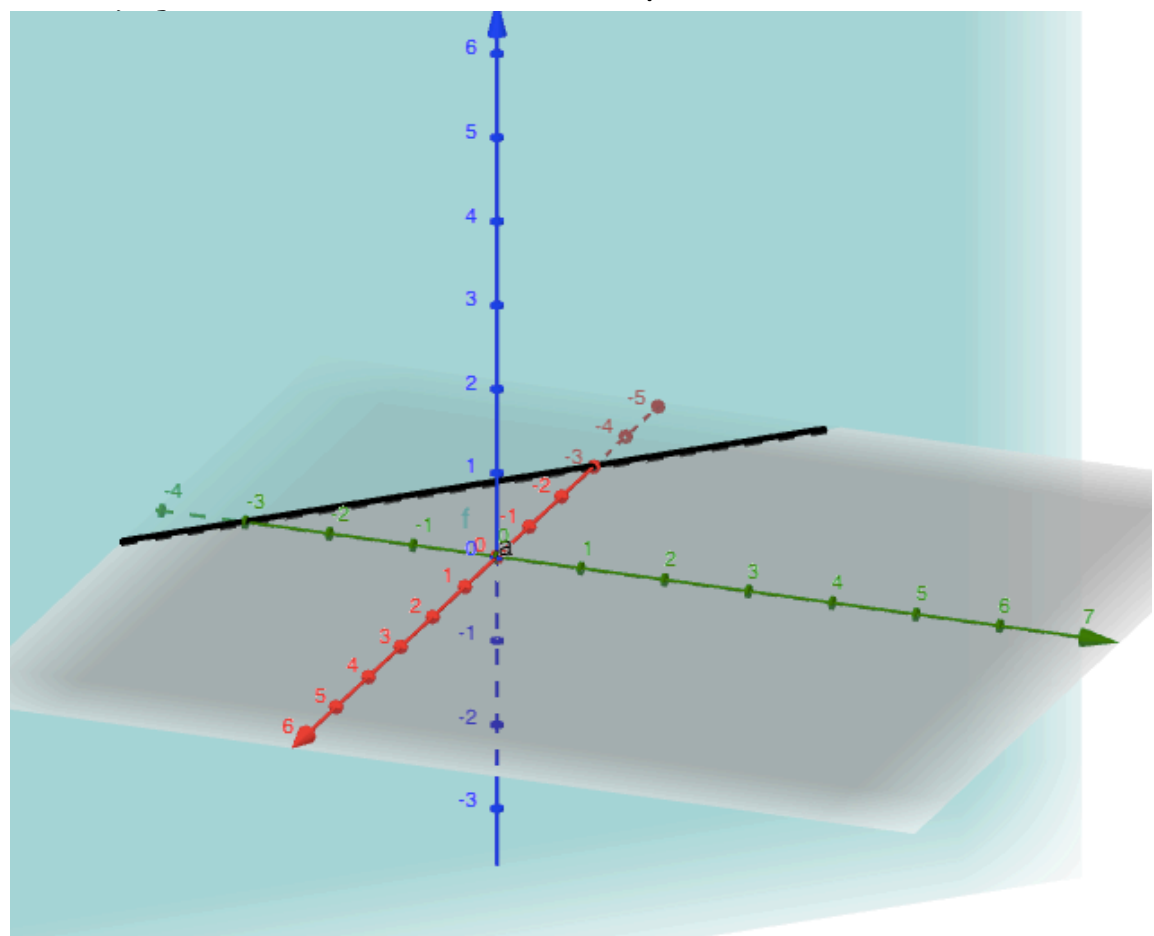
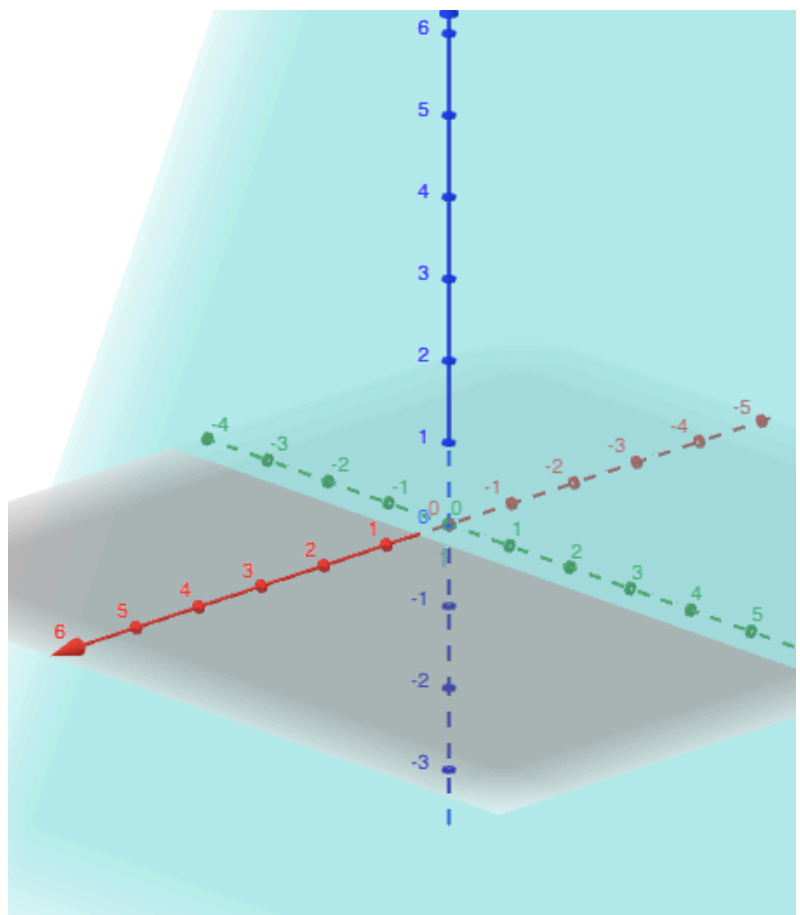
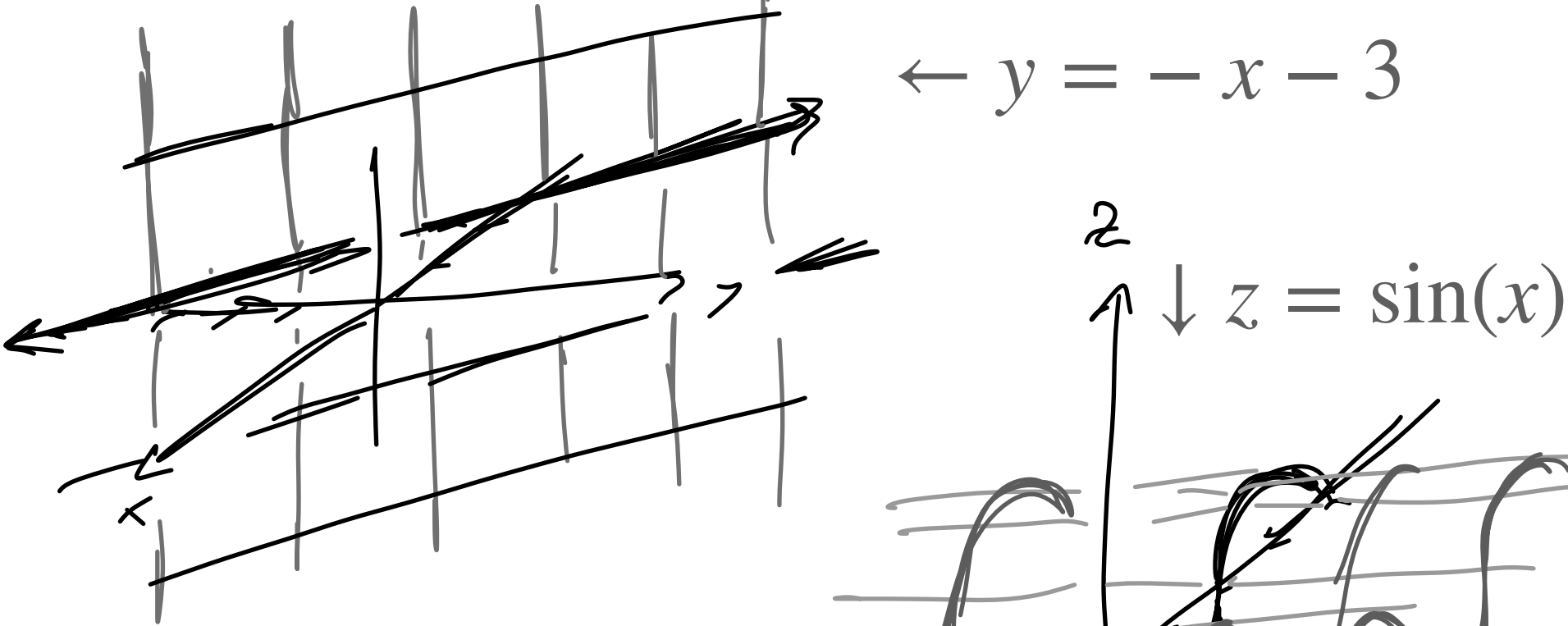
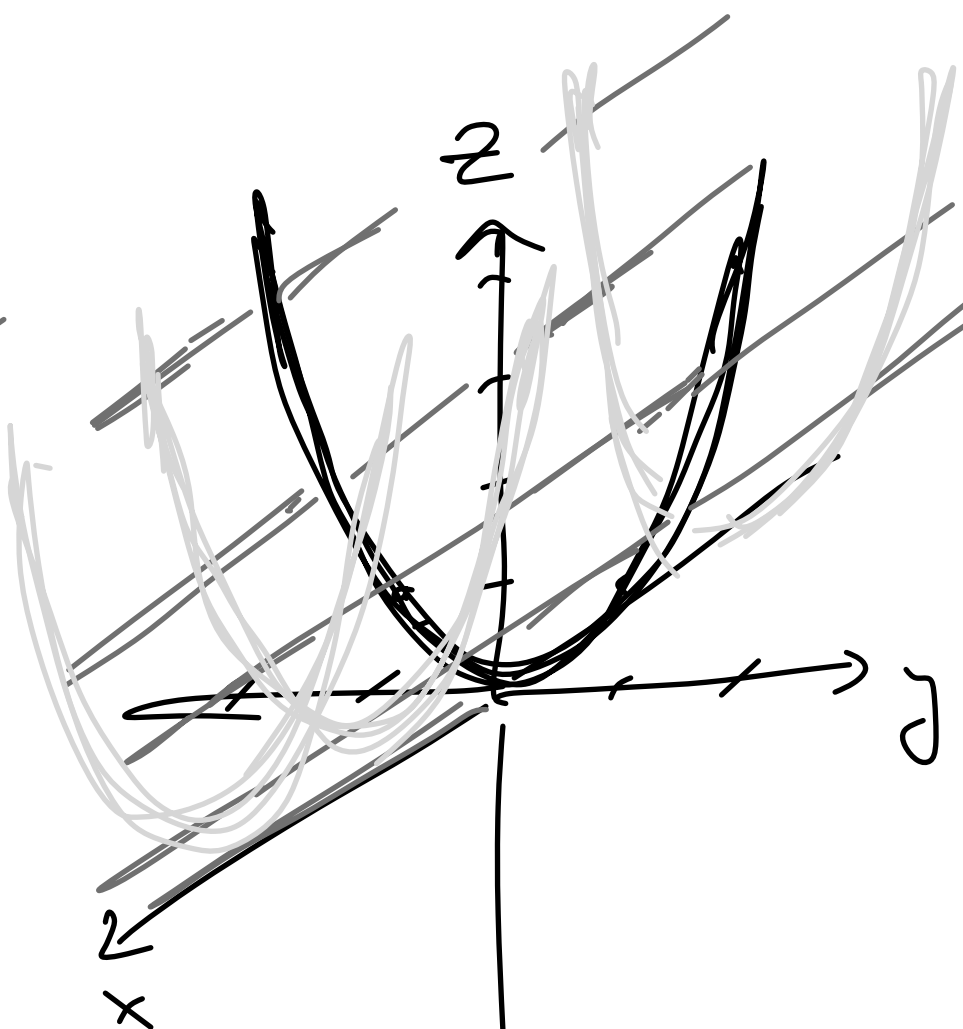
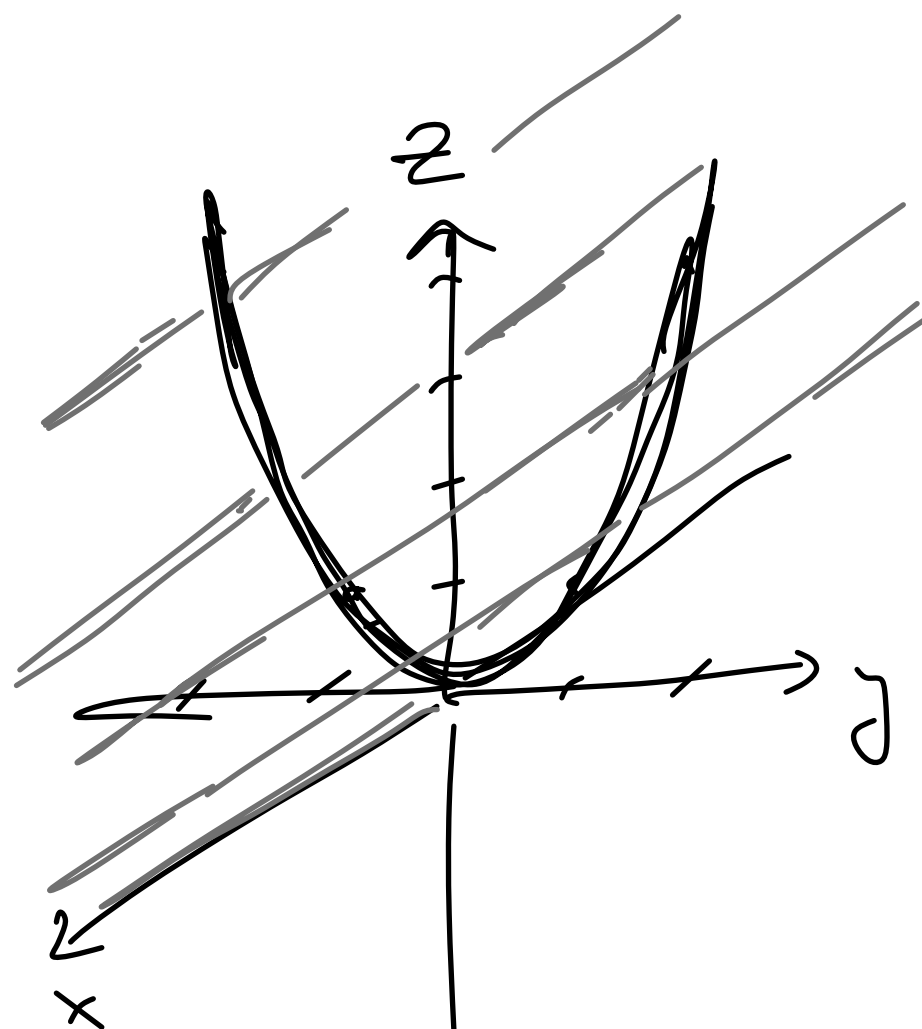
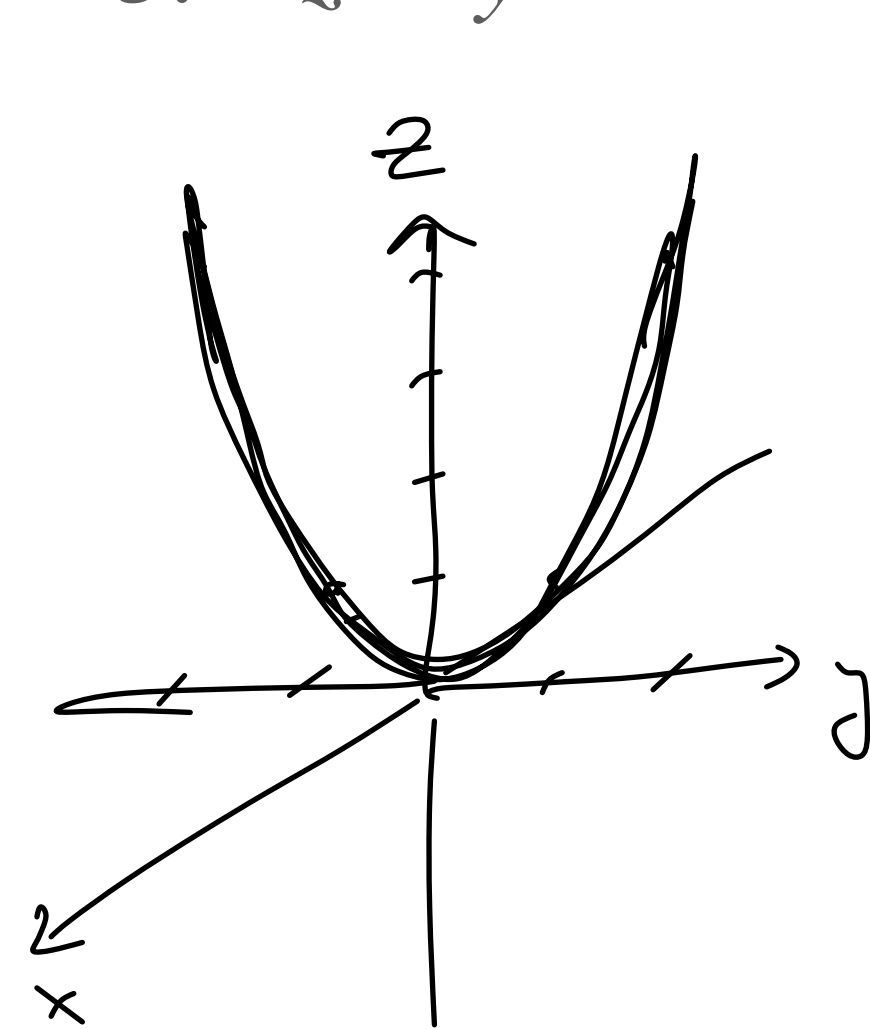
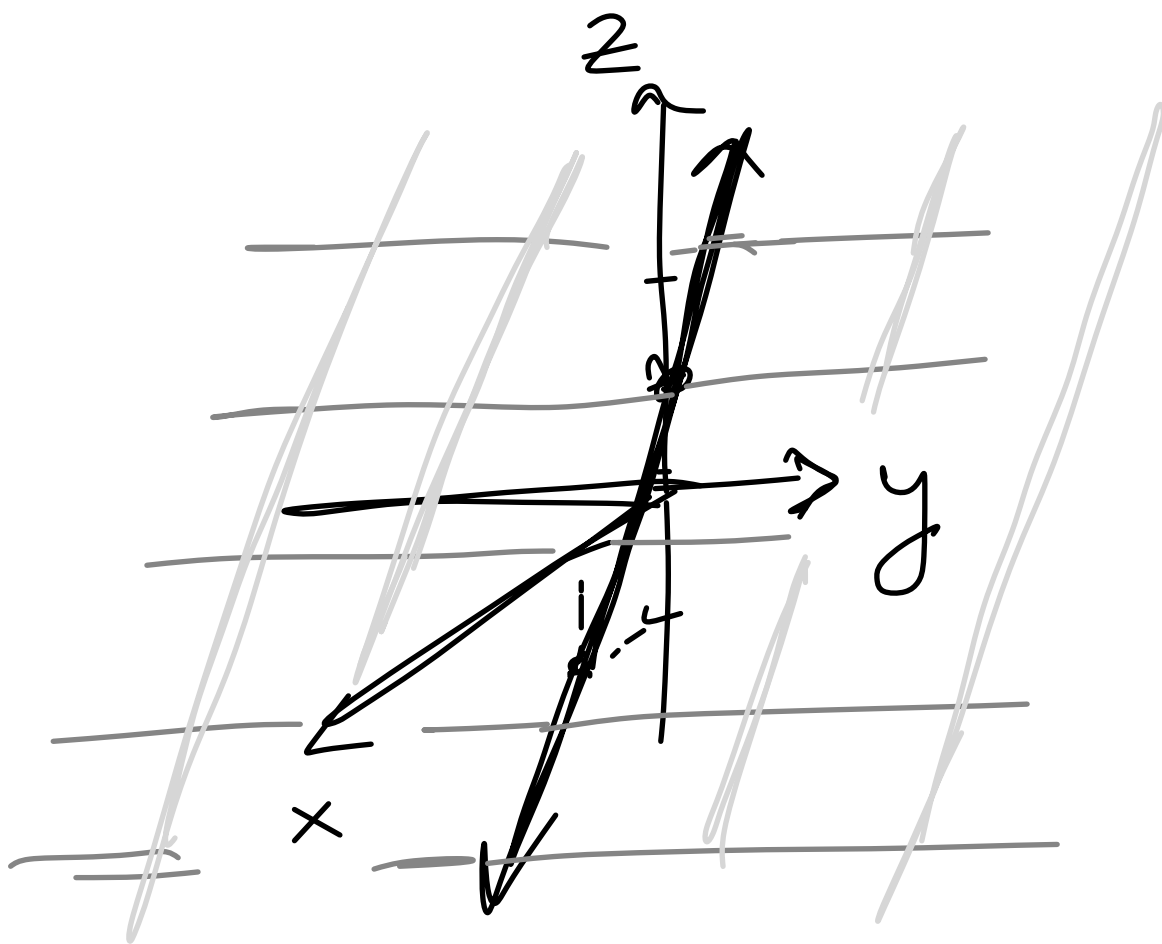
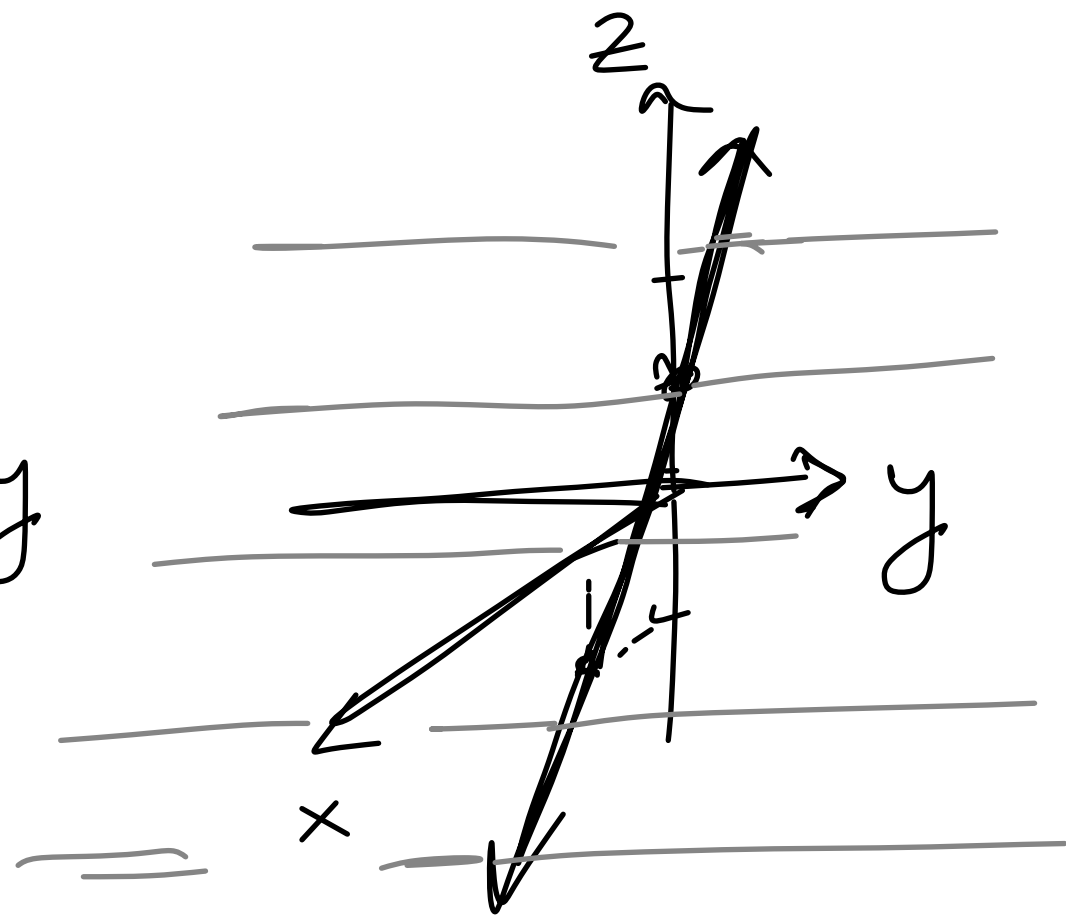
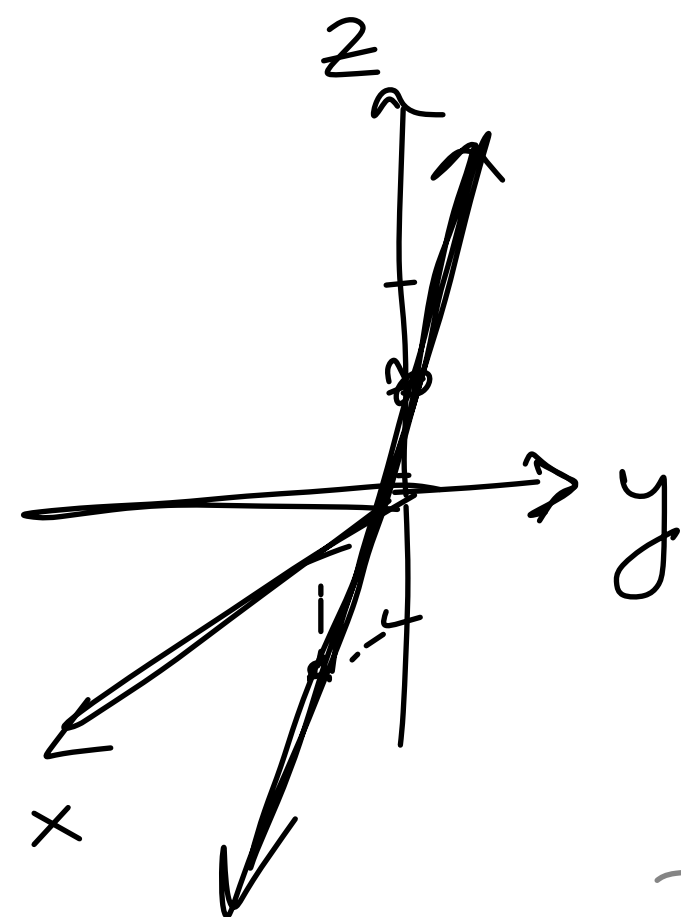
More examples.

You try: 6.  $y = -x - 3$

4.  $z = -2x + 1$

7.  $z = \sin(x)$

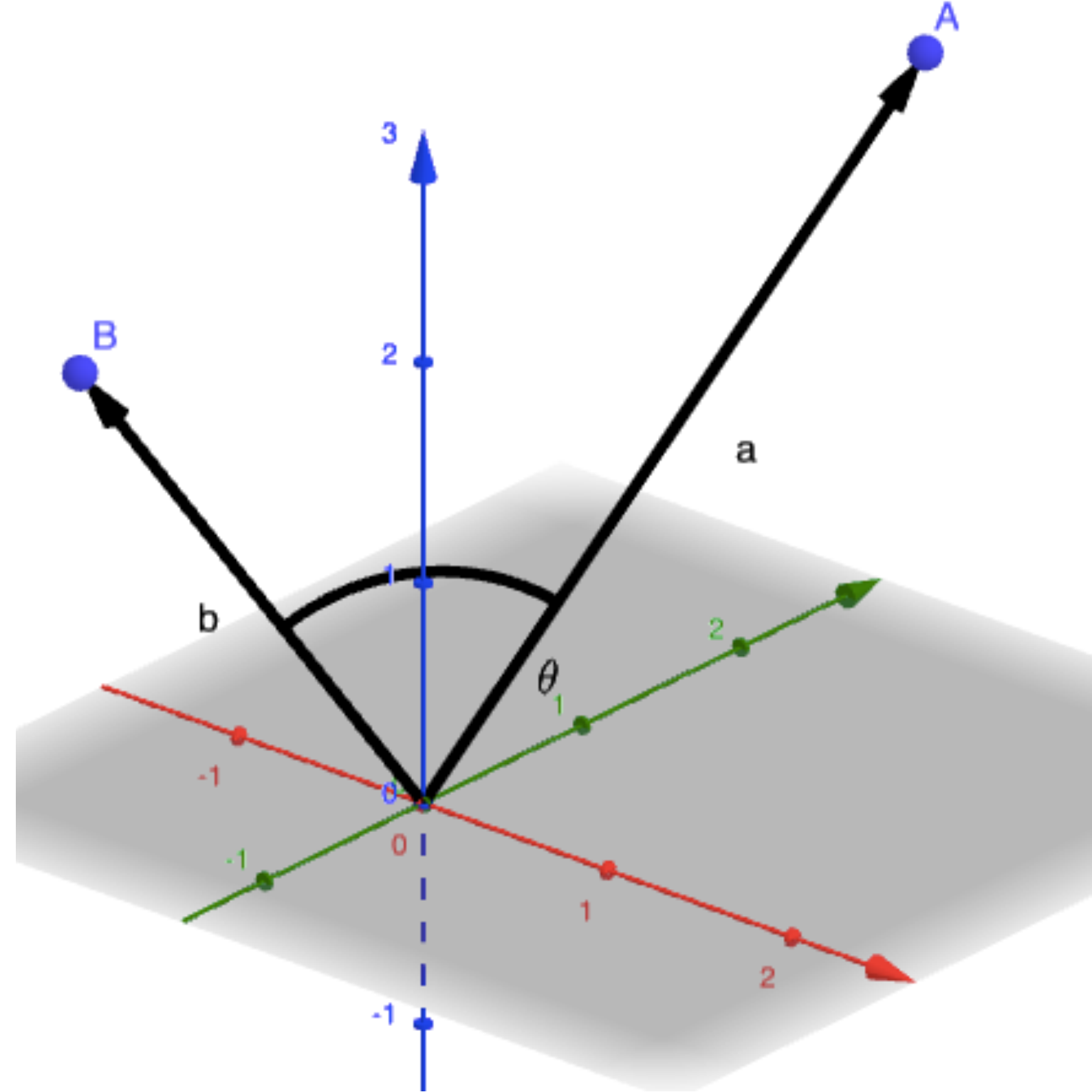
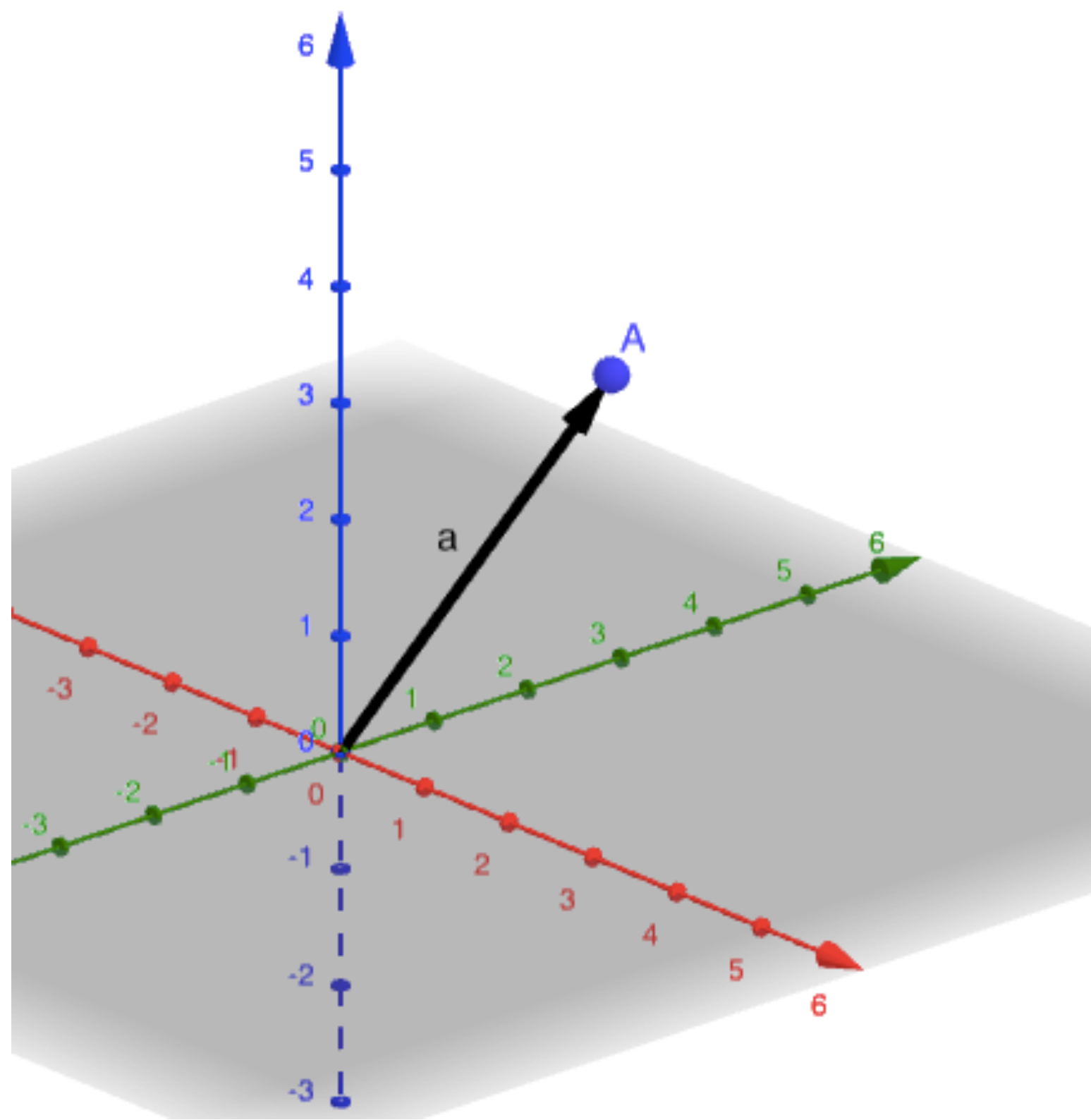
5.  $z = y^2$





# 3D vectors and their angles.

Vectors in 3D work the same way as in 2D.



Note: the formula  
$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}$$
still works in 3D.

Example.

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle -1, -1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} &= 1(-1) + 2(-1) + 3(2) \\ &= 3\end{aligned}$$

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{14}$$

$$|\mathbf{b}| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + (-1)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{6}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{\sqrt{14}\sqrt{6}}\right) \approx 70.89^\circ$$

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$$

$$\text{magnitude: } |\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}$$

$$\text{direction: } \hat{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|}$$

# Angles of 3D vectors, pg2.

Another example of angle.

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 2, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, -1, -1 \rangle$$

$$\theta = ???$$

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}$$

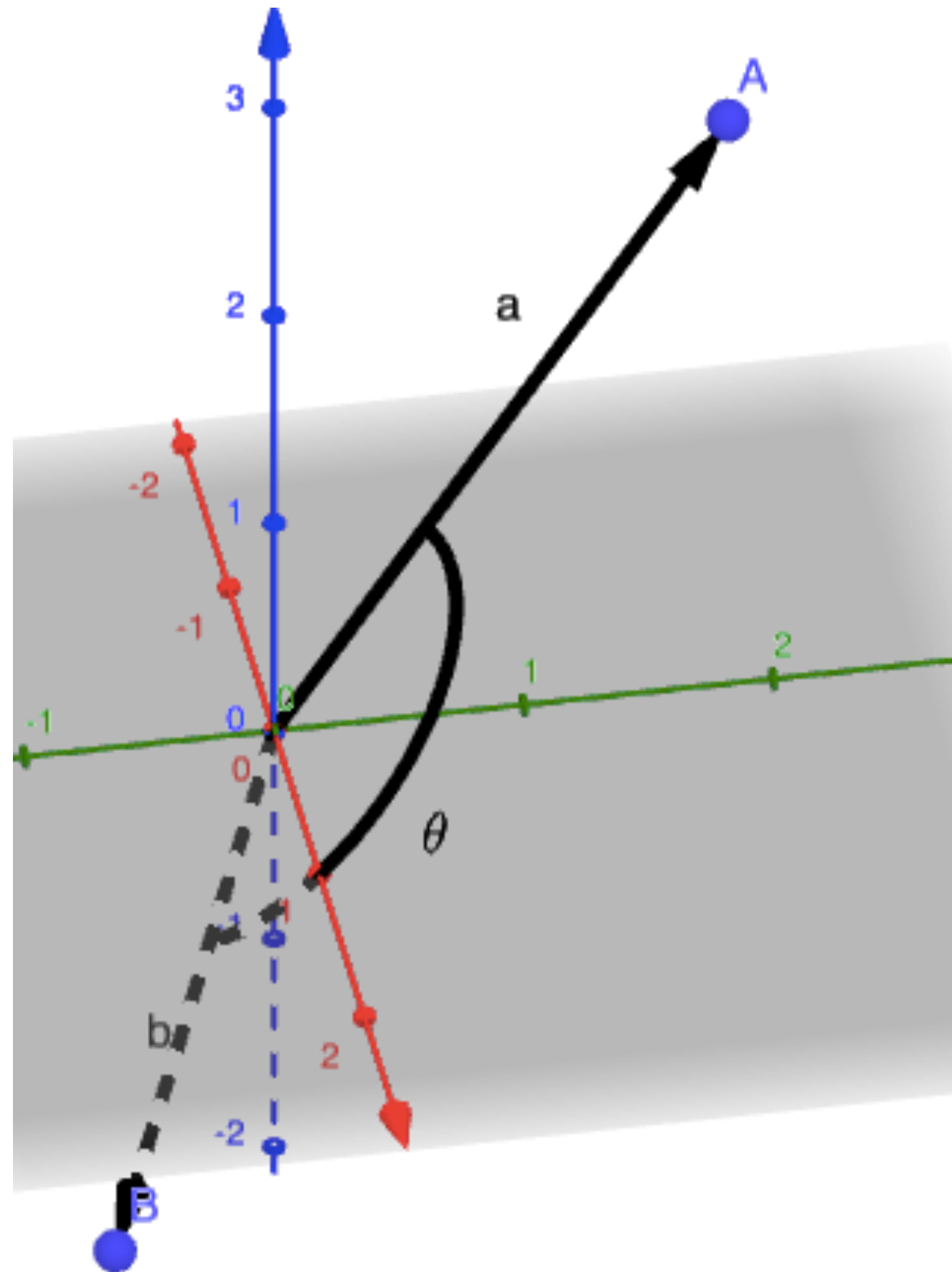
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = -6$$

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{9} = 3$$

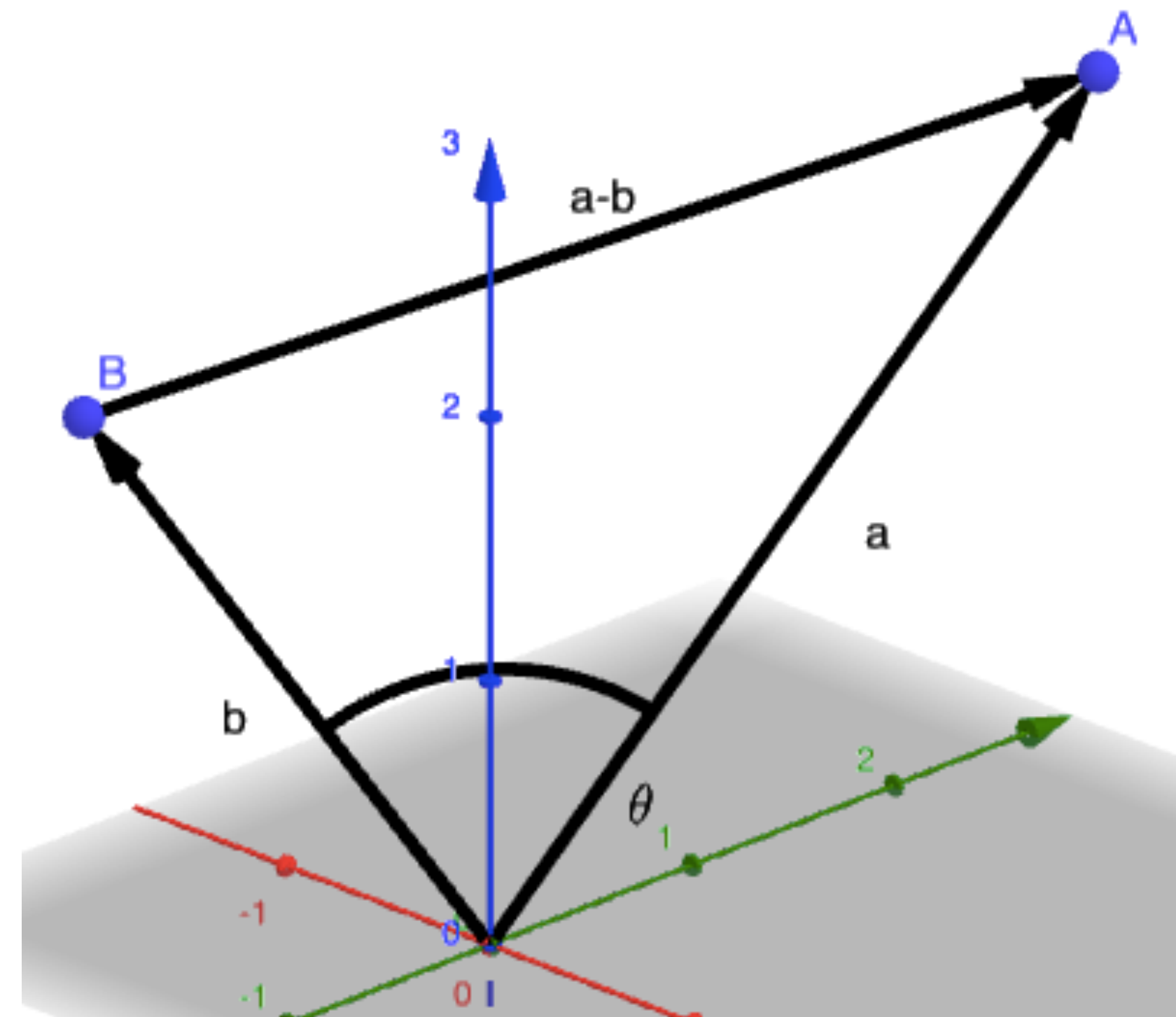
$$|\mathbf{b}| = \sqrt{6}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{-6}{3\sqrt{6}}\right)$$

$$\approx 144.74^\circ$$



Why does the formula  $\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}$  still work in 3D?



Hint:  $|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|^2 = \dots$

1.  $(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}) \cdot (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})$

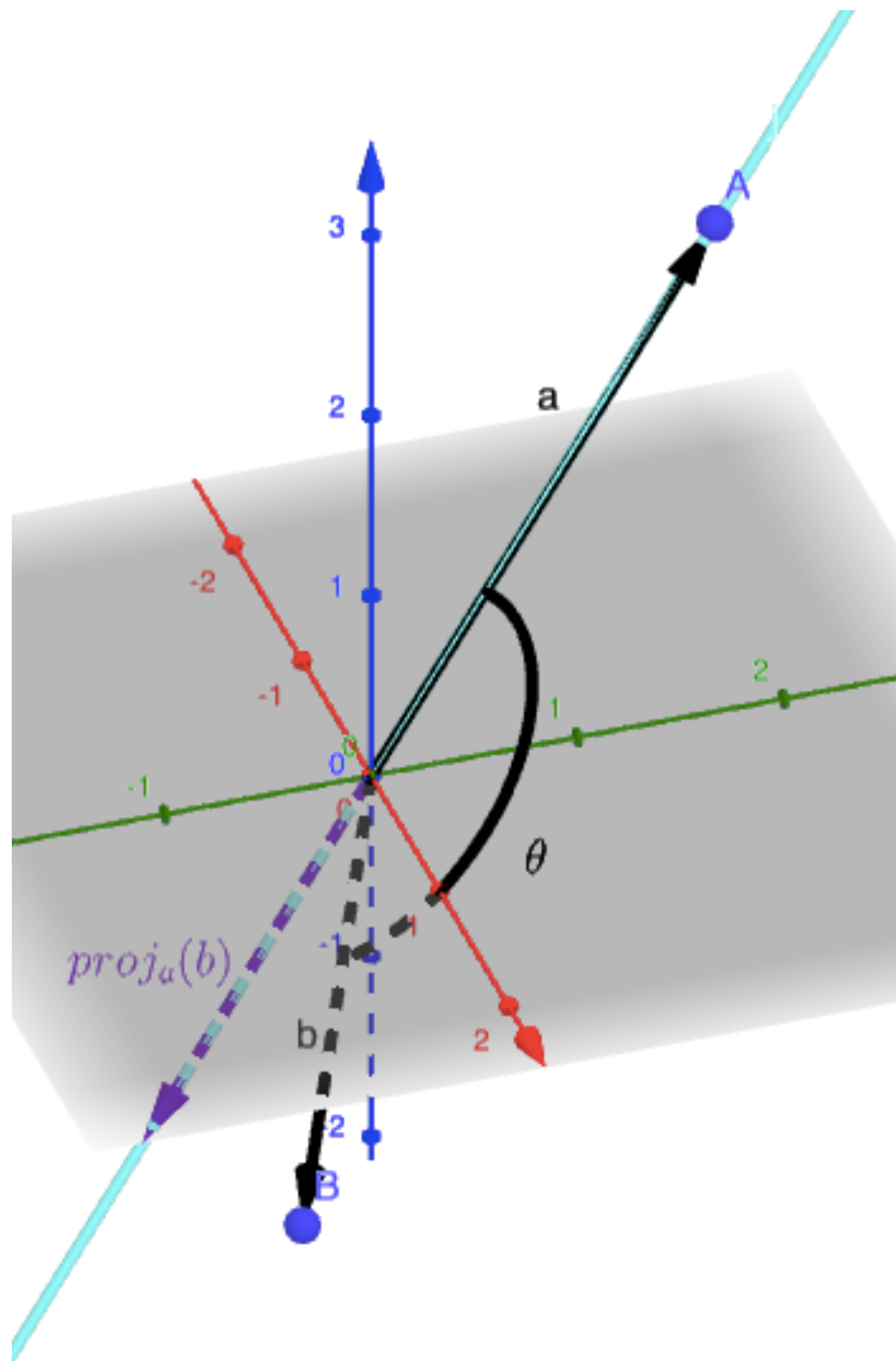
2. (Law of Cosines):

$$|\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2 - 2|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos(\theta).$$

# 3D Projection of Vectors

Example.

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 2, 2 \rangle \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 2, -1, -1 \rangle$$



The formula  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b}) = \left( \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \right) \mathbf{a}$  still applies.

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{b}) = \frac{-6}{9} \mathbf{a} = -\frac{2}{3} \langle -1, 2, 2 \rangle = \left\langle \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{4}{3}, -\frac{4}{3} \right\rangle$$

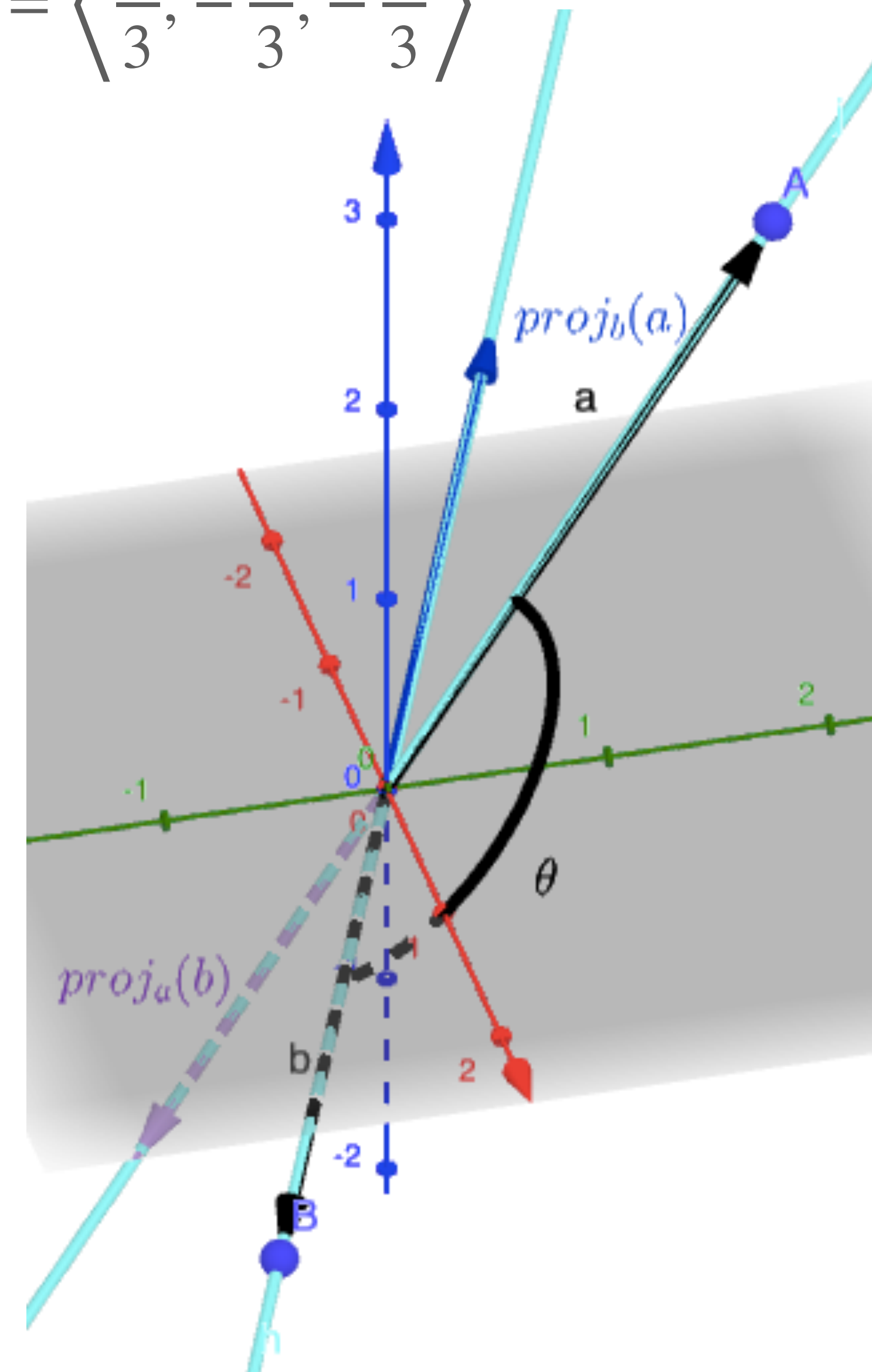
Try computing  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{a})$ .

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{a}) = \left( \frac{\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{b}} \right) \mathbf{b}$$

$$= \frac{-6}{6} \mathbf{b}$$

$$= -\langle 2, -1, -1 \rangle$$

$$= \langle -2, 1, 1 \rangle$$



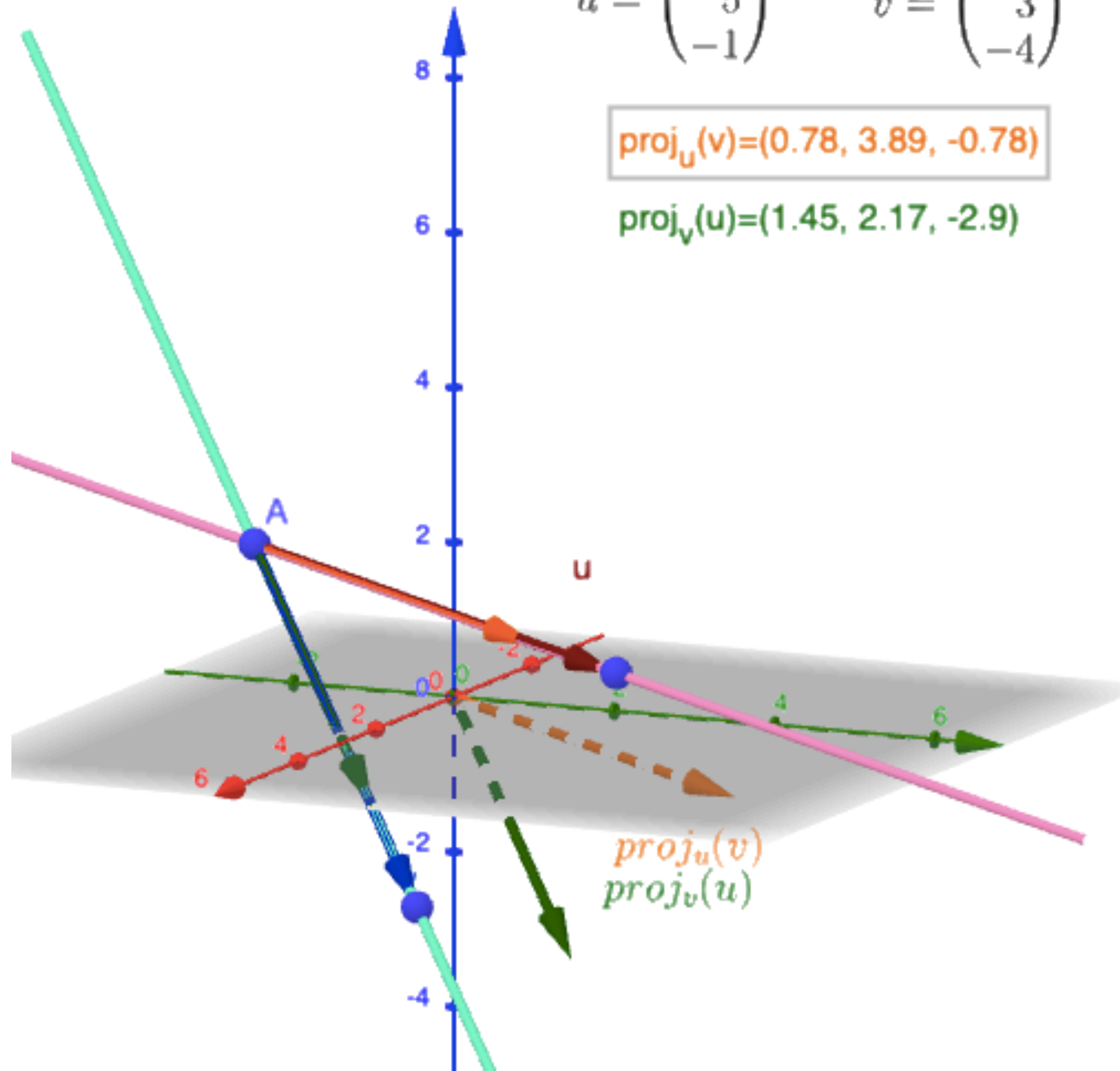
# 3D Projection of Vectors, pg 2.

Projections don't need to be based at the origin.

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{proj}_u(v) = (0.78, 3.89, -0.78)$$

$$\text{proj}_v(u) = (1.45, 2.17, -2.9)$$



$$A(1, -2, 2), \quad U(2, 3, 1), \quad V(3, 1, -2)$$

Note: you can get the vector with initial point A and terminal point U just by measuring x,y and z displacement....

... which you can get by subtracting coordinates.

$$\mathbf{u} = \overrightarrow{AU} = \langle 2, 3, 1 \rangle - \langle 1, -2, 2 \rangle = \langle 1, 5, -1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{AV} = \langle 3, 1, -2 \rangle - \langle 1, -2, 2 \rangle = \langle 2, 3, -4 \rangle$$

$$\text{proj}_u(\mathbf{v}) = \left( \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \right) \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

$$= \frac{21}{27} \mathbf{u} = \frac{7}{9} \mathbf{u} = \left\langle \frac{7}{9}, \frac{35}{9}, -\frac{7}{9} \right\rangle$$

$$\text{proj}_v(\mathbf{u}) = ???$$

$$= \left( \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} \right) \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

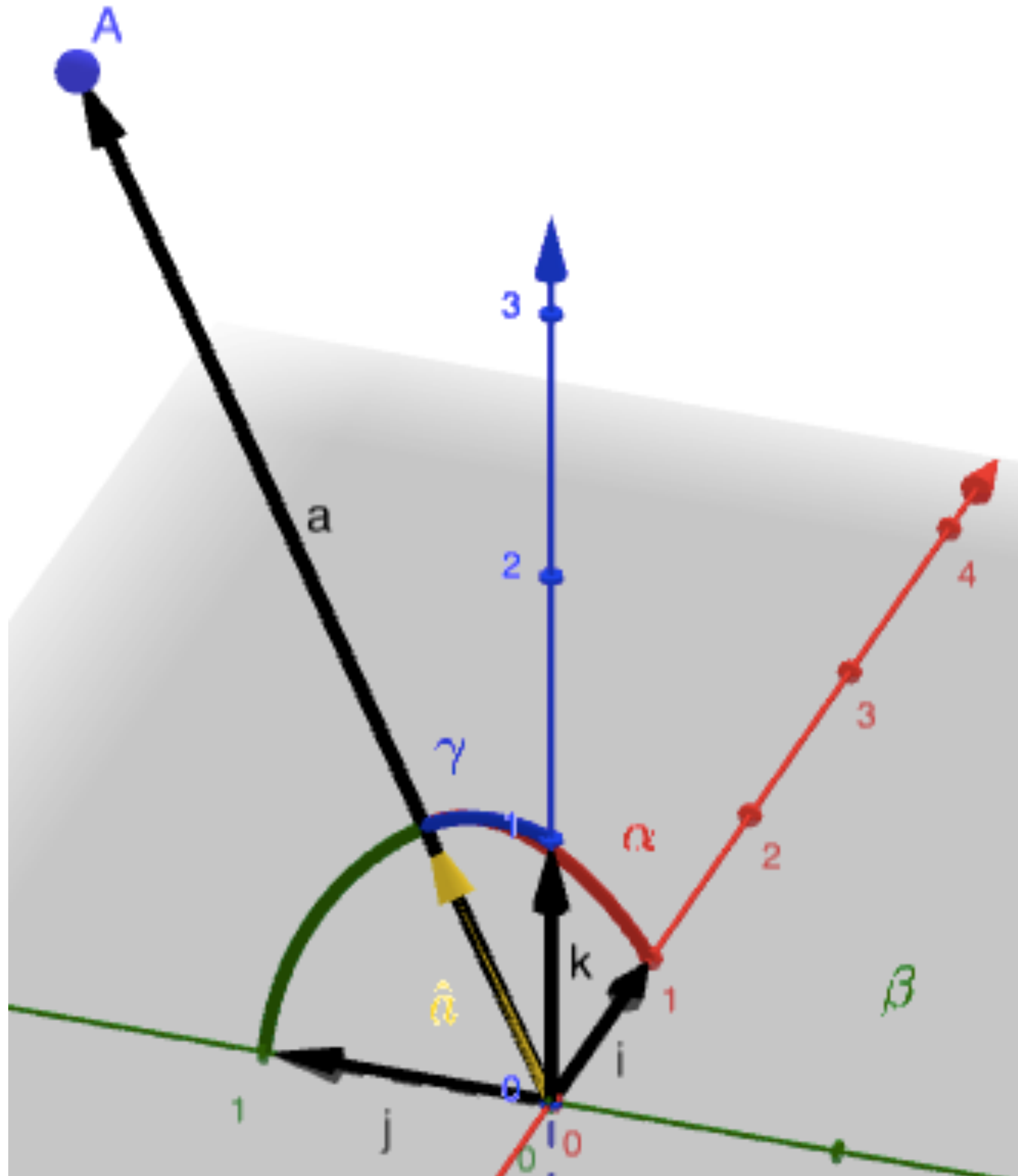
$$= \frac{21}{29} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \left\langle \frac{42}{29}, \frac{63}{29}, -\frac{84}{29} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{29} \langle 42, 63, -84 \rangle$$

Link: [3DVectorProjections](#)



# Direction Angles of a Vector.

The 3D direction of a vector can be measured using the angles off of each axis.



Say  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ . Then  $|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}$

The *unit vector* in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}$  is ...

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{a}} &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{a}|} \mathbf{a} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{a}|} \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle = \left\langle \frac{a_1}{|\mathbf{a}|}, \frac{a_2}{|\mathbf{a}|}, \frac{a_3}{|\mathbf{a}|} \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle}{|\mathbf{a}| |\langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle|}, \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle}{|\mathbf{a}| |\langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle|}, \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle}{|\mathbf{a}| |\langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle|} \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{i}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{i}|}, \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{j}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{j}|}, \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{k}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{k}|} \right\rangle = \langle \cos(\alpha), \cos(\beta), \cos(\gamma) \rangle\end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  are the angles between  $\mathbf{a}$  and the positive x-axis, y-axis, and z-axis respectively.

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  are the *direction angles* of the vector  $\mathbf{a}$ .

Two vectors,  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , have the same direction if their direction angles are equal.

said differently,  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  have the same direction if their unit vectors  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$  are equal.

# Direction Angles of a Vector, pg 2.

Example1.

$\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 4, 2 \rangle$

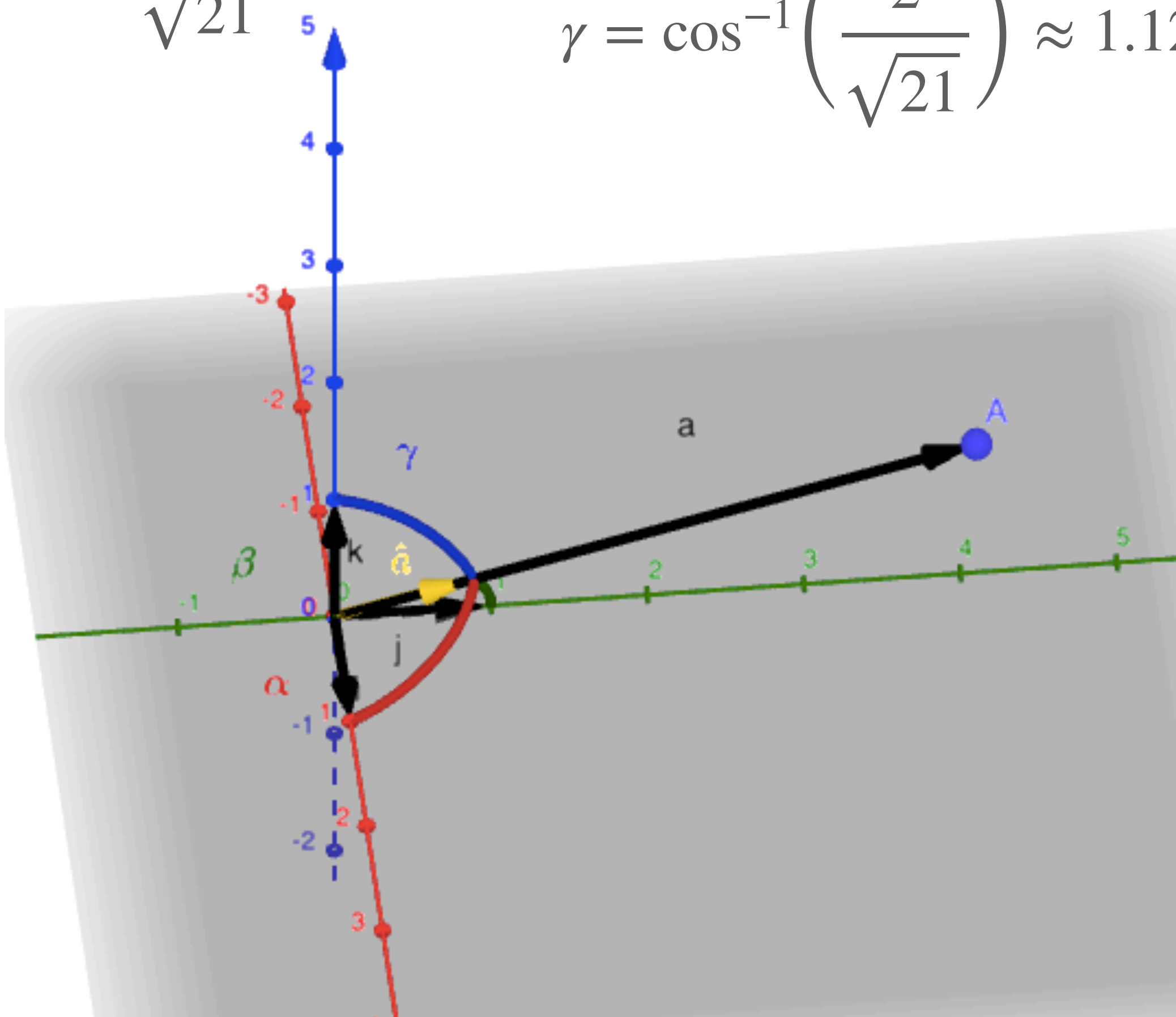
$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{21}$

$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{21}} \langle 1, 4, 2 \rangle$

$\alpha = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{21}}\right) \approx 1.35 \text{ rad} \approx 77.40^\circ$

$\beta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{4}{\sqrt{21}}\right) \approx 0.51 \text{ rad} \approx 29.21^\circ$

$\gamma = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{21}}\right) \approx 1.12 \text{ rad} \approx 64.12^\circ$



Example2.

$\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, -2, -3 \rangle$

$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{14}$

$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \langle 1, -2, -3 \rangle$

$= \left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}, -\frac{2}{\sqrt{14}}, -\frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \right\rangle$

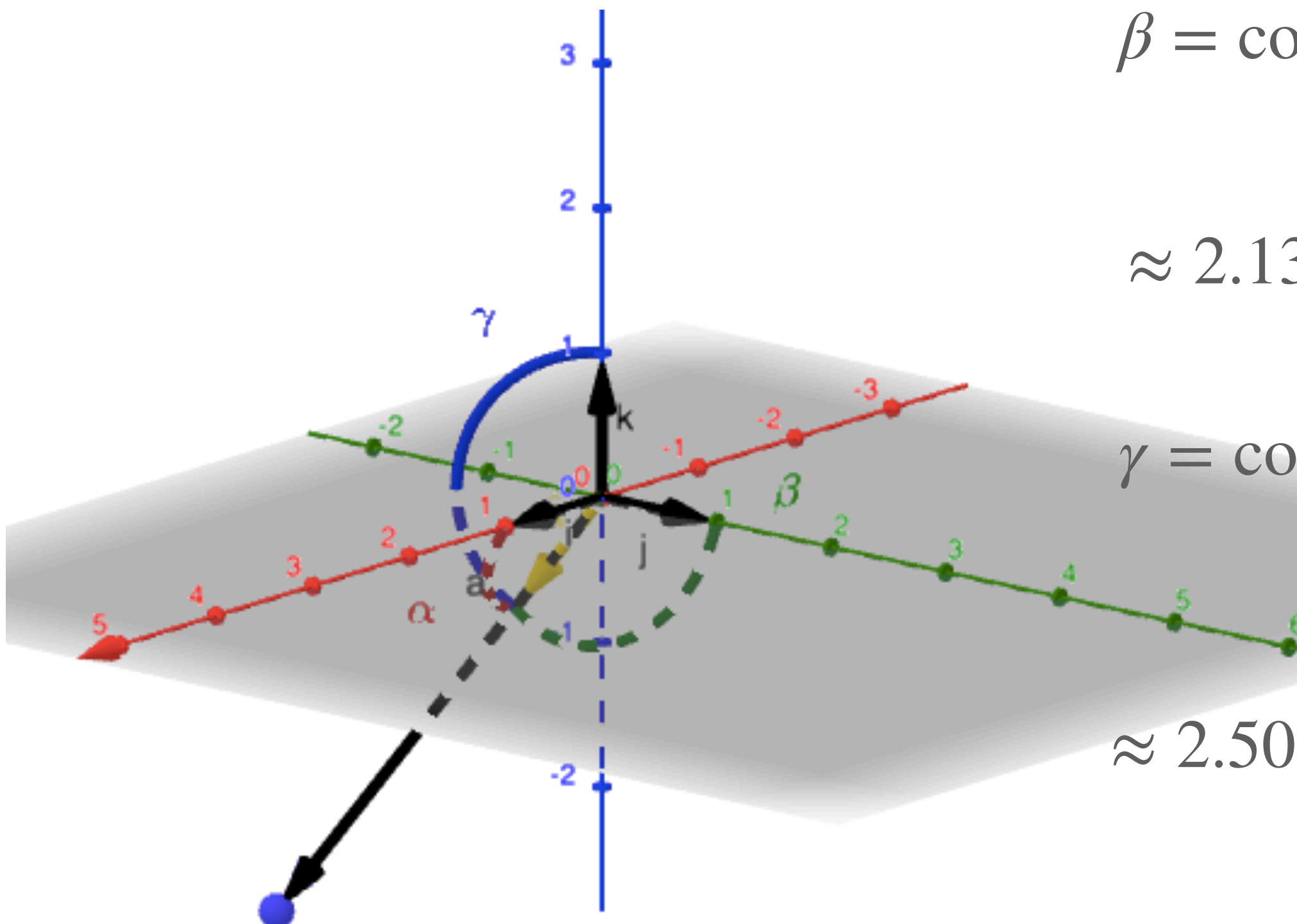
$\alpha = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}\right) \approx 1.3 \text{ rad} \approx 74.50^\circ$

$\beta = \cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{2}{\sqrt{14}}\right)$

$\approx 2.13 \text{ rad} \approx 122.31^\circ$

$\gamma = \cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{3}{\sqrt{14}}\right)$

$\approx 2.50 \text{ rad} \approx 143.30^\circ$

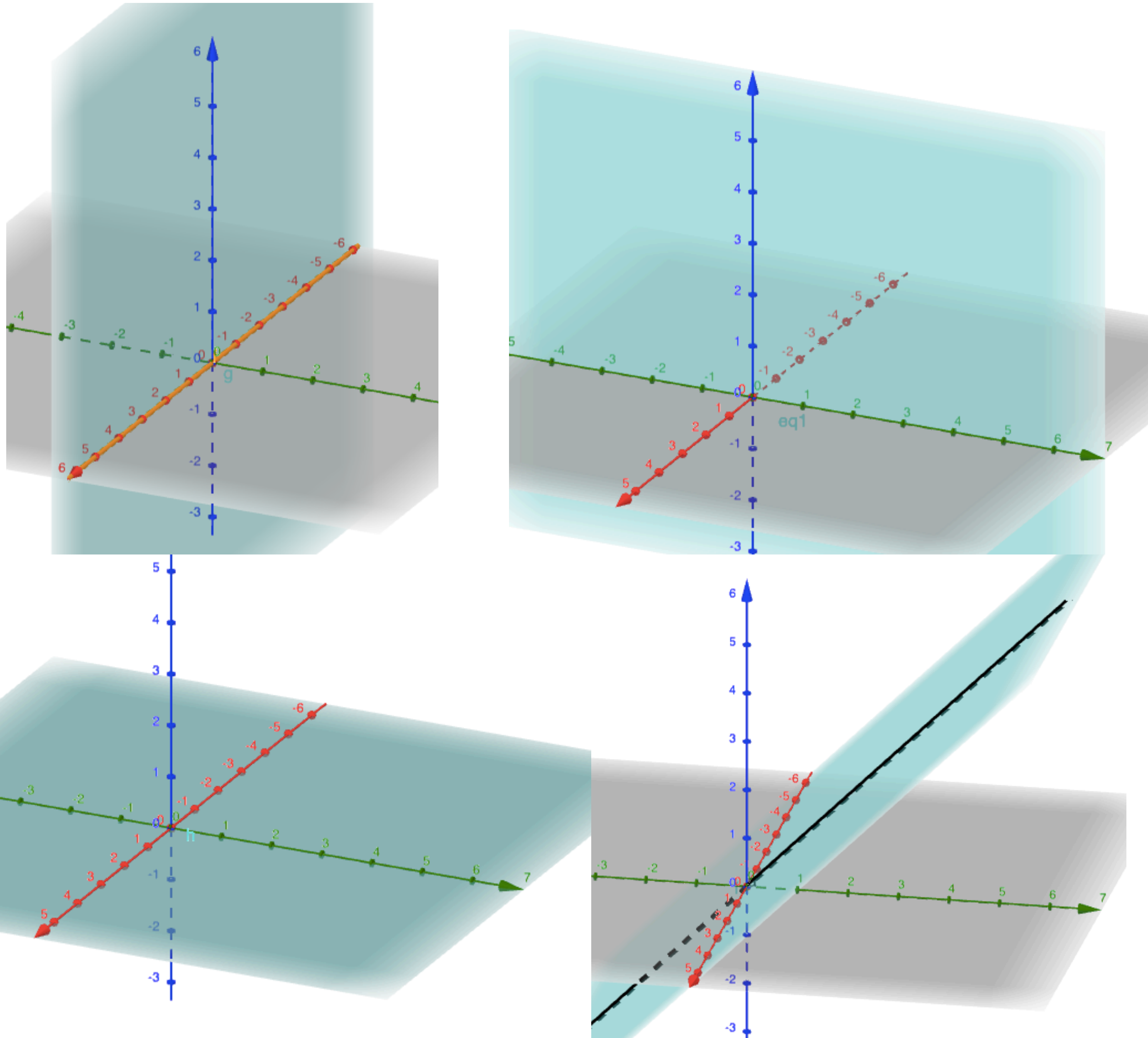


Link: [DirectionAngles](#)

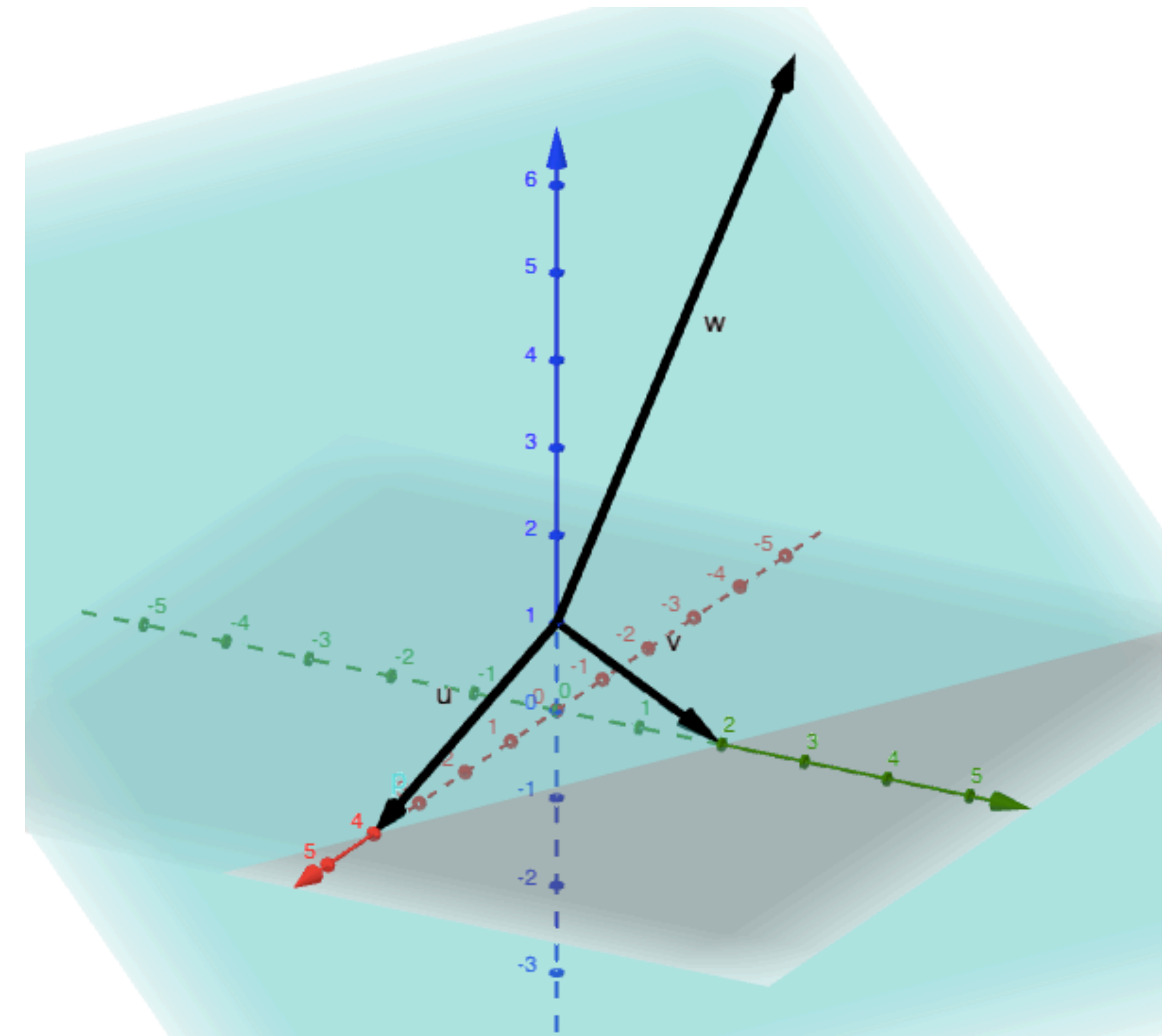


# The cross product, pg 1.

We've learned a little about planes like these:



What about this plane?



This is the plane determined by the three points (4,0,0), (0,2,0), and (0,0,1).

To find the equation of such a plane we need...  
the Cross Product of two 3D vectors!

## The cross product, pg 2.

Given two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  
can you find a non-zero  
vector  $\mathbf{w}$  that is perpendicular  
to both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  ?

(Our answer to this question will  
be the cross product  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ .)

Specific example.

$$\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \langle -1, 1, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \langle a, b, c \rangle \neq \langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle$$

For  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  to be perpendicular,  
we need  $0 = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u} = a + b + 2c$

For  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  to be perpendicular,  
we need  $0 = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} = -a + b + c$

Solve the system 
$$\begin{cases} 1. & 0 = a + b + 2c \\ 2. & 0 = -a + b + c \end{cases}$$

Usually, with three unknowns,  
but only two equations, there are  
infinitely many non-zero solutions.

Equation 2 says  $a = b + c$

Plug into equation 1 to get

$$0 = (b + c) + b + 2c = 2b + 3c$$

$$\text{So } b = -\frac{3}{2}c \text{ and } a = -\frac{1}{2}c$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \langle a, b, c \rangle = \left\langle -\frac{1}{2}c, -\frac{3}{2}c, c \right\rangle = c \left\langle -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{3}{2}, 1 \right\rangle$$

The vector  $\left\langle -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{3}{2}, 1 \right\rangle$  is a solution to our problem.

so is any multiple of this vector, such as  $\langle -1, -3, 2 \rangle$ .

# The cross product, pg 3.

More generally, given nonzero  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$

$$\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$$

We want  $\mathbf{w} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$  so that both ...

$$0 = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u} = au_1 + bu_2 + cu_3$$

$$0 = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} = av_1 + bv_2 + cv_3$$

We solve the following system

$$\begin{cases} 1. & 0 = au_1 + bu_2 + cu_3 \\ 2. & 0 = av_1 + bv_2 + cv_3 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Using 2. we get } a = \frac{-bv_2 - cv_3}{v_1}$$

Then in 1. we get...

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{-bu_1v_2 - cu_1v_3}{v_1} + \frac{bu_2v_1 + cu_3v_1}{v_1} \\ &= \frac{b(u_2v_1 - u_1v_2) + c(u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)}{v_1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{We get } b(u_1v_2 - u_2v_1) = c(u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)$$

There are many solutions...

$$\text{Take } b = u_3v_1 - u_1v_3 \text{ and } c = u_1v_2 - u_2v_1$$

Then  $a = \dots$

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{-(u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)v_2 - (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)v_3}{v_1} \\ &= \frac{-u_3v_1v_2 + u_2v_1v_3}{v_1} = u_2v_3 - u_3v_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \langle u_2v_3 - u_3v_2, u_3v_1 - u_1v_3, u_1v_2 - u_2v_1 \rangle$$

here we have got the *cross product*,  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$

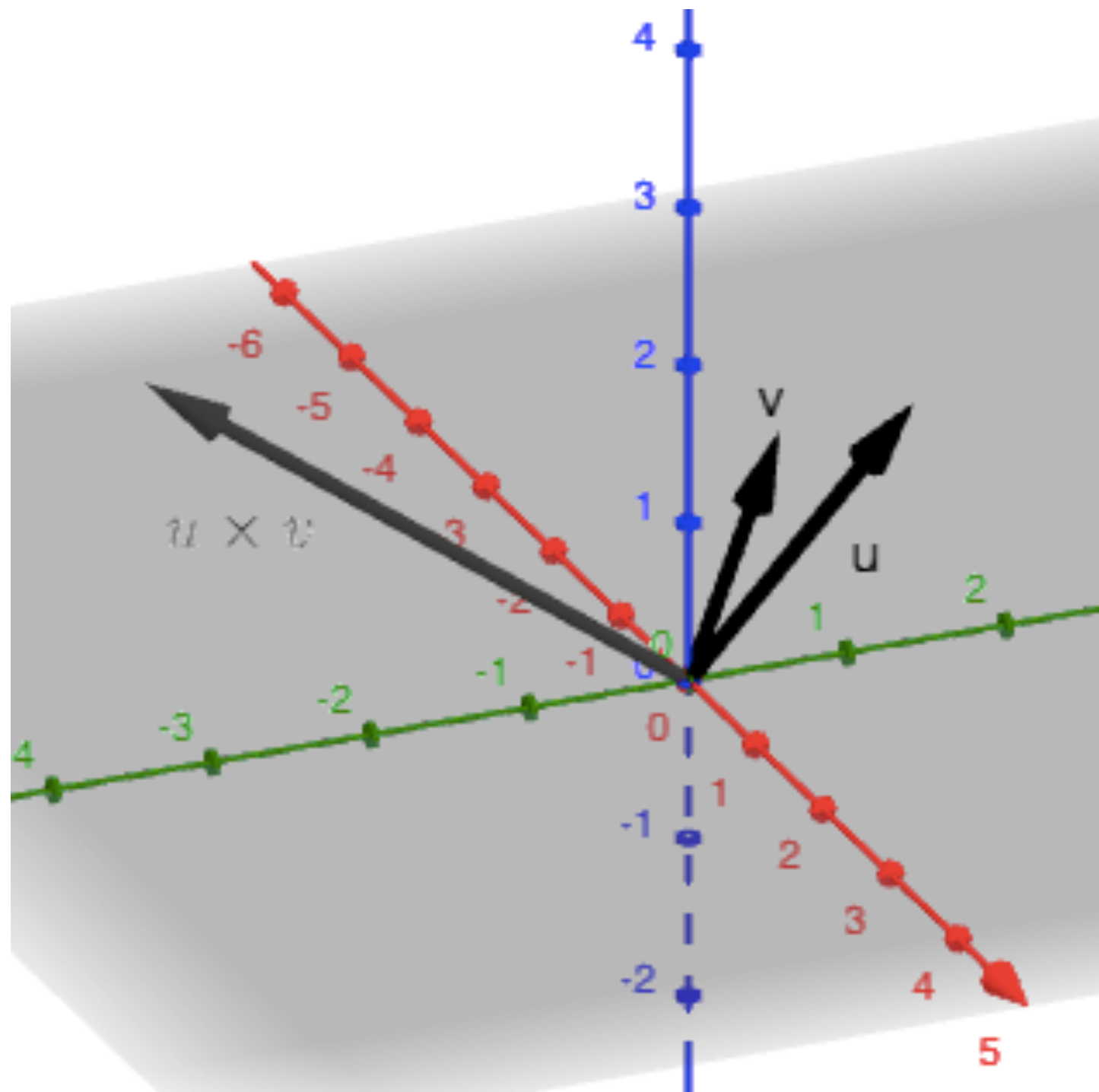
# Cross Product Examples. $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \langle u_2v_3 - u_3v_2, u_3v_1 - u_1v_3, u_1v_2 - u_2v_1 \rangle$

Example 1.

$$\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \langle -1, 1, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \langle -1, -3, 2 \rangle$$



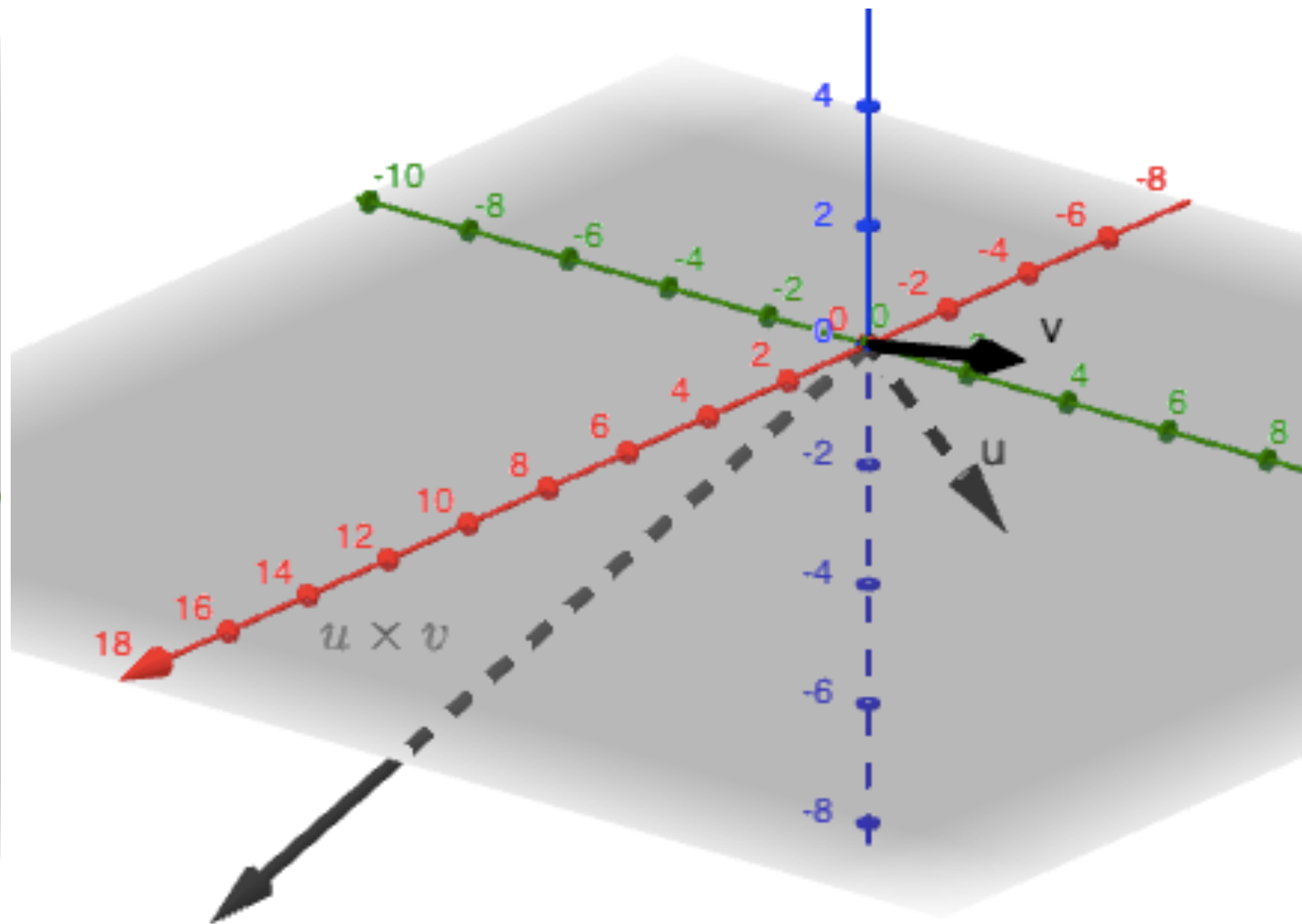
Example 2.

$$\mathbf{u} = \langle -1, 2, -3 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 4, 1 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \langle 14, -2, -6 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u} = \langle -14, 2, 6 \rangle$$



Remember the cross product should be perpendicular to each of the vector factors.

Check perpendicularity using the dot product:

$$\langle -1, -3, 2 \rangle \cdot \langle 1, 1, 2 \rangle = ?$$
$$= 0 \quad \text{check!}$$

$$\langle -1, -3, 2 \rangle \cdot \langle -1, 1, 1 \rangle = ?$$
$$= 0 \quad \text{check!}$$

$$\langle 14, -2, -6 \rangle \cdot \langle -1, 2, -3 \rangle = ?$$
$$= 0 \quad \text{check!}$$

$$\langle 14, -2, -6 \rangle \cdot \langle 1, 4, 1 \rangle = ?$$
$$= 0 \quad \text{check!}$$