

Lecture 1: Review on high school geometry

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Course Materials

- ① **Lecture handouts:** notes by Professor Boerkoel (Redmond)
- ② **Lecture slides** provided by myself.
- ③ Recommended **textbooks**
 - Practical Linear Algebra: A Geometry Toolbox, 3rd edition by G. Farin and D. Hansford
 - Elementary Linear Algebra with Supplemental Applications, 10th edition by H. Anton & C. Rorres.

Course content

- 1 Chapter 1: Euclidean Space
- 2 Chapter 2: Matrices and Determinants
- 3 Chapter 3: Linear Transformations
- 4 Chapter 4: Affine Transformations

Assessment tasks (tentative)

Assessment Task	Weight	Tentative date
Homework assignments (5 or 6)	10%	Weeks 1-13
5 Quizzes	30%	Weeks 3,5,9,11,13
1 Midterm test	30%	Week 6
1 Final test	30%	Week 14

Course structure

- **Online lecture** every Tuesday 3-6pm
- **Physical tutorial** every Thursday
 - Groups A,B,C: taught by myself
 - Groups D,E: taught by Rosa
- **Extra tuitions** (starting from week 4) are provided to weak students

What grades can I expect?

- To pass, you need to
 - Score an overall grade D or above
 - *Tips: Do all homework assignments and do not skip exams*
- To have a higher grade?

Attendance policy

- Student ≥ 15 minutes late to class will be marked as absent.
- Student may not leave the class early without the instructor's permission.
- Unexcused absences would result in the following penalty

1 letter grade down for # of unexcused absences	2 letter grade down for # of unexcused absences
4	8

What is CSD1241 about?

- Study the concepts of **linear stuff** in 2D and 3D which include

points, lines, planes

- Study the **relation between these linear stuff** by the use of **matrices** and **vectors**
- CSD1241 builds the foundation for *CSD2251 Linear Algebra* and *CSD1201 Introduction to Computer Graphics*

Some applications of Linear Algebra

Linear Algebra has a lot of applications in the real life.

- The **Google PageRank search** algorithm uses the the theory of **Eigenvectors & Eigenvalues**.

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Linear Algebra has a lot of applications in the real life.

- The **Google PageRank search** algorithm uses the the theory of **Eigenvectors & Eigenvalues**.
- **Facial recognition** algorithms are based on **Singular Value Decomposition**.
- Linear algebra is pervasive in **Machine Learning** and **AI**.
- And many more

Points

A **point** is a reference to a *location*.

Points are often denoted by capital letters P, Q, R, \dots

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- In **2D plane** (or **xy plane**, or \mathbb{R}^2), points are specified by their x-coordinates and y-coordinates

$P = (a, b)$ has x-coordinate = a , y-coordinate = b

Points

A **point** is a reference to a *location*.

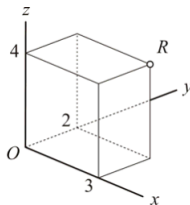
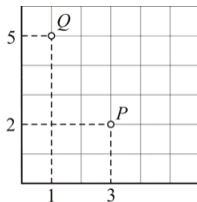
Points are often denoted by capital letters P, Q, R, \dots

- In **3D space** (or **xyz space**, or \mathbb{R}^3), points are specified by their x-coordinates, y-coordinates and z-coordinates

$P = (a, b, c)$ has x-coordinate = a , y-coordinate = b , z-coordinate = c

Example 1

In the following graphs, what are coordinates of P, Q, R ?



Remarks

In this course, we mainly focus on \mathbb{R}^2 (xy plane) and \mathbb{R}^3 (xyz space).

- \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 are different *coordinate systems*.

We *cannot sketch points simultaneously* on both these systems.

Remarks

In this course, we mainly focus on \mathbb{R}^2 (xy plane) and \mathbb{R}^3 (xyz space).

- \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 are different *coordinate systems*.

We *cannot sketch points simultaneously* on both these systems.

- We call $(0, 0)$ and $(0, 0, 0)$ the **origins** in \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 .

Example 2

Sketch the following points

(a) $P = (0, 1)$, $Q = (1, 0)$, $R = (2, 0)$ and $S = (2, -1)$ on \mathbb{R}^2 .

Example 2

(b) $A = (1, 0, 0)$, $B = (0, 1, 0)$, $C = (0, 0, 1)$, $D = (1, 1, 0)$ and $E = (1, 1, 1)$ on \mathbb{R}^3 .

Midpoints

The midpoint between 2 points can be obtained by averaging the corresponding coordinates

1 In \mathbb{R}^2

$$P = (x_1, y_1), Q = (x_2, y_2) \Rightarrow M = \left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2} \right)$$

2 In \mathbb{R}^3

$$P = (x_1, y_1, z_1), Q = (x_2, y_2, z_2) \Rightarrow M = \left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}, \frac{z_1 + z_2}{2} \right)$$

Example 3

(a) Sketch the following points: $A = (1, 1)$, $B = (4, 0)$, $C = (0, 4)$

(b) Find the midpoint M_{AB} of AB and the midpoint M_{AC} of AC

(c) Find the midpoint M of $M_{AB}M_{AC}$

Distances between points

- In \mathbb{R}^2 , the distance between $P = (x_1, y_1)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2)$ is

$$d(P, Q) = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

- In \mathbb{R}^3 , the distance between $R = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $S = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$ is

$$d(R, S) = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$$

Example 4

Find the distances between any of the following 2 points.

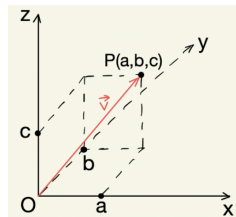
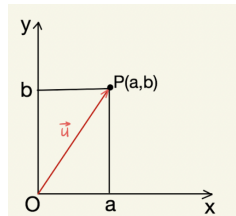
(a) $P = (0, 1), Q = (0, 1), S = (2, -1)$

(b) $A = (1, 0, 0), B = (0, 1, 0), C = (2, 3, 1)$

Vectors

- ① In \mathbb{R}^2 , **vector** $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ is represented by an arrow joining $O = (0, 0)$ and $P = (a, b)$

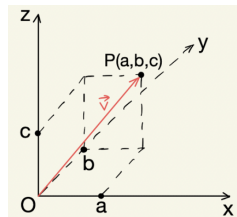
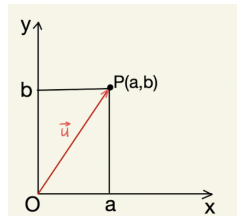
$$\vec{u} = \overrightarrow{OP} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$



Vectors

- ② In \mathbb{R}^3 , $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$ is represented by an arrow joining $O = (0, 0, 0)$ and $Q = (a, b, c)$

$$\vec{v} = \overrightarrow{OQ} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$



Zero vector

The **zero vector**, denoted by $\vec{0}$, has all coordinates equal to 0.

- In \mathbb{R}^2

$$\vec{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- In \mathbb{R}^3

$$\vec{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

In this course, we use *small letters with arrows* on top to denote vectors:

$$\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}, \dots, \vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z}$$

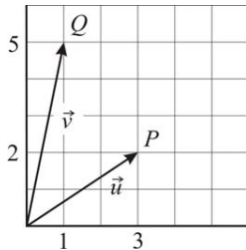
Example

- The vector $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ starts at $O = (0, 0)$ and ends at $P = (3, 2)$

$$\vec{u} = \overrightarrow{OP} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Similarly

$$\vec{v} = \overrightarrow{OQ} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

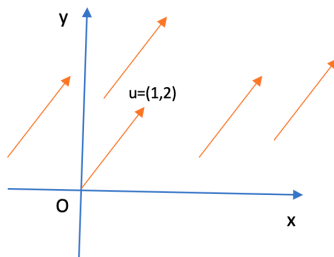


Geometric representation of vectors

- A vector can be geometrically represented by any arrow as long as it preserves **length** and **direction**

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- A vector can be geometrically represented by any arrow as long as it preserves **length** and **direction**
- All the following arrows denote the same vector $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$



Algebraic representation of vectors

- A vector is represented by the algebraic values of their coordinates.
- Given 2 vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v}

$\vec{u} = \vec{v} \Leftrightarrow$ their corresponding coordinates are equal.

Example 5

For what values of a, b the following 2 vectors are equal?

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} a + b \\ 2a - 3b \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ a - b \end{bmatrix}$$

Vectors forming by endpoints

For any two points P and Q , we can form the vector \overrightarrow{PQ} which starts from P and ends at Q by subtracting $Q - P$.

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- In \mathbb{R}^2

$$P = (x_1, y_1), Q = (x_2, y_2) \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{PQ} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 - x_1 \\ y_2 - y_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- In \mathbb{R}^3

$$P = (x_1, y_1, z_1), Q = (x_2, y_2, z_2) \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{PQ} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 - x_1 \\ y_2 - y_1 \\ z_2 - z_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vector addition

Let \vec{u}, \vec{v} be in the **same space** (both in \mathbb{R}^2 or both in \mathbb{R}^3). We can form $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$ or $\vec{u} - \vec{v}$

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- In \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{u} + \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 + v_1 \\ u_2 + v_2 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{u} - \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 - v_1 \\ u_2 - v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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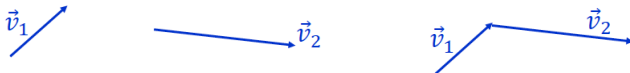
Question 1

Let \vec{u} be any vector. What is $\vec{u} + \vec{0}$?

Geometrical interpretation of vector addition

To add two vectors \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 geometrically, we do the following

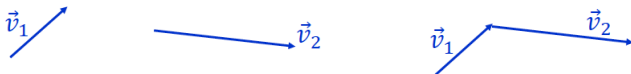
- Take 2 arrows which correspond to v_1, v_2 and arrange them so that the ending point of v_1 lies at the starting point of v_2 .



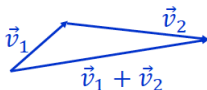
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- Take 2 arrows which correspond to v_1, v_2 and arrange them so that the ending point of v_1 lies at the starting point of v_2 .



- $\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$ is the arrow which goes from the starting point of \vec{v}_1 to the ending point of \vec{v}_2



Scalar multiplication

- Any real constant c is called a **scalar**.

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- Any real constant c is called a **scalar**.
- The *scalar multiplication* of c by \vec{u} , denoted by $c\vec{u}$, is another vector formed by multiplying c into each coordinate of \vec{u} .

(i) In \mathbb{R}^2

$$c \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} cu_1 \\ cu_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(ii) In \mathbb{R}^3

$$c \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} cu_1 \\ cu_2 \\ cu_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Geometric interpretation of scalar multiplication

Geometrically, $c\vec{u}$ is the **scaling** of the vector \vec{u} by the factor c .

- The length of $c\vec{u}$ is $|c|$ times bigger than the length of \vec{u} .

Geometric interpretation of scalar multiplication

Geometrically, $c\vec{u}$ is the **scaling** of the vector \vec{u} by the factor c .

- The length of $c\vec{u}$ is $|c|$ times bigger than the length of \vec{u} .
- If $c > 0$, $c\vec{u}$ and \vec{u} point to the same direction.
If $c < 0$, $c\vec{u}$ and \vec{u} point to opposite directions.

Example

The vector $(-1.5)\vec{v}$ is obtained as follows.



Example 6

Let $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the following vectors

(a) $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$

(b) $2\vec{u} - 3\vec{v}$

(c) $a\vec{u} + b\vec{v}$ for any real constants a, b

Length of vectors

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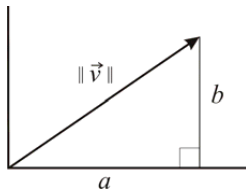
$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow ||\vec{u}|| = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2}$$

- In \mathbb{R}^3

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow ||\vec{u}|| = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2}$$

Explanation for length of vectors

- In the following, the vector $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ is the hypotenuse of a triangle with side lengths a and b .



- By the Pythagoras theorem, its length is $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

Example 7

Find the length of the following vectors

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise 1 (properties of length)

(a) What is the length of the zero vector $\vec{0}$?

(b) Show that for any $\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we have

$$\|\vec{u}\| \geq 0$$

Further, show that the only vector in \mathbb{R}^2 with length 0 is $\vec{0}$.

Exercise 1

(c) Let \vec{u} be any vector in \mathbb{R}^2 . Prove the following

(i) $||2\vec{u}|| = 2||\vec{u}||$

(ii) For any *positive number* c , $||c\vec{u}|| = c||\vec{u}||$.

Exercise 2: Points vs vectors

List the *similarities* and *differences* between points and vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Dot product

The **dot product** of two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} , denoted $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$, is a *scalar* (a real number) defined as follows.

- In \mathbb{R}^2

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2$$

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Example 8

Compute the dot product of any 2 vectors among the following 3 vectors

$$\vec{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ \pi \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 7 \\ 1/\pi \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise 3

(a) Show that for any vector $\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = ||\vec{u}||^2$$

(b) Prove (a) for $\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^3$

Exercise 3

(c) Show that for any $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w}$$

(d) Prove (c) for $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^3$

Properties of dot product

Theorem 1

Let $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w}$ be vectors in the same space. Then the following hold

(a) $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}$ (Commutativity)

(b) $\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w}$ (Distributivity)

(c) $\vec{u} \cdot (c\vec{w}) = c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{w})$ for any scalar c .

(d) $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = \|\vec{u}\|^2$.

Exercise 4

Using the properties of dot products, prove that

$$(\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = \|\vec{u}\|^2 - \|\vec{v}\|^2$$

Angle between 2 vectors

Theorem 2

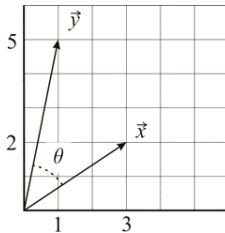
Let \vec{x}, \vec{y} be 2 vectors in the same space and let $\theta \in [0, 180^\circ]$ be the angle between \vec{x} and \vec{y} . Then

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = ||\vec{x}|| ||\vec{y}|| \cos \theta$$

Example 9

Compute the angle between \vec{x} and \vec{y} in the following cases.

(a) $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$



Example 9

$$(b) \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Types of angles

There are three types of angles between two vectors \vec{x} and \vec{y} .

- ① Right angle: $\theta = 90^\circ$

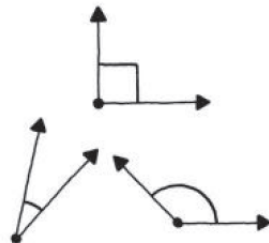
$$\cos \theta = 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$$

- ② Acute angle: $\theta < 90^\circ$

$$\cos \theta > 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} > 0$$

- ③ Obtuse angle: $\theta > 90^\circ$

$$\cos \theta < 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} < 0$$



Exercise 5

Find the type of angle (right, acute, obtuse) between \vec{x} and \vec{y}

(a) $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ \pi \end{bmatrix}, \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Exercise 5

$$(c) \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ e \\ \pi \end{bmatrix}, \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise 6 (Triangle inequality)

Let \vec{x} and \vec{y} be vectors in the same space. Prove that

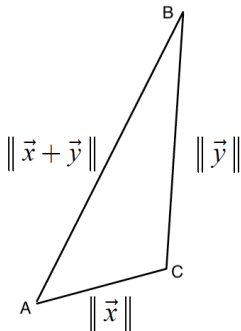
$$||\vec{x} + \vec{y}|| \leq ||\vec{x}|| + ||\vec{y}||.$$

Geometric interpretation of triangle inequality

Put $\vec{x} = \overrightarrow{AC}$, $\vec{y} = \overrightarrow{CB} \Rightarrow \vec{x} + \vec{y} = \overrightarrow{AB}$.

$$\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\| \leq \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\| \Leftrightarrow AB \leq AC + CB$$

Imagine you have to travel from A to B . Consider 2 paths



Geometric interpretation of triangle inequality

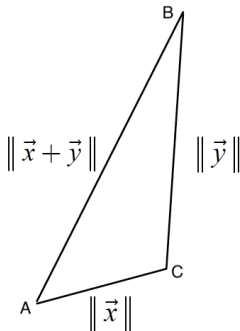
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Imagine you have to travel from A to B . Consider 2 paths

- 1 Direct path \Rightarrow shortest way and

$$\text{length} = \|\overrightarrow{AB}\| = \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|$$



Geometric interpretation of triangle inequality

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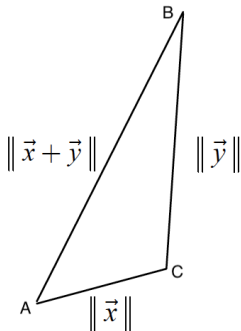
$$\text{length} = \|\overrightarrow{AB}\| = \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|$$

- 2 Move A to C , then C to B . The length is

$$\|\overrightarrow{AC}\| + \|\overrightarrow{CB}\| = \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|$$

By length comparison,

$$\|\overrightarrow{AB}\| \leq \|\overrightarrow{AC}\| + \|\overrightarrow{CB}\|$$



Parallel vectors

Two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} are called **parallel**, denoted $\vec{u} \parallel \vec{v}$, if there exists a scalar c such that

$$\vec{u} = c\vec{v}$$

- In \mathbb{R}^2

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = c \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \frac{u_1}{v_1} = \frac{u_2}{v_2} = c$$

- In \mathbb{R}^3

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = c \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \frac{u_1}{v_1} = \frac{u_2}{v_2} = \frac{u_3}{v_3} = c$$

Characterization of parallel vectors

Theorem 3

(a) In \mathbb{R}^2 , $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ are parallel if and only if

$$\frac{u_1}{v_1} = \frac{u_2}{v_2},$$

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(b) In \mathbb{R}^3 , $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$ are parallel if and only if

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Example 10

Which of the following pairs of vectors are parallel?

(a) $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}$, $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$

Orthogonal vectors

- \vec{x} and \vec{y} are **orthogonal** (or perpendicular), denoted $\vec{x} \perp \vec{y}$, if the angle θ between \vec{x} and \vec{y} is 90° .
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- Question: When is $\theta = 90^\circ$?

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- If $\theta \neq 90^\circ$, we write $\vec{x} \not\perp \vec{y}$.
- Remark: The zero vector $\vec{0}$ is orthogonal to any vector.

Example 11

Which of the following pairs of vectors are orthogonal?

(a) $\vec{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\vec{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{d} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\vec{e} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{f} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

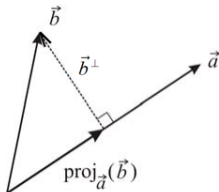
Exercise 7

(a) Find the condition for real numbers a, b so that

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \text{ is orthogonal to } \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

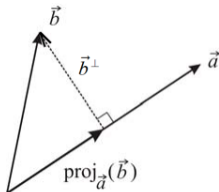
(b) Give 3 examples of the vector \vec{x} in part a.

Orthogonal projection



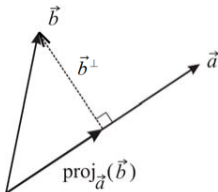
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 - 2 Project the **endpoint** of \vec{b} orthogonally into \vec{a} .
- The **orthogonal complement** of \vec{b} onto \vec{a} is

$$\vec{b}^\perp = \vec{b} - \text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b})$$

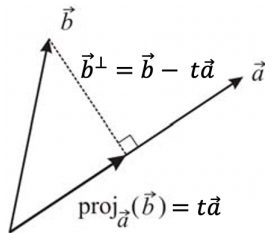
Formula for orthogonal projection

Theorem 4

Let \vec{a}, \vec{b} be two vectors in the same space with $\vec{a} \neq \vec{0}$. The *orthogonal projection* of \vec{b} onto \vec{a} is

$$\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b}) = \frac{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}}{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}} \vec{a}$$

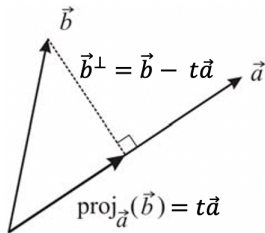
Theorem 3 proof



- Since $\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b})$ and \vec{a} are parallel, there is $c \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b}) = c\vec{a} \Rightarrow \vec{b}^\perp = \vec{b} - c\vec{a}$$

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$$\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b}) = c\vec{a} \Rightarrow \vec{b}^\perp = \vec{b} - c\vec{a}$$

- $\vec{b}^\perp = \vec{b} - c\vec{a}$ is orthogonal to \vec{a} . So

$$0 = (c\vec{a} - \vec{b}) \cdot \vec{a} = c\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} - \vec{b} \cdot \vec{a} \Rightarrow c = \frac{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}}{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}}$$

Summary on orthogonal projection

- 1 The orthogonal projection $\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b})$ is only defined if $\vec{a} \neq \vec{0}$.
- 2 $\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b})$ is a scalar multiple of \vec{a} , say

$$\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b}) = c\vec{a}$$

with the scale

$$c = \frac{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}}{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}}$$

Example 12

Find $\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b})$ and \vec{b}^\perp . Verify that \vec{b}^\perp is orthogonal (perpendicular) to \vec{a} .

(a) $\vec{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$

Example 12

$$(b) \vec{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Question

Assume $\vec{a} \perp \vec{b}$. What is $\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}(\vec{b})$?

Exercise 8

Let $A = (2, 5)$, $B = (8, 8)$, $C = (3, 8)$ be three vertices of a triangle.

From A , draw a line perpendicular to BC at the point Q .

(a) Find the coordinates of Q .

(b) What is the area of $\triangle ABC$?

Exercise 8

General equation and normal equation of lines

- The **general equation** of lines in \mathbb{R}^2 has form $ax + by + c = 0$
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The **normal equation** of lines in \mathbb{R}^2 has form $ax + by = c$
- More commonly known is the following 2 types of equation
 - 1 Slanted lines

$$y = mx + c$$

with $m = \mathbf{slope}$ of the line, and $c = \mathbf{y-intercept}$.

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2 Vertical lines

$$x = k,$$

with $k = \mathbf{x}$ -intercept.

Lines through 2 points

Theorem 5

Let $A(x_1, y_1)$ and $B = (x_2, y_2)$ be any two points in \mathbb{R}^2 .

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Let $A(x_1, y_1)$ and $B = (x_2, y_2)$ be any two points in \mathbb{R}^2 .

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$$x = x_1$$

Lines through 2 points

Theorem 5

Let $A(x_1, y_1)$ and $B = (x_2, y_2)$ be any two points in \mathbb{R}^2 .

(b) If $x_1 \neq x_2$, then the line going through A and B is the *slanted line*

$$y - y_1 = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} (x - x_1)$$

Theorem 4 proof

(a) Since A and B have the same x -coordinate, the only line going through both A and B is the vertical line $x = x_1$.

Theorem 4 proof

- Since $x_1 \neq x_2$, the line going through A and B is a slanted line

$$y = mx + c \tag{1}$$

Theorem 4 proof

- Since $x_1 \neq x_2$, the line going through A and B is a slanted line

$$y = mx + c \quad (1)$$

- Both A and B are on the line, their coordinates both satisfy (1)

$$\begin{cases} mx_1 + c = y_1 \\ mx_2 + c = y_2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} \\ c = y_1 - \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} x_1 \end{cases}$$

Theorem 4 proof

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- Conclusion

$$y = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} x + y_1 - \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} x_1 \Leftrightarrow y - y_1 = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} (x - x_1)$$

Example 13

Find the equation of the line going through two points P and Q . In each case, write out 2 other points (other than P, Q) on the line.

(a) $P = (0, 1)$, $Q = (3, 5)$

Example 13

(b) $P = (1, -1)$, $Q = (1, \pi)$