Analytic Geometry

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Last time

We have defined the operations

$$+: V_2 \times V_2 \to V_2, \quad (\overline{a}, \overline{b}) \mapsto \overline{a} + \overline{b}$$

 $\cdot: \mathbb{R} \times V_2 \to V_2, \quad (k, \overline{a}) \mapsto k \cdot \overline{a}$

and, of course,

$$+: V_3 \times V_3 \to V_3, \quad (\overline{a}, \overline{b}) \mapsto \overline{a} + \overline{b}$$

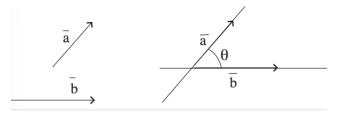
 $\cdot: \mathbb{R} \times V_3 \to V_3, \quad (k, \overline{a}) \mapsto k \cdot \overline{a}.$

We also saw that

- The set $\{\overline{a}, \overline{b}\}$ is a basis in V_2 if and only if the vectors \overline{a} , \overline{b} are not collinear.
- The set $\{\overline{a}, \overline{b}, \overline{c}\}$ is a basis in V_3 if and only if the vectors \overline{a} , \overline{b} , \overline{c} are not coplanar.

Dot product

The angle between two nonzero vectors \overline{a} and \overline{b} from V_2 or V_3 is defined as the angle $\theta = (\overline{a}, \overline{b}) \in [0, \pi]$ determined by their directions, taking into account their orientations.



Given the vectors \overline{a} and \overline{b} in V_2 (or V_3), their **dot product** is the real number defined through

$$\overline{a}\cdot\overline{b}=\left\{egin{array}{ll} |\overline{b}|\cos heta, & \mbox{if }\overline{a}
eq0 \mbox{ and }\overline{b}
eq0 \ 0, & \mbox{otherwise} \end{array}
ight..$$

Does \mathbb{R}^3 (or \mathbb{R}^n) "know" any geometry?

Theorem

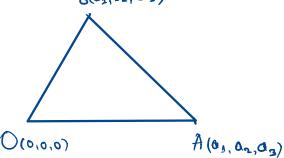
• If $\overline{a}(a_1, a_2)$ and $\overline{b}(b_1, b_2)$ are two vectors in V_2 , then

$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2; \tag{1}$$

2 If $\overline{a}(a_1, a_2, a_3)$ and $\overline{b}(b_1, b_2, b_3)$ are two vectors in V_3 , then

$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3.$$
 (2)

Proof. We only prove (2) Choose $\overrightarrow{OA} \in \overrightarrow{A}$ and $\overrightarrow{OB} \in \overrightarrow{b}$, whose O is the origin of the Cartesian system. Then $A(o_1, a_2, a_3)$ and $B(b_4, b_2, b_3)$. $B(b_1, b_2, b_3)$



By definition, $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = |\overline{a}| \cdot |\overline{b}| \cdot \cos(x\overline{a}, \overline{b})$

= OA.OB. cos (4 AOB).

Using Cosine Thm in AAOB, we have

 $OA \cdot OB \cdot \cos(3 A OB) = OA^2 + OB^2 - AB^2$

Using the distance formula,

 $OA \cdot OB \cdot ODS(AAOB) = \frac{1}{2} \left[a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 + b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2 - (a_1 - b_1)^2 - (a_2 - b_2)^2 - (a_3 - b_3)^2 \right]$

 $= a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3$



Since $\cos\theta=\dfrac{\overline{a}\cdot\overline{b}}{|\overline{a}||\overline{b}|}$, then, for two nonzero vectors \overline{a} and \overline{b} , one has

$$\widehat{\left(\overline{a},\overline{b}\right)} = \frac{a_1b_1 + a_2b_2}{\sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2} \cdot \sqrt{b_1^2 + b_2^2}}, \text{ for } \overline{a}, \overline{b} \in V_2; \tag{3}$$

$$\cos(\widehat{\overline{a},\overline{b}}) = \frac{a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3}{\sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2} \cdot \sqrt{b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2}}, \text{ for } \overline{a}, \overline{b} \in V_3.$$
 (4)

Theorem

If \overline{u} and \overline{v} are nonzero vectors in V_2 (or V_3) and θ is the angle between them, then

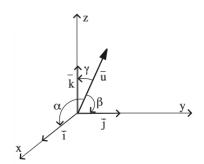
- **a)** θ is acute if and only if $\overline{u} \cdot \overline{v} > 0$;
- **b)** θ is obtuse if and only if $\overline{u} \cdot \overline{v} < 0$;
- c) $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ if and only if $\overline{u} \cdot \overline{v} = 0$.

Proof. The sign of the cosine of θ coincides with the sign of the dot product $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b}$. The assertions follow trivially. \square

The notions of "acute", "obtuse" or orthogonal (perpendicular) can be generalized to vectors with more than 3 components using the algebraic form of the dot product, even if there's no obvious "geometrical" interpretation.

The 3 axes determine 3 angles

Given an arbitrary vector $\overline{u} \in V_3$ and an associated Cartesian system of coordinates, one defines the *director angles* of \overline{u} to be the three angles determined by \overline{u} with the versors of the system of coordinates $\alpha = \widehat{(\overline{u}, \overline{i})}$, $\beta = \widehat{(\overline{u}, \overline{j})}$ and $\gamma = \widehat{(\overline{u}, \overline{k})}$, respectively.



The values $\cos \alpha$, $\cos \beta$ and $\cos \gamma$ are sometimes called *director cosines* of the vector \overline{u} .

Theorem

The director cosines of a vector $\overline{u}(u_1, u_2, u_3) \in V_3$, $\overline{u} \neq 0$, are

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{u_1}{|\overline{u}|}, \ \cos \beta = \frac{u_2}{|\overline{u}|}, \ \cos \gamma = \frac{u_3}{|\overline{u}|}.$$
 (5)

Proof.

$$X = X(\overline{u}, \overline{i})$$

 $\overline{i}(1,0,0)$
 $\overline{u}.\overline{i} = |\overline{u}|.|\overline{i}|.\cos X$
 $u_1.1 + u_2.0 + u_3.0 = |\overline{u}|\cos X$
=) $\cos X = \frac{u_1}{|\overline{u}|}$

For any nonzero vector $\overline{u} \in V_3$, $\frac{\overline{u}}{|\overline{u}|}$ is a unit vector, called the *versor of* \overline{u} .

Moreover, it is easy to see that

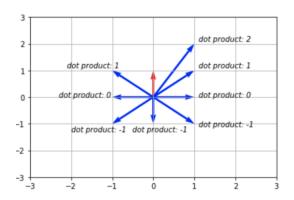
$$\frac{\overline{u}}{|\overline{u}|} = \cos \alpha \cdot \overline{i} + \cos \beta \cdot \overline{j} + \cos \gamma \cdot \overline{k}, \text{ with } (\cos \alpha)^2 + (\cos \beta)^2 + (\cos \gamma)^2 = 1.$$

Algebraic properties of the dot product

Given \overline{a} , \overline{b} , $\overline{c} \in V_3$ (or V_2) and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, one has:

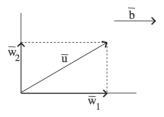
- 1) $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{b} \cdot \overline{a}$ (commutativity of the dot product);
- 2) $\overline{a} \cdot (\overline{b} + \overline{c}) = \overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} + \overline{a} \cdot \overline{c}$ (distributivity of the dot product with respect to the summation of vectors);
- **3)** $\lambda(\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b}) = (\lambda \overline{a}) \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{a} \cdot (\lambda \overline{b});$
- 4) $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{a} = |\overline{a}|^2$.
- 1)-3) can all be proved by comparing the confirmation of the vectors on both sides.

Exercise



- Dot product is larger when the direction of the blue vectors is similar to the direction of the red one.
- Dot product is larger when the magnitude of the blue vector is larger.

Sometimes it is useful to decompose a vector into a sum of two terms, one of them having a given direction and the other being orthogonal on this direction.



Let \overline{u} and \overline{b} be two nonzero vectors and project (orthogonally) a representative of the vector \overline{u} on a line passing through the original point of this representative and parallel to the direction of \overline{b} . One gets the vector \overline{w}_1 , having the direction of \overline{b} and, by making the difference $\overline{u} - \overline{w}_1$, another vector \overline{w}_2 , orthogonal on the direction of \overline{b} ; $\overline{u} = \overline{w}_1 + \overline{w}_2$.

$$b f^{\mu}(\underline{\alpha}) = \underline{m}^{\prime}$$

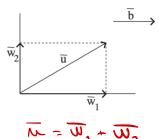
Projections

- The vector \overline{w}_1 is called the *orthogonal projection of* \overline{u} *on* \overline{b} and it is denoted by $\operatorname{pr}_{\overline{b}}\overline{u}$.
- The vector \overline{w}_2 is called the *vector component of* \overline{u} *orthogonal to* \overline{b} and $\overline{w}_2 = \overline{u} \operatorname{pr}_{\overline{b}} \overline{u}$.

Theorem

If \overline{u} and \overline{b} are vectors in V_2 or V_3 and $\overline{b} \neq 0$, then

- the orthogonal projection of \overline{u} on \overline{b} is $pr_{\overline{b}}\overline{u} = \frac{\overline{u} \cdot \overline{b}}{|\overline{b}|^2} \cdot \overline{b}$;
- the vector component of \overline{u} orthogonal to \overline{b} is \overline{u} -pr $_{\overline{b}}\overline{u} = \overline{u} \frac{\overline{u} \cdot \overline{b}}{|\overline{b}|^2} \cdot \overline{b}$.



where
$$W_1 = ph_{\overline{b}}(\overline{u})$$
 and $W_2 \perp \overline{b}$.

Since $W_1 \parallel \overline{b}$, we know that

 $\overline{W}_1 = \overline{k} \cdot \overline{b}$, for some $\overline{k} \in \mathbb{R}^*$.

 $\overline{U} = W_1 + W_2 = 1$.

 $\overline{U} = \overline{k} \cdot \overline{b} + \overline{W}_2 = 1$.

 $\overline{U} = \overline{k} \cdot \overline{b} = 0$.

 $\overline{U} = \overline{b} \cdot \overline{b} = 0$.

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The length of the orthogonal projection of the vector \overline{u} on \overline{b} can be obtained as following:

$$|\operatorname{pr}_{\overline{b}}\overline{u}| = \left| \frac{\overline{u} \cdot \overline{b}}{|\overline{b}|^2} \cdot \overline{b} \right| = \left| \frac{\overline{u} \cdot \overline{b}}{|\overline{b}|^2} \right| |\overline{b}|,$$

which yields

$$|\mathsf{pr}_{\overline{b}}\overline{u}| = \frac{|\overline{u} \cdot \overline{b}|}{|\overline{b}|},$$

and if θ is the angle between \overline{u} and \overline{b} , then

$$|\mathrm{pr}_{\overline{b}}\overline{u}|=|\overline{u}||\cos\theta|.$$

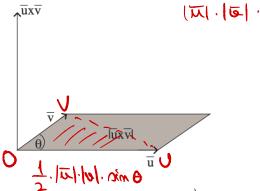
The cross product

Definition

The cross product of two vectors \overline{u} and \overline{v} is another vector $\overline{u} \times \overline{v}$, which can be determined by the following conditions:

- If \overline{u} and \overline{v} are colinear, then $\overline{u} \times \overline{v} := \overline{0}$;
- Else, let $0<\theta<\pi$ be the angle between them. The vector $\overline{u}\times\overline{v}$ is such that:

 - 2 $\overline{u} \times \overline{v}$ is perpendicular on \overline{u} and on \overline{v} ;
 - 3 the orientation of $\overline{u} \times \overline{v}$ is given by the right-hand rule.



- If the vectors $\overline{u}, \overline{v}$ are not collinear, then if $\overrightarrow{OU} \in \overline{u}$ and $\overrightarrow{OV} \in \overline{v}$, then $||\overline{u} \times \overline{v}||$ is the area of the parallelogram formed by \overrightarrow{OU} and \overrightarrow{OV} .
- The area of the triangle $\triangle O(1)$ can be computed as

$$\operatorname{Area}_{\triangle} \text{ old } = \frac{||\overline{u} \times \overline{v}||}{2}.$$

The algebraic form of the cross product

If $\overline{u}=u_1\overline{i}+u_2\overline{j}+u_3\overline{k}$ and $\overline{v}=v_1\overline{i}+v_2\overline{j}+v_3\overline{k}$ are vectors in V_3 , then their cross product $\overline{u}\times\overline{v}$ is the vector

$$\overline{u} \times \overline{v} = \begin{vmatrix} u_2 & u_3 \\ v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} \overline{i} - \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} \overline{j} + \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ v_1 & v_2 \end{vmatrix} \overline{k}, \tag{6}$$

or, shortly,

$$\overline{u} \times \overline{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \overline{i} & \overline{j} & \overline{k} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix}. \tag{7}$$

Did we defined the same thing?

Let $\overline{u}(u_1, u_2, u_3)$ and $\overline{v}(v_1, v_2, v_3)$. Using the algebraic definition, we get $\overline{u} \times \overline{v}(u_2v_3 - u_3v_2, u_3v_1 - u_1v_3, u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)$.

• $\overline{u} \cdot (\overline{u} \times \overline{v}) = 0$, so $\overline{u} \times \overline{v}$ is orthogonal on \overline{u} ;

$$M_{1}(u_{1}u_{3}-u_{3}u_{2})+u_{2}(u_{3}u_{1}-u_{1}u_{3}) + M_{3}(u_{1}u_{2}-u_{2}u_{3}) = 0$$

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• $\overline{u} \cdot (\overline{u} \times \overline{v}) = 0$, so $\overline{u} \times \overline{v}$ is orthogonal on \overline{u} ; Indeed, notice that

$$\overline{u} \cdot (\overline{u} \times \overline{v}) = u_1(u_2v_3 - u_3v_2) + u_2(u_3v_1 - u_1v_3) + u_3(u_1v_2 - u_2v_1) = 0.$$

• Similarly, $\overline{v} \cdot (\overline{u} \times \overline{v}) = 0$.

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• $\overline{u} \cdot (\overline{u} \times \overline{v}) = 0$, so $\overline{u} \times \overline{v}$ is orthogonal on \overline{u} ; Indeed, notice that

$$\overline{u} \cdot (\overline{u} \times \overline{v}) = u_1(u_2v_3 - u_3v_2) + u_2(u_3v_1 - u_1v_3) + u_3(u_1v_2 - u_2v_1) = 0.$$

- Similarly, $\overline{v} \cdot (\overline{u} \times \overline{v}) = 0$.
- We have that

(Lagrange's identity).
$$|\overline{u} \times \overline{v}|^2 = |\overline{u}|^2 |\overline{v}|^2 - (\overline{u} \cdot \overline{v})^2$$

$$= (\overline{u})^2 |\overline{v}|^2 - (|\overline{u}| \cdot |\overline{v}| \cdot \cos \theta)^2$$

$$= (\overline{u})^2 |\overline{v}|^2 ((-\cos \theta)^2)^2$$

To prove Lagrange's identity, one just has to open the brackets and check that

$$|\overline{u} \times \overline{v}|^2 = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2)^2 + (u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)^2 + (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)^2$$

equals to

$$|\overline{u}|^2|\overline{v}|^2-(\overline{u}\cdot\overline{v})^2=(u_1^2+u_2^2+u_3^2)(v_1^2+v_2^2+v_3^2)-(u_1v_1+u_2v_2+u_3v_3)^2.$$

Using Lagrange's identity,

$$|\overline{u}\times\overline{v}|^2 = |\overline{u}|^2|\overline{v}|^2 - (\overline{u}\cdot\overline{v})^2 = |\overline{u}|^2|\overline{v}|^2 - |\overline{u}|^2|\overline{v}|^2\cos^2\theta = |\overline{u}|^2|\overline{v}|^2\sin^2\theta.$$

Are you convinced that the cross product defined geometrically and the cross product defined algebraically are one and the same?

An immediate consequence of the Lagrange's identity is that $|\overline{u}|^2|\overline{v}|^2-(\overline{u}\cdot\overline{v})^2\geq 0, \text{ or } |\overline{u}\cdot\overline{v}|\leq |\overline{u}||\overline{v}|, \text{ which leads, after replacing the components of the vectors, to the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality. The equality }|\overline{u}\cdot\overline{v}|=|\overline{u}||\overline{v}| \text{ holds if and only if the vector }\overline{u}\times\overline{v} \text{ is the zero vector, i.e. its components are all zero, which happens if and only if}$

$$\frac{v_1}{u_1}=\frac{v_2}{u_2}=\frac{v_3}{u_3}=\lambda$$
, or $\overline{v}=\lambda\overline{u},\ \lambda\in\mathbb{R}^*.$ In summary, one has:

Theorem

If \overline{u} and \overline{v} are nonzero vectors in V_3 , then $\overline{u} \times \overline{v} = \overline{0}$ if and only if \overline{u} and \overline{v} are parallel.

The problem set for this week has been posted. Please have a look at it before attending the seminar.

Thank you very much for your attention!