Geometry of Vectors in IR3

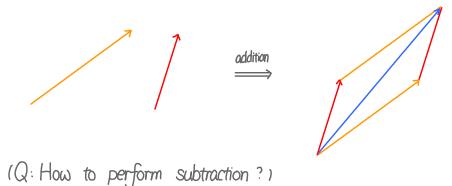
Reading: Textbook, \$12.1-12.5

§1. Vectors in IR3

• A vector is a mathmatical quantity that has a magnitude and a direction.



 A vector can be rescaled by scalars (numbers in IR) to make new vectors, only affecting its size.
 (What about rescaling by negative scalars?) Unlike scalars, vector addition obeys the parallelogram/triangle rule



• To mathematically describe vectors, we introduce Cartesian coordinates. Thus a vector in 3-dim'l space is described by 3 numbers: its projections onto the x, y, z-axis.

$$\vec{V} = (V_x, V_y, V_z)$$

Then: addition and scalar multiplication are done coordinatewise:

$$\vec{V} = (Ux, Uy, Uz) , \quad \vec{U} = (Ux, Uy, Uz) , \quad \alpha \in IR$$

$$\implies \begin{cases} \vec{V} + \vec{U} = (Ux + Ux, Uy + Uy, Uz + Uz) \\ \vec{\alpha} \vec{V} = (\vec{\alpha} Ux, \vec{\alpha} Uy, \vec{\alpha} Uz) \end{cases}$$

It's convenient to give some standard vectors special names:

Then any vector
$$\vec{v} = (0, 0, 0)$$
, $\vec{k} = (0, 0, 0)$

Then any vector
$$\vec{v} = (a, b, c)$$
 can be rewritten as $\vec{v} = a(1, 0, 0) + b(0, 1, 0) + c(0, 0, 1)$

$$= a\vec{v} + b\vec{v} + c\vec{k}$$

• The Pythagorean Theorem tells us that the magnitude/length of a vector v=(a,b,c) is given by

a vector
$$\vec{v} = (\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c})$$
 is given by
$$\|\vec{\vec{v}}\| = \sqrt{\alpha^2 + b^2 + c^2}$$

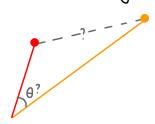
E.g. Draw all vectors of length 1 in \mathbb{R}^3 .

E.g. What's the length of the vector $\frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$ if $\vec{v} \neq \vec{o}$?

(This vector is called the direction vector of \vec{v} , of length 1).

§2. Dot/inner product

The notion of length of a vector is closely related to distance between two points in \mathbb{R}^3 and angles between two vectors.



Def. If $\vec{u} = (u_x, u_y, u_z)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_x, v_y, v_z)$ are vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 , then

Basic properties.

- For any vector $\vec{u} = (a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = (\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2})^2 = ||\vec{u}||^2$
 - $\vec{\mathcal{U}} \cdot \vec{\mathcal{V}} = \vec{\mathcal{V}} \cdot \vec{\mathcal{U}}$ (commutativity).
 - $\vec{u} \cdot (a\vec{v} + b\vec{\omega}) = a\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + b\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\omega}$ (distributivity)
 - Generalized Pythagorean Theorem : if นี, v make an angle θ :
 นี : บี = ||นี|||บี|| cosθ

$$\implies \text{If } \vec{u}, \vec{v} \text{ are non-zero vectors making an angle } \theta,$$

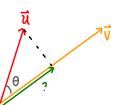
$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|}.$$

(Here we usually assume $\theta \in (0, \pi)$. If $\theta = 0$ or π , the two vectors are called parallel).

E.g. Show that the triangles with vertices (1, -3, -2), (2,0,-4) and (6, -2, -5) is right angled.

Using dot product, if $\vec{u} = (u_x, u_y, u_z)$ is a vector, then $u_x = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{i}$, $u_y = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{j}$, $u_z = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{k}$

Application: Project one vector \vec{u} in the direction of another.



 $Proj_{\overrightarrow{v}}(\overrightarrow{u}) = ||u||\cos\theta \frac{\overrightarrow{v}}{||\overrightarrow{v}||} = ||u|| \frac{\overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{v}}{||\overrightarrow{u}||||\overrightarrow{v}||} \frac{\overrightarrow{v}}{||\overrightarrow{v}||} = \frac{\overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{v}}{||\overrightarrow{v}||^2} \overrightarrow{v}$

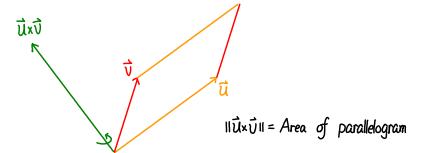
Eq. Find the projection of
$$(1,2,3)$$
 in the direction of the

vector (3,4,0), and the length of this projected vector.

§3. Cross product

Def. The cross product of two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} has

- magnitude = area of parallelogram formed by \vec{u} and \vec{v}
- direction = perpendicular to \vec{u} and \vec{v} via the right hand rule .



 Helpful computational rule: the cross product is distributive and anti-commutative, and determined by

$$\vec{1} \times \vec{l} = \vec{j} \times \vec{j} = \vec{k} \times \vec{k} = 0$$

$$\vec{1} \times \vec{j} = \vec{k} = -\vec{j} \times \vec{l}, \quad \vec{j} \times \vec{k} = \vec{l} = -\vec{k} \times \vec{j}, \quad \vec{k} \times \vec{l} = \vec{j} = -\vec{l} \times \vec{k}$$

Eq.
$$(1,2,0) \times (0.4.6) = (1\vec{\iota} + 2\vec{\jmath}) \times (4\vec{\jmath} + 6\vec{k})$$

More generally, if $\vec{u} = (a_1, b_1, c_1)$, $\vec{v} = (a_2, b_2, c_2)$, then

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = (Q_1 \vec{l} + b_1 \vec{j} + C_1 \vec{k}) \times (Q_2 \vec{l} + b_2 \vec{j} + C_2 \vec{k})$$

 $a \times 0 = (a_1 c_1 + b_1) + c_1 R \times (a_2 c_1 + b_2) + c_2 R$ $= (b_1 c_2 - b_2 c_1) \vec{c} - (a_1 c_2 - a_2 c_1) \vec{j} + (a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1) \vec{k}$

A useful way to memorize the determinantal formula in linear algebra. if $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ is a 2×2 matrix, then

 $|A| = |\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}| = ad - bc$

So we can rewrite:

$$\vec{\mathcal{U}} \times \vec{\mathcal{V}} = \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & C_1 \\ b_2 & C_2 \end{vmatrix} \vec{l} - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & C_1 \\ a_2 & C_2 \end{vmatrix} \vec{J} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \vec{k}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \vec{l} & \vec{J} & \vec{k} \\ a_1 & b_1 & C_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & C_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

using the 3×3 determinantal formula.

Eq. Double check that $\vec{i} \times \vec{j} = \vec{k}$ etc.

E.g. Compute $\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$ for $\vec{u} = (1,2,3)$ and $\vec{v} = (4,5,6)$, and verify that \vec{u} , \vec{v} are perpendicular to $\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$.

Thm (1) The vector $\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$ is perpendicular to both $\vec{u} & \vec{v}$.

(2). The length of $\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$ is equal to $\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \sin \theta$, where $\theta \in [0,\pi]$ is the angle between $\vec{u} & \vec{v}$.

E.g. Find a nonzero vector that is orthogonal to the plane containing the points (1.0.1). (-2.1.3) and (4.2.5)

- Thm . (Properties of x). For any vectors \vec{u} , \vec{v} , $\vec{\omega}$, we have
- $\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = -\vec{v} \times \vec{u} \quad (\Rightarrow \vec{u} \times \vec{u} = 0)$
- 2. $(r\vec{u}) \times \vec{v} = r(\vec{u} \times \vec{v}) = \vec{u} \times (r\vec{v})$
 - 3. $\vec{u} \times (\vec{v} + \vec{\omega}) = \vec{u} \times \vec{v} + \vec{u} \times \vec{\omega}$. $(\vec{v} + \vec{\omega}) \times \vec{u} = \vec{v} \times \vec{u} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{u}$.
 - 3. $U \times (V + \omega) = U \times V + U \times \omega$, $(V + \omega) \times U = V \times U + \omega \times U$.
 - 4. $\vec{\mathcal{U}} \cdot (\vec{\mathcal{V}} \times \vec{\omega}) = \vec{\mathcal{V}} \cdot (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{\mathcal{U}}) = \vec{\omega} \cdot (\vec{\mathcal{U}} \times \vec{\mathcal{V}})$.
 - 5. $\vec{\mathcal{U}} \times (\vec{\mathcal{V}} \times \vec{\omega}) = (\vec{\mathcal{U}} \cdot \vec{\omega}) \vec{\mathcal{V}} (\vec{\mathcal{U}} \cdot \vec{\mathcal{V}}) \vec{\omega}$.

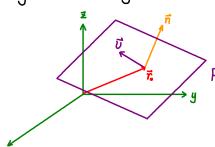
The quantity $\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} \times \vec{\omega})$ is also called the triple product of \vec{u} , \vec{v} and $\vec{\omega}$. It is equal to the signed/oriented volume of the parallelpiped formed by \vec{u} , \vec{v} & $\vec{\omega}$:

the parallelpiped formed by
$$\vec{u}$$
, \vec{v} & \vec{w} :
$$\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} \times \vec{\omega}) = \begin{vmatrix} u_x & u_y & u_z \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \\ \omega_x & \omega_y & \omega_z \end{vmatrix}.$$

E.g. Determine if the vectors (2.8,-14), (2,-1,4) and (0.1,-2) are coplanar or not.

§ 4. Equations of planes and lines

As applications, we give several ways to describe lines in IR^3 .



$$P = \{\vec{r}_0 + \vec{v} \mid \vec{v} \perp \vec{n}\} = \{\vec{r} \mid (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_0) \perp \vec{n}\} = \{\vec{r} \mid \vec{n} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_0) = 0\}.$$

The vector \vec{n} is called the normal direction of P.

In coordinates, if $\vec{n} = (a.b.c)$, $\vec{r}_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$, then $(x, y, z) \in P$ means

means
$$O = (\vec{\Gamma} - \vec{\Gamma_0}) \cdot \vec{n} = ((x, y, z) - (x_0, y_0, z_0)) (a, b, c)$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \qquad \triangle(x-x_0) + b(y-y_0) + C(z-z_0) = 0$$

Next, we describe lines. The easiest way to describe a line is to use the vector parametric form

$$\vec{V}(t) = \vec{r}_0 + t\vec{V} \qquad (t \in \mathbb{R})$$

Componentwise, if $\vec{v}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))$, $\vec{r}_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and $\vec{v} = (a, b, c)$, then

 $\chi(t) = \chi_0 + \alpha t, \quad y(t) = y_0 + bt, \quad z(t) = z_0 + ct.$

Note that there are different ways to describe the same line by choosing different \vec{r}_{6} 's and (parallel) \vec{v} 's.

Assume $a \neq 0$, $b \neq 0$, $c \neq 0 \implies$ symmetric form of the line

(t=)
$$\frac{x-x_0}{a} = \frac{y-y_0}{b} = \frac{z-z_0}{c}$$

This form is essentially describing the line as the intersection of 2 planes: $P_1: \frac{x-x_0}{a} = \frac{y-y_0}{b} \qquad P_2: \frac{y-y_0}{b} = \frac{z-z_0}{c}$

More generally, two non-parallel planes always intersect at a line.

E.g. What is the relationship between the planes

$$P_1: 2\% - 3y + 4z = 5$$
 $P_2: \% + 6y + 4z = 3$

Find a parametric form of $P_1 \cap P_2$

E.g Can you give a condition for a line

L: $x(t) = x_0 + \alpha t$, $y(t) = y_0 + bt$, $z(t) = z_0 + ct$

to be parallel to a plane

Under what conditions will L and P intersect each other?

P. ux + vy + wz = d