

# CX1104: Linear Algebra for Computing

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}}_b$$

Chap. No : **6.1.2**

Lecture : **Orthogonality**

Topic : **Dot Product**

Concept : **Norm of a Vector and Unit Vectors**

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# Norm of a Vector

- Indicates the **length** or the **magnitude** of the vector.

In this text we will denote the length of a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  by the symbol  $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ , which is read as the *norm* of  $\mathbf{v}$ , the *length* of  $\mathbf{v}$ , or the *magnitude* of  $\mathbf{v}$  (the term “norm” being a common mathematical synonym for length). As suggested in Figure 3.2.1a, it follows from the Theorem of Pythagoras that the norm of a vector  $(v_1, v_2)$  in  $R^2$  is

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2} \tag{1}$$

Similarly, for a vector  $(v_1, v_2, v_3)$  in  $R^3$ , it follows from Figure 3.2.1b and two applications of the Theorem of Pythagoras that

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = (OR)^2 + (RP)^2 = (OQ)^2 + (QR)^2 + (RP)^2 = v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2$$

and hence that

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2} \tag{2}$$

Motivated by the pattern of Formulas (1) and (2), we make the following definition.

**DEFINITION 1** If  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  is a vector in  $R^n$ , then the **norm** of  $\mathbf{v}$  (also called the **length** of  $\mathbf{v}$  or the **magnitude** of  $\mathbf{v}$ ) is denoted by  $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ , and is defined by the formula

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2} \tag{3}$$

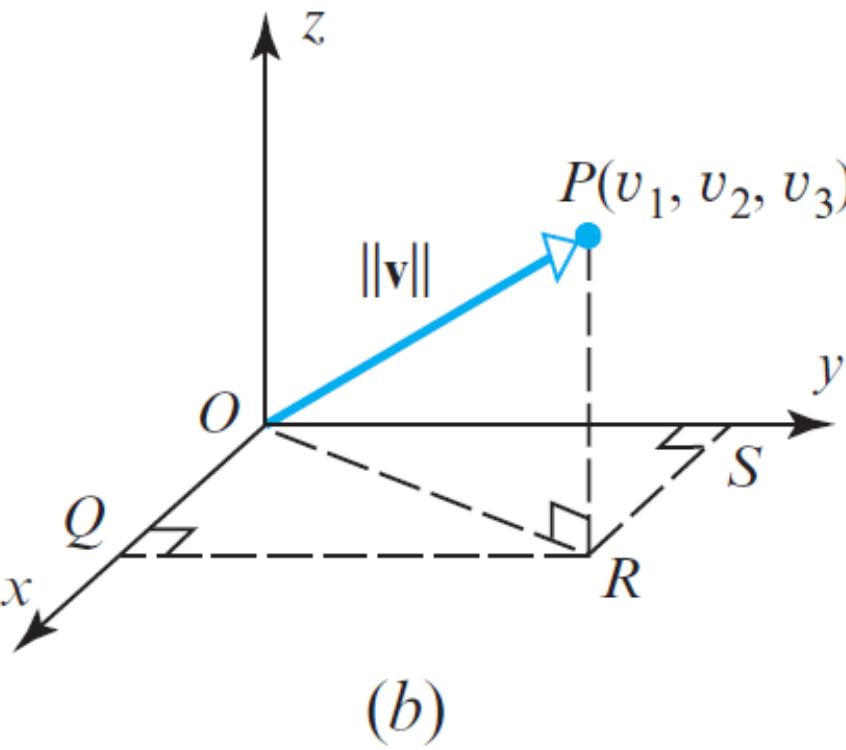
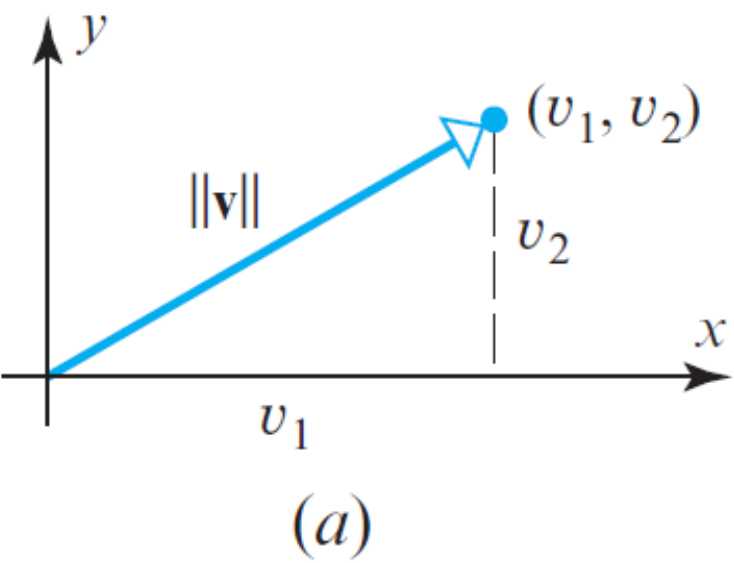


Figure 3.2.1

► **EXAMPLE 1** Calculating Norms

It follows from Formula (2) that the norm of the vector  $\mathbf{v} = (-3, 2, 1)$  in  $R^3$  is

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{(-3)^2 + 2^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{14}$$

and it follows from Formula (3) that the norm of the vector  $\mathbf{v} = (2, -1, 3, -5)$  in  $R^4$  is

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2 + 3^2 + (-5)^2} = \sqrt{39} \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

# Norm of a Vector

**THEOREM 3.2.1** *If  $\mathbf{v}$  is a vector in  $R^n$ , and if  $k$  is any scalar, then:*

- (a)  $\|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0$
- (b)  $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$
- (c)  $\|k\mathbf{v}\| = |k|\|\mathbf{v}\|$

We will prove part (c) and leave (a) and (b) as exercises.

**Proof (c)** If  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ , then  $k\mathbf{v} = (kv_1, kv_2, \dots, kv_n)$ , so

$$\begin{aligned}\|k\mathbf{v}\| &= \sqrt{(kv_1)^2 + (kv_2)^2 + \dots + (kv_n)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(k^2)(v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2)} \\ &= |k|\sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2} \\ &= |k|\|\mathbf{v}\| \quad \blacktriangleleft\end{aligned}$$

# Unit Length Vector

A vector of norm 1 is called a *unit vector*. Such vectors are useful for specifying a direction when length is not relevant to the problem at hand. You can obtain a unit vector in a desired direction by choosing any *nonzero* vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in that direction and multiplying  $\mathbf{v}$  by the reciprocal of its length. For example, if  $\mathbf{v}$  is a vector of length 2 in  $R^2$  or  $R^3$ , then  $\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{v}$  is a unit vector in the same direction as  $\mathbf{v}$ . More generally, if  $\mathbf{v}$  is any nonzero vector in  $R^n$ , then

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \mathbf{v} \tag{4}$$

defines a unit vector that is in the same direction as  $\mathbf{v}$ . We can confirm that (4) is a unit vector by applying part (c) of Theorem 3.2.1 with  $k = 1/\|\mathbf{v}\|$  to obtain

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|k\mathbf{v}\| = |k|\|\mathbf{v}\| = k\|\mathbf{v}\| = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$$

The process of multiplying a nonzero vector by the reciprocal of its length to obtain a unit vector is called *normalizing*  $\mathbf{v}$ .

► **EXAMPLE 2 Normalizing a Vector**

Find the unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  that has the same direction as  $\mathbf{v} = (2, 2, -1)$ .

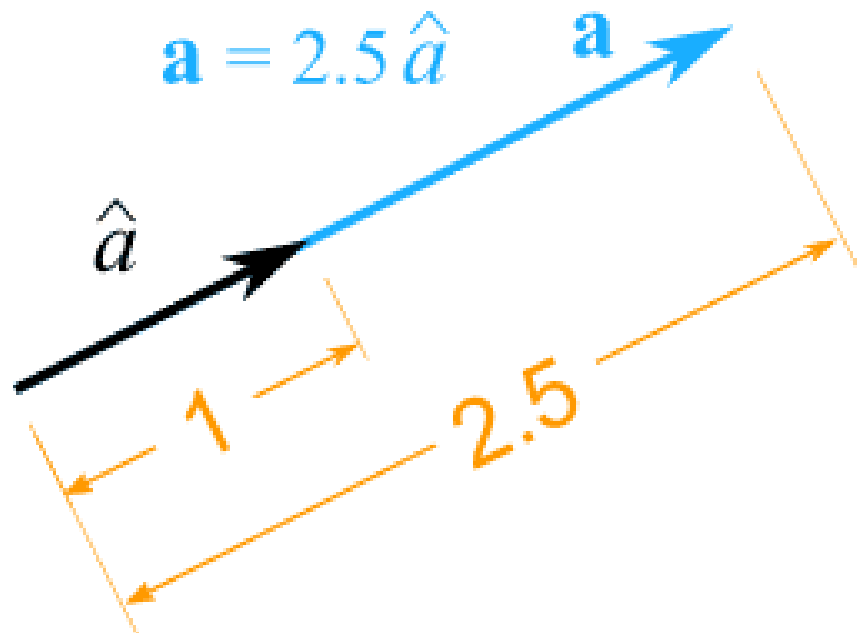
**Solution** The vector  $\mathbf{v}$  has length

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + 2^2 + (-1)^2} = 3$$

Thus, from (4)

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{3}(2, 2, -1) = \left(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

As a check, you may want to confirm that  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$ . ◀



$\hat{a}$  is a unit vector with a direction that of vector  $\mathbf{a}$

Vector  $\mathbf{a}$  is normalised to obtain the unit vector  $\hat{a}$

Ref: <https://www.mathsisfun.com/algebra/vector-unit.html>



# Examples

A vector whose length is 1 is called a **unit vector**. If we *divide* a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{v}$  by its length—that is, multiply by  $1/\|\mathbf{v}\|$ —we obtain a unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  because the length of  $\mathbf{u}$  is  $(1/\|\mathbf{v}\|)\|\mathbf{v}\|$ . The process of creating  $\mathbf{u}$  from  $\mathbf{v}$  is sometimes called **normalizing**  $\mathbf{v}$ , and we say that  $\mathbf{u}$  is *in the same direction as*  $\mathbf{v}$ .

Several examples that follow use the space-saving notation for (column) vectors.

**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $\mathbf{v} = (1, -2, 2, 0)$ . Find a unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in the same direction as  $\mathbf{v}$ .

**SOLUTION** First, compute the length of  $\mathbf{v}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 &= \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (1)^2 + (-2)^2 + (2)^2 + (0)^2 = 9 \\ \|\mathbf{v}\| &= \sqrt{9} = 3\end{aligned}$$

Then, multiply  $\mathbf{v}$  by  $1/\|\mathbf{v}\|$  to obtain

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ -2/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

To check that  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$ , it suffices to show that  $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 &= \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 + \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + (0)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{9} + \frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{9} + 0 = 1\end{aligned}$$

**Note:**  $\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$

Derived in Slide 6 of Lecture 6.1.3 on Dot Product

## DEFINITION

For  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the **distance between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$** , written as  $\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ , is the length of the vector  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ . That is,

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$$

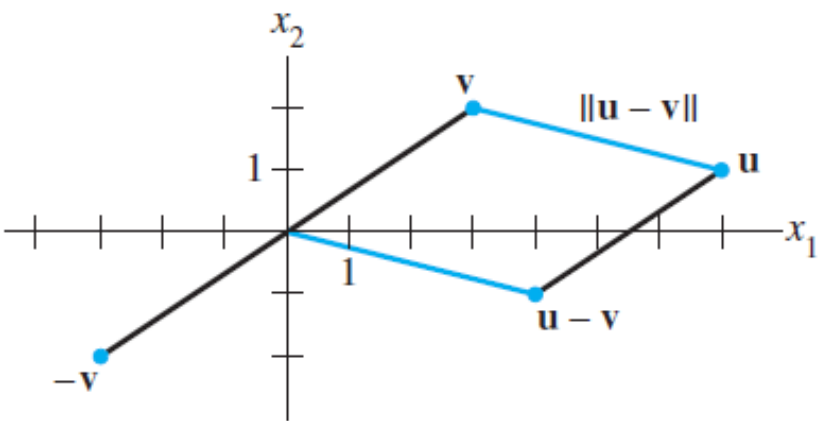
In  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , this definition of distance coincides with the usual formulas for the Euclidean distance between two points, as the next two examples show.

**EXAMPLE 4** Compute the distance between the vectors  $\mathbf{u} = (7, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (3, 2)$ .

**SOLUTION** Calculate

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} &= \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| &= \sqrt{4^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{17}\end{aligned}$$

The vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$  are shown in Fig. 4. When the vector  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$  is added to  $\mathbf{v}$ , the result is  $\mathbf{u}$ . Notice that the parallelogram in Fig. 4 shows that the distance from  $\mathbf{u}$  to  $\mathbf{v}$  is the same as the distance from  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$  to  $\mathbf{0}$ . ■



**FIGURE 4** The distance between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is the length of  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** If  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) &= \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \cdot (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v})} \\ &= \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 + (u_3 - v_3)^2}\end{aligned}$$