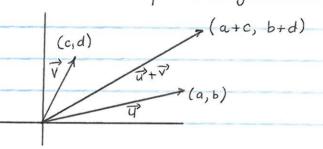
Vectors in Rn

Cetain quantities such as temperature and speed possess only magnitude and are called scalars. Other quantities such as force and velocity possess both magnitude and direction and are called vectors. Vectors are usually represented by arrows. If the origin is the initial point of the vector, then every vector is uniquely determined by the coordinates of its teminal point.

(i) Addition: If (a, b) and (c, d) are the teminal points of vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} respectively, then (a+c, b+d) will be the terminal point of $\vec{u}+\vec{v}$.



(ii) Scalar multiplication: If (a, b) is the terminal point of the vector \vec{u} , then (ka, kb) mill be the terminal point of the vector $k\vec{v}$.

We can identify a vector with its terminal point: the ordered pair (a, b) can be identified with the vector $\overrightarrow{U} = (a, b)$. We genealise this notion so an n-tuple (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) can be identified with the vector $\overrightarrow{V} = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$. The coordinates or components of the vector \overrightarrow{V} may be real numbers or complex numbers.

Vectors in Rn

het R denote the set of all real numbers. The set of all n-tuples of real numbers is called n-dimensional space and is denoted by Rn. het u= (u1, u2, ..., un) be an n-tuple in R? 4 is the point in R" with coordinates Ui, 1≤i≤n. I is the vector with components ui, 1 si = n. The term scalar is used for the elements of R.

Example: Conside the following vectors: $(0,1), (1,-3), (1,2,13,4), (-5,\frac{1}{2},0,\pi).$ The first two vectors have two components and can be identified with points in R2, and the last two

vectors have four components and can be identified

with points in R4.

Two vectors $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $\vec{\nabla} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ are equal if and only if $u_i = V_i$ for all $1 \le i \le n$. Example: Suppose (x-y, x+y, z-1) = (4, 2, 8). Then by the definition of equality of vectors, x-y=4, x+y=2, z-1=3. Solving this system gives x=3, y=-1, z=4.

Vector addition and scalar multiplication

het is and is be vectors in Rn,

 $\overrightarrow{U} = (U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n), \quad \overrightarrow{V} = (V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n).$

The sum of it and v, written is + v, is the vector obtained by adding corresponding components:

 $\overrightarrow{U} + \overrightarrow{V} = (U_1 + V_1, U_2 + V_2, \dots, U_n + V_n)$

The product of the real number k by the vector it, written kil, is the vector obtained by multiplying each component by k:

ku = (ku, kuz, ..., kun)

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Note that $k\vec{u}$ and $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$ are also vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . We also define

 $-\vec{u} = -1\vec{u} = (-u_1, -u_2, \dots, -u_n)$

and $\vec{u} - \vec{v} = \vec{u} + (-\vec{v}) = (u_1 - V_1, u_2 - V_2, \dots, u_n - V_n)$.

The sum of vectors having different numbers of components is not defined.

Example:

het $\vec{U} = (1, -3, 2, 4), \quad \vec{V} = (3, 5, -1, -2).$ Then $\vec{U} + \vec{V} = (1+3, -3+5, 2-1, 4-2) = (4, 2, 1, 2)$ $-2\vec{U} = -2(1, -3, 2, 4) = (-2, 6, -4, -8)$ $\vec{U} - 3\vec{V} = (1, -3, 2, 4) - (9, 15, -3, -6) = (-8, -18, 5, 10).$

Example:

The vector (0,0,...,0) in \mathbb{R}^n , denoted by $\overrightarrow{\partial}$, is called the zero vector. Note that for $\overrightarrow{U} = (u_1, u_2,..., u_n)$ $\overrightarrow{U} + \overrightarrow{\partial} = (u_1 + 0, u_2 + 0, ..., u_n + 0) = (u_1, u_2, ..., u_n) = \overrightarrow{U}$ $\overrightarrow{\partial} + \overrightarrow{U} = (0 + u_1, 0 + u_2, ..., 0 + u_n) = (u_1, u_2, ..., u_n) = \overrightarrow{U}$.

Basic properties of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n under the operations addition and scalar multiplication are as follows: Theorem: For any vectors $\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}, \overrightarrow{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and any scalars $k, k' \in \mathbb{R}$;

(i)
$$(\overrightarrow{u} + \overrightarrow{v}) + \overrightarrow{u} = \overrightarrow{u} + (\overrightarrow{v} + \overrightarrow{u})$$
 (v) $k(\overrightarrow{u} + \overrightarrow{v}) = k\overrightarrow{u} + k\overrightarrow{v}$

(ii)
$$\overrightarrow{u} + \overrightarrow{o} = \overrightarrow{o} + \overrightarrow{u} = \overrightarrow{u}$$
 (vi) $(k+k')\overrightarrow{u} = k\overrightarrow{u} + k'\overrightarrow{u}$

$$(iii) \overrightarrow{u} + (-\overrightarrow{u}) = \overrightarrow{o} \qquad (vii) (kk')\overrightarrow{u} = k(k'\overrightarrow{u})$$

$$(iv) \overrightarrow{u} + \overrightarrow{v} = \overrightarrow{v} + \overrightarrow{u}$$
 $(viii) | \overrightarrow{u} = \overrightarrow{u}$

Dot Product

het \vec{u} , \vec{v} be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n ,

 $\overrightarrow{U} = (U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n), \quad \overrightarrow{\nabla} = (V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n).$

The dot product or inner product of \vec{u} and \vec{v} , denoted by $\vec{u}.\vec{v}$, is the scalar obtained by multiplying

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the components and then adding the products:
                 \overrightarrow{U}.\overrightarrow{V} = (U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n). (V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n)
                         = U1V1 + U2V2 + ... + UnVn
 if and v are orthogonal (perpendicular) if v. v = 0.
Example: Let U= (1, -2, 3, -4), V= (6, 7, 1, -2), W= (5, -4,5,7)
Then \vec{U} \cdot \vec{V} = (i)(6) + (-2)(7) + (3)(1) + (-4)(-2) = 3
        \overrightarrow{U}_{1}\overrightarrow{W} = (1)(5) + (-2)(-4) + (3)(5) + (-4)(7) = 0
So it and is are orthogonal.
Theorem: For any vectors i, v, w E R" and any scalar
(i) (\overrightarrow{u} + \overrightarrow{v}). \overrightarrow{\omega} = \overrightarrow{u}. \overrightarrow{\omega} + \overrightarrow{v}. \overrightarrow{\omega}
(ii) (k\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = k(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v})
(iii) \vec{u}. \vec{V} = \vec{V}. \vec{u}
(iv) \overrightarrow{u}. \overrightarrow{u} \geqslant 0 and \overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{u} = 0 if and only if \overrightarrow{u} = 0.
Norm and distance in Rn
het it and it be vectors in Rn,
         \overrightarrow{U} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n), \quad \overrightarrow{V} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n).
The distance between the points u and v, withen d(u, v),
is given by
         d(u,v) = \sqrt{(v_1 - u_1)^2 + (v_2 - u_2)^2 + ... + (v_n - u_n)^2}
The norm (or length) of the vector ii, written it,
is defined to be the nonnegative square root of \vec{u}.\vec{v}:
         \|\vec{u}\| = \sqrt{u^2 + u^2 + ... + u^2}
Observe that
   \|\overrightarrow{V} - \overrightarrow{u}\| = \sqrt{(v_1 - u_1)^2 + (v_2 - u_2)^2 + \dots + (v_n - u_n)^2} = d(u, v),
Example: Let \vec{u} = (1, -2, 4, 1) and \vec{V} = (3, 1, -5, 0).
      O((4, V)) = \sqrt{(3-1)^2 + (1+2)^2 + (-5-4)^2 + (0-1)^2} = \sqrt{95}
       \|\vec{q}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-2)^2 + 4^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{22}
       || \overrightarrow{V} || = \sqrt{3^2 + 1^2 + (-5)^2 + 0^2} = \sqrt{35}
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A vector is called a unit vector if its norm is 1. For example, the vectors $\vec{e}_i = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$, $\vec{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ $..., \overrightarrow{e_n} = (0, ..., 0, 1)$ are all unit vectors. For any nonzero vector yeRn, the vector Tivil () is a unit vector since 1 11 21 = 1211 (11211) = 1. It has the same direction as the vector U.

Theorem: (Cauchy - Schwarz Inequality) For any vectors v, v ∈ R", |v. V | € ||v| || V ||.

Proof: Let $\overrightarrow{U} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n), \overrightarrow{V} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n).$ If $\vec{u} = \vec{o}$ or $\vec{V} = \vec{o}$, then the inequality reduces to 0 ≤ 0 ≤ 0 which is true. So we only need to consider the case when $\vec{u} \neq \vec{o}$ and $\vec{v} \neq \vec{o}$ is when $\|\vec{u}\| \neq 0$ and 1011 + 0. Now

 $|\vec{u}.\vec{v}| = |u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + ... + u_nv_n| \le |u_iv_i| + |u_2v_2| + ... + |u_nv_o| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_iv_i|$ So we only need to prove the second inequality.

For any real numbers x, y,

 $0 \le (x-y)^2 = x^2 - 2xy + y^2$

Set $x = \frac{|ui|}{||v||}$ and $y = \frac{|vi|}{||v||}$ in (1) to obtain $2 \frac{|ui| |vi|}{||\vec{u}|| ||\vec{v}||} \leq \frac{|ui|^2}{||\vec{u}||^2} + \frac{|vi|^2}{||\vec{v}||^2} \dots (2)$

Sum sing (2) with respect to i, we get

$$2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i| |v_i| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^2$$

$$||\overrightarrow{U}|| ||\overrightarrow{V}|| \qquad ||\overrightarrow{U}||^2$$

ie.
$$2\sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i v_i| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^2$$

$$||\vec{u}|| ||\vec{v}|| = ||\vec{u}||^2 + ||\vec{v}||^2$$

Now since
$$\|\vec{u}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i|^2$$
 and $\|\vec{v}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^2$ we get
$$\frac{2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i v_i|}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|} \leq \frac{\|\vec{u}\|^2}{\|\vec{u}\|^2} + \frac{\|\vec{v}\|^2}{\|\vec{v}\|^2} = a$$

ie
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i v_i| \leq 1$$
.

Multiplying both sides by IIIIIII, we obtain the required inequality.

Theorem: (Minskowski's inequality)

For any vectors $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, ..., u_n)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, ..., v_n)$ in \mathbb{R}^n , $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \leq \|\vec{v}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$.

Proof: If $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| = 0$, then the inequality holds. So we need only consider the case when $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \neq 0$.

Now $|u_i + v_i| \le |u_i| + |v_i|$ for any real numbers u_i , v_i . Hence $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (u_i + v_i)^2$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i + v_i|^2$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i + v_i| (|u_i| + |v_i|)$$

So $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i + v_i| |u_i| + \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i + v_i| |v_i|$ By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i + v_i| |u_i| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |(u_i + v_i)(u_i)| \le ||\vec{u} + \vec{v}|| ||\vec{u}|| \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} |u_i + v_i| ||\vec{v}|| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |(u_i + v_i)(v_i)| \le ||\vec{u} + \vec{v}|| ||\vec{v}|| .$$

Hence $\|\vec{u}+\vec{v}\|^2 \le \|\vec{u}+\vec{v}\|\|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{u}+\vec{v}\|\|\vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u}+\vec{v}\| (\|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|)$ Dividing both sides by $\|\vec{u}+\vec{v}\|$, we obtain the required

in equality. Page (