

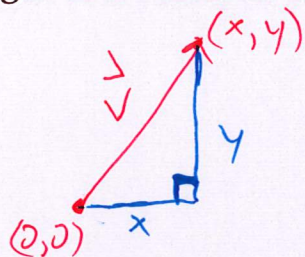
MATH 232 Section 1.2 pre-lecture comments

Today we are discussing the *geometry* of \mathbf{R}^n . How long is a vector? What is the angle between vectors? Can vectors in \mathbf{R}^4 have no direction in common? How do we break vectors down into simple directions when we have lots of dimensions?

New terminology:

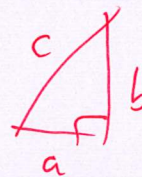
1. norm, magnitude
2. dot product
3. distance
4. unit vector
5. orthogonal
6. orthonormal

Length of a vector in \mathbb{R}^2



$$\vec{v} = (x, y)$$

$$\text{length of } \vec{v} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$



$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

Definition 1.2.1 Magnitude (or norm or length)

The norm of a vector $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ in \mathbb{R}^n is

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

Examples

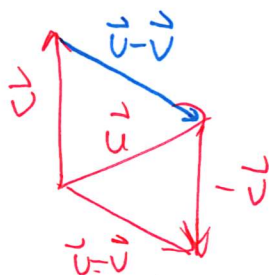
$$1. \mathbf{u} = (1, -1, -2), \|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2 + (-2)^2} = \sqrt{1+1+4} = \sqrt{6}$$

$$2. \mathbf{v} = (2, -1, -1), \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{4+1+1} = \sqrt{6}$$

$$3. \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| =$$

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = (-1, 0, -1)$$

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 0^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{1+0+1} = \sqrt{2}$$



$$\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2 + \dots + v_n^2} \leftarrow \text{Norm of } \vec{v} \text{ (length of } \vec{v}\text{)}$$

Theorem 1.2.2 Let \mathbf{v} be a vector in \mathbb{R}^n and k a scalar. Then

1. $\|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0$ \leftarrow length is always positive or 0 if $k > 0$: $\|k\vec{v}\| = k\|\vec{v}\|$
2. $\|k\mathbf{v}\| = |k|(\|\mathbf{v}\|)$ if $k < 0$: $\|k\vec{v}\| = -k\|\vec{v}\|$
3. $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{v} = \vec{0}$

\leftarrow only the $\vec{0}$ vector has a norm of 0

Definition 1.2.3 Distance between points $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ in \mathbb{R}^n , denoted by $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ is the norm of the vector $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}$:

$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \sqrt{(v_1 - u_1)^2 + (v_2 - u_2)^2 + \dots + (v_n - u_n)^2}$$

Example What is the distance from $A = (1, -2, 0, 3)$ to $B = (1, -1, 2, 1)$?

$$d(A, B) = \sqrt{(1-1)^2 + (-1-(-2))^2 + (2-0)^2 + (1-3)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{0^2 + 1^2 + 2^2 + (-2)^2} = \sqrt{9} = \boxed{3}$$

Theorem 1.2.4 Properties of distance.

1. $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \geq 0$ ← length is positive or 0
2. $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$
3. $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u})$

Problem In some cartographic system Vancouver has coordinates (31, 11) and Calgary (931, 211). Your friend is flying his plane with a range of 1100. Do you go with them? Why or why not?

maximum possible distance

$$\sqrt{(931-31)^2 + (211-11)^2} = \sqrt{900^2 + 200^2} = \sqrt{810000 + 40000}$$
$$\approx 921 \text{ (Yes)} \quad \approx 1100 \text{ Yes (just barely)}$$

less than 1100

Definition (p. 16) A **unit vector** is any vector \mathbf{v} with $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$. ex: (1, 0)

Problems What unit vector(s) is/are parallel to $\mathbf{u} = (1, -1)$?

$$\|\vec{u}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\vec{u}) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \quad \text{Norm: } \frac{\|\vec{u}\|}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}} = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-\vec{u}) = \left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

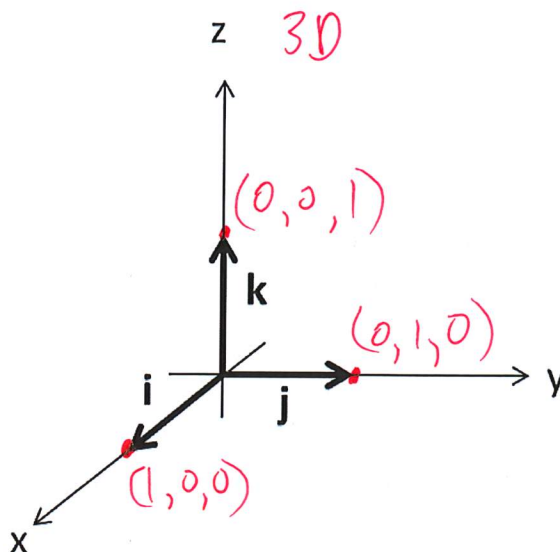
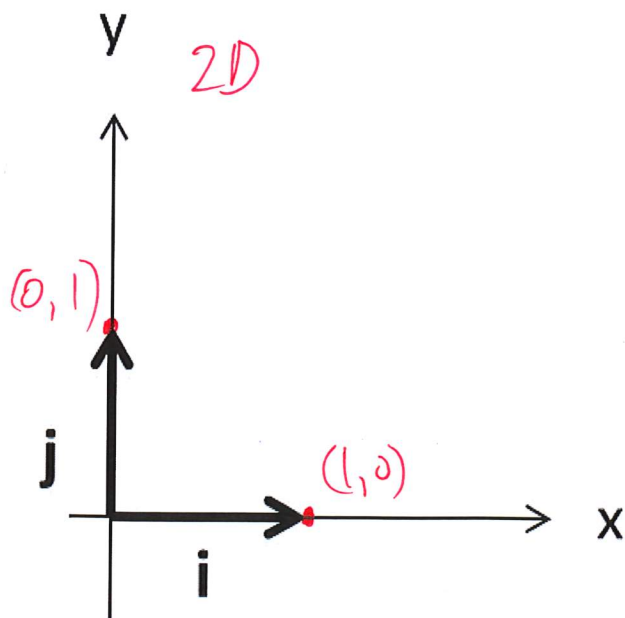
same direction ← unit vectors
opposite direction

Give a unit vector parallel to nonzero \mathbf{v} .

$$\vec{v}$$

unit vector in same direction: $\frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$

The standard unit vectors in \mathbf{R}^2 and \mathbf{R}^3 .



In coordinates we have:

\mathbf{R}^2

$$\mathbf{i} = (1, 0)$$

$$\mathbf{j} = (0, 1)$$

\mathbf{R}^3

$$\mathbf{i} = (1, 0, 0)$$

$$\mathbf{j} = (0, 1, 0)$$

$$\mathbf{k} = (0, 0, 1)$$

Standard unit vectors in \mathbf{R}^n (p. 17) In n -space the unit vectors are

$$\vec{\mathbf{e}}_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0), \vec{\mathbf{e}}_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0) \quad \dots \quad \vec{\mathbf{e}}_n = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$$

Problem Write $\mathbf{v} = (1, -\pi, 0, \sqrt{2})$ as a linear combination of unit vectors.

$$\vec{\mathbf{v}} = (1, 0, 0, 0) + (0, -\pi, 0, 0) + (0, 0, 0, \sqrt{2})$$

$$= \vec{\mathbf{e}}_1 + -\pi \vec{\mathbf{e}}_2 + \sqrt{2} \vec{\mathbf{e}}_4$$

Every vector in \mathbf{R}^n can be written as a linear combination of standard unit vectors.

Definition 1.2.5 The dot product of vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n is the scalar

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

Examples Given $\mathbf{u} = (1, -1, 1, 2)$, $\mathbf{v} = (0, -1, 2, 1)$ and $\mathbf{w} = (1, 1, 2, 1)$ find:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 1(0) + (-1)(-1) + 1(2) + 2(1) = 5$$

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 1(1) + (-1)(1) + 1(2) + 2(1) = 4$$

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} =$$

Theorem 1.2.6 Algebraic properties

1. $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$

2. (a) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ and (b) $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$

3. $k(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (k\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot (k\mathbf{v})$

4. $\mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$

5. $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$

Calculate For vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n calculate:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \begin{matrix} \mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \\ u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 \end{matrix}$$

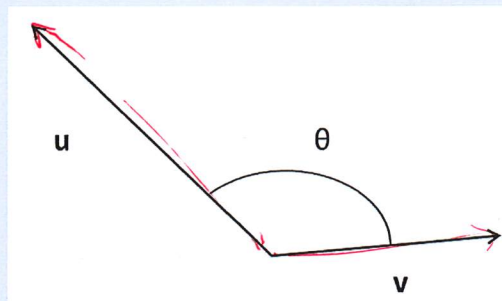
$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 =$$

$$(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + (\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} - \vec{v})$$

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

Definition

The **angle** between two non-zero vectors is the smallest non-negative angle needed to rotate one vector to other.



Theorem 1.2.8 Given non-zero vectors u and v in \mathbb{R}^n :

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

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

$$|\cos \theta| \leq 1 \rightarrow |\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}| \leq \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|$$

There are two important inequalities involving the dot product.

Theorem 1.2.12 The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^2 \leq \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \quad \text{or} \quad |\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

This gives an upper bound on how big $|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}|$ can be without computing the dot product.

Theorem 1.2.11 The triangle inequality

Given non-zero vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

What does this mean in words? A picture in \mathbb{R}^2 ?



$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \leq \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$$

Theorem 1.2.8 Given non-zero vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n :
(again)

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

What is the dot product of two perpendicular vectors?

$$\theta = 90^\circ$$

$$0 = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|} \rightarrow \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

Definition 1.2.9 Orthogonal

- ▶ Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n are orthogonal if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.
- ▶ A ~~non-empty~~ set of vectors is an orthogonal set if each pair of distinct vectors in the set is *orthogonal*. two or more
- ▶ A vector \mathbf{u} is **orthogonal to the set** S of vectors if it is *orthogonal* to every vector in S .

Examples $(1, 0)$, $(0, 1)$ are orthogonal $(1, 0) \cdot (0, 1) = 0$

$(1, 2)$, $(-2, 1)$ are orthogonal $(1, 2) \cdot (-2, 1) = 1(-2) + 2(1) = 0$

$\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$ is an orthogonal set: $\begin{cases} (1, 0, 0) \cdot (0, 1, 0) = 0 \\ (1, 0, 0) \cdot (0, 0, 1) = 0 \\ (0, 1, 0) \cdot (0, 0, 1) = 0 \end{cases}$

Pythagorean theorem for vectors

If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are *orthogonal* vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 &= (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} + 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} \\ &= \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

(Note: $2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$ because orthogonal)

Definition 1.2.10 Orthonormal vectors/sets

- ▶ Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n are orthonormal if they are *orthogonal* and have norm 1. $\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$
- ▶ A non-empty set of vectors is an **orthonormal set** if it is *orthogonal* and each vector in the set has norm 1.

Examples $(1,0), (0,1)$ are orthonormal since $(1,0) \cdot (0,1) = 0$
and $\|(1,0)\| = 1 \quad \|(0,1)\| = 1$
 $(1,2), (-2,1)$ are not orthonormal: $(1,2)$ is not a unit vector
 ~~$(1,2)$ and $(-2,1)$ are not unit vectors~~

$\{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1)\}$ is an orthonormal set

Standard unit vectors $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$ form an orthonormal set