# Math 2060 Class notes Spring 2021

Peter Westerbaan

Last updated: January 4, 2021

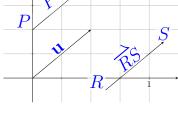
# **Table Of Contents**

13.1: Vectors and the Geometry of Space	1
13.2: Vectors in Three Dimensions	6
13.3: Dot Products	12

# 13.1: Vectors and the Geometry of Space

#### Definition.

- Vectors
  - Have a direction and magnitude,
  - vector  $\overrightarrow{PQ}$  has a tail at P and a head at Q,
  - Can be denoted as  $\mathbf{u}$  or  $\vec{u}$ ,
  - Equal vectors have the same direction and magnitude (not necessarily the same position)



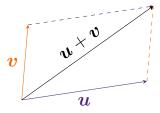
- Scalars are quantities with magnitude but no direction (e.g. mass, temperature, price, time, etc.)
- **Zero vector**, denoted **0** or  $\vec{0}$ , has length 0 and no direction

#### Scalar-vector multiplication:

- Denoted  $c\mathbf{v}$  or  $c\vec{v}$ ,
- length of vector multiplied by |c|,
- $c\mathbf{v}$  has the same direction as  $\mathbf{v}$  if c > 0, and has the opposite direction as  $\mathbf{v}$  if c < 0, (what if c = 0?)
- $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are **parallel** if  $\mathbf{u} = c\mathbf{v}$ . (what vectors are parallel to  $\mathbf{0}$ ?)

#### **Vector Addition and Subtraction:**

Given two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , their sum,  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ , can be represented by the parallelogram (triangle) rule: place the tail of  $\mathbf{v}$  at the head of  $\mathbf{u}$ 

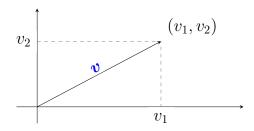


The difference, denoted  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ , is the sum of  $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{v})$ :



### **Vector Components:**

A vector  $\mathbf{v}$  whose tail is at the origin (0,0) and head is at  $(v_1, v_2)$  is a **position vector** (in **standard position**) and is denoted  $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ . The real numbers  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are the x-and y-components of  $\mathbf{v}$ .



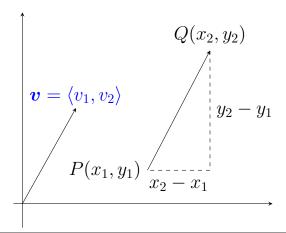
Vectors  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$  are equal if and only if  $u_1 = v_1$  and  $u_2 = v_2$ .

#### Magnitude:

Given points  $P(x_1, y_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2)$ , the **magnitude**, or **length**, of vector  $\overrightarrow{PQ} = \langle x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1 \rangle$ , denoted  $|\overrightarrow{PQ}|$ , is the distance between points P and Q.

$$|\overrightarrow{PQ}| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

The magnitude of position vector  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$  is  $|\mathbf{v}|$ . (How do  $|\overrightarrow{PQ}|$  and  $|\overrightarrow{QP}|$  relate to each other?)



Note: The norm, denoted  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$  or  $\|\mathbf{u}\|_2$ , is equivalent to the magnitude of a vector.

### Equation of a Circle:

#### Definition.

A **circle** centered at (a, b) with radius r is the set of points satisfying the equation

$$(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 = r^2.$$

A disk centered at (a, b) with radius r is the set of points satisfying the inequality

$$(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 \le r^2$$
.

# Vector Operations in Terms of Components

# Definition. (Vector Operations in $\mathbb{R}^2$ )

Suppose c is a scalar,  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ .

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \langle u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2 \rangle$$

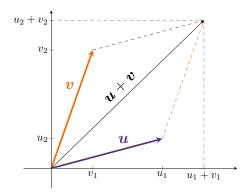
Vector addition

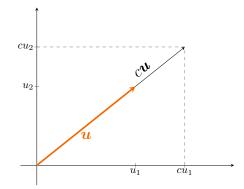
$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \langle u_1 - v_1, u_2 - v_2 \rangle$$

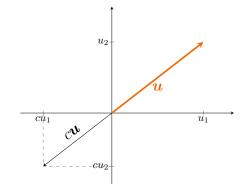
Vector subtraction

$$c\mathbf{u} = \langle cu_1, cu_2 \rangle$$

Scalar multiplication







#### Definition.

A unit vector is any vector with length 1.

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , the **coordinate unit vectors** are  $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$ .

#### Properties of Vector Operations:

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  are vectors and a and c are scalars. Then the following properties hold (for vectors in any number of dimensions).

1. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$ Commuta	ative pro	perty of	addition
--	-----------	----------	----------

2. 
$$(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$$
 Associative property of addition

3. 
$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$$
 Additive identity

4. 
$$\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$
 Additive inverse

5. 
$$c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$$
 Distributive property 1

6. 
$$(a+c)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + c\mathbf{v}$$
 Distributive property 2

7. 
$$0\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$$
 Multiplication by zero scalar

8. 
$$c\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$$
 Multiplication by zero vector

9. 
$$1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$$
 Multiplicative identity

10. 
$$a(c\mathbf{v}) = (ac)\mathbf{v}$$
 Associative property of scalar multiplication

### **Applications of Vectors:**

Spring 2021

#### 13.2: Vectors in Three Dimensions

### The xyz- Coordinate System:

The three-dimensional coordinate system is created by adding the z-axis, which is perpendicular to both the x-axis and the y-axis. When looking at the xy-plane, the positive direction of the z-axis protrudes towards the viewer. This can also be shown using the right-hand rule (Figure 13.25 from Briggs):



#### Definition.

This three-dimensional coordinate system is broken up into eight **octants**, which are separated by

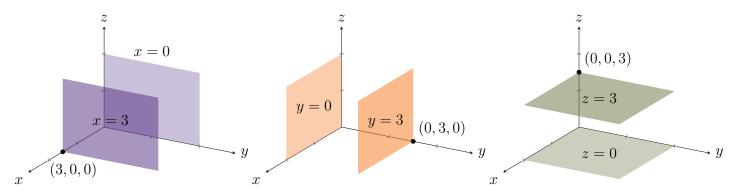
- the xy-plane (z = 0),
- the xz-plane (y = 0), and
- the yz-plane (x = 0).

The **origin** is the location where all three axes intersect.

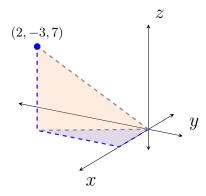


## **Equations of Simple Planes:**

Planes in three-dimensions are analogous to lines in two-dimensions. Below, we see the yz-plane, the xz-plane, and the xy-plane, along with planes that are parallel where x, y, and z are fixed respectively:



**Example** (Parallel planes). Determine the equation of the plane parallel to the xz-plane passing through the point (2, -3, 7).

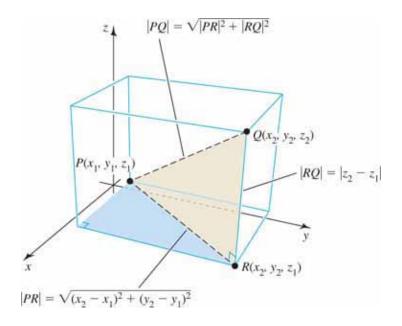


### Distances in xyz-Space:

Recall that in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , for some vector  $\overrightarrow{PR}$ , the distance formula is given by

$$|PR| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 - (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

where  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  represent the points P and R respectively. This idea can be further extended into  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by considering the two sides of the triangle formed by the points  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ :



### Distance Formula in xyz-Space

The **distance** between points  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$  is

$$\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$$

The **midpoint** between points  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$  is found by averaging the x-, y-, and z-coordinates:

Midpoint 
$$= \left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}, \frac{z_1 + z_2}{2}\right)$$

#### Equation of a Sphere:

#### Definition.

A **sphere** centered at (a, b, c) with radius r is the set of points satisfying the equation

$$(x-a)^{2} + (y-b)^{2} + (z-c)^{2} = r^{2}.$$

A ball centered at (a, b, c) with radius r is the set of points satisfying the inequality

$$(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 + (z-c)^2 \le r^2.$$

**Example.** Rewrite the following equation into the standard form of a sphere:

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 2x + 6y - 8z = -1$$

### **Vector Operations in Terms of Components**

# Definition. (Vector Operations in $\mathbb{R}^3$ )

Suppose c is a scalar,  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$ .

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \langle u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, u_3 + v_3 \rangle$$

Vector addition

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \langle u_1 - v_1, u_2 - v_2, u_3 - v_3 \rangle$$

Vector subtraction

$$c\mathbf{u} = \langle cu_1, cu_2, cu_3 \rangle$$

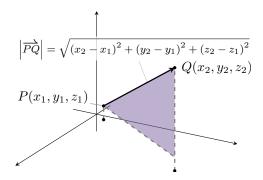
Scalar multiplication

### Magnitude and Unit Vectors:

#### Definition.

The **magnitude** (or **length**) of the vector  $\overrightarrow{PQ} = \langle x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, z_2 - z_1 \rangle$  is the distance from  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  to  $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ :

$$|\overrightarrow{PQ}| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$$



In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the **coordinate unit vectors** are  $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle$ ,  $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle$ , and  $\mathbf{k} = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle$ .

### Properties of Vector Operations:

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  are vectors and a and c are scalars. Then the following properties hold (for vectors in any number of dimensions).

1. 
$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$$
 Commutative property of addition

2. 
$$(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$$
 Associative property of addition

3. 
$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$$
 Additive identity

4. 
$$\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$
 Additive inverse

5. 
$$c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$$
 Distributive property 1

6. 
$$(a+c)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + c\mathbf{v}$$
 Distributive property 2

7. 
$$0\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$$
 Multiplication by zero scalar

8. 
$$c\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$$
 Multiplication by zero vector

9. 
$$1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$$
 Multiplicative identity

10. 
$$a(c\mathbf{v}) = (ac)\mathbf{v}$$
 Associative property of scalar multiplication

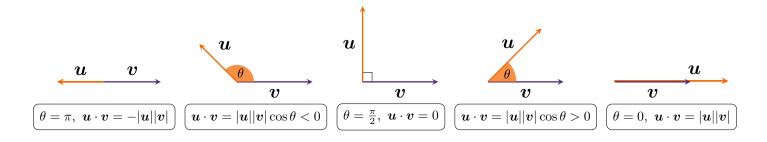
#### 13.3: Dot Products

#### Definition. (Dot Product)

Given two nonzero vectors **u** and **v** in two or three dimensions, their **dot product** is

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

where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  with  $0 \le \theta \le \pi$ . If  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ , and  $\theta$  is undefined.



A physical example of the dot product is the amount of work done when a force is applied at an angle  $\theta$  as shown in figure 13.43:



*Note*: The result of the dot product is a scalar!

# Definition. (Orthogonal Vectors)

Two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are **orthogonal** if and only if  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ . The zero vector is orthogonal to all vectors. In two or three dimensions, two nonzero orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other.

- **u** and **v** are parallel  $(\theta = 0 \text{ or } \theta = \pi)$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \pm |\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}|$ .
- **u** and **v** are perpendicular  $(\theta = \frac{\pi}{2})$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ .

#### Theorem 31.1: Dot Product

Given two vectors  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$ ,

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + u_3 v_3.$$

# **Properties of Dot Products**

# Theorem 13.2: Properties of the Dot Product

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  are vectors and let c be a scalar.

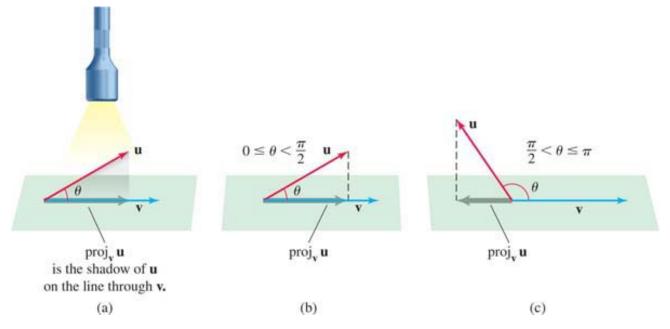
1. 
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$$
 Commutative property

2. 
$$c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot (c\mathbf{v})$$
 Associative property

3. 
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$$
 Distributive property

#### **Orthogonal Projections**

Given vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , the projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  onto  $\mathbf{v}$  produces a vector parallel to  $\mathbf{v}$  using the "shadow" of  $\mathbf{u}$  cast onto  $\mathbf{v}$ .



Definition. ((Orthogonal) Projection of u onto v) The orthogonal projection of u onto v, denoted  $\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u}$ , where  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , is

$$\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u} = \underbrace{|\mathbf{u}| \cos \theta}_{\text{length}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}\right)}_{\text{direction}}.$$

The orthogonal projection may also be computed with the formulas

$$\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u} = \operatorname{scal}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u} \left( \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} \right) = \left( \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} \right) \mathbf{v},$$

where the scalar component of u in the direction of v is

$$\operatorname{scal}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u} = |\mathbf{u}| \cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}.$$

# **Applications of Dot Products**

# Definition. (Work)

Let a constant force  $\mathbf{F}$  be applied to an object, producing a displacement  $\mathbf{d}$ . If the angle between  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{d}$  is  $\theta$ , then the **work** done by the force is

$$W = |\mathbf{F}||\mathbf{d}|\cos\theta = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{d}$$

#### Example.

#### Parallel and Normal Forces:

### Example.

