

MATH 311-504

Topics in Applied Mathematics

**Lecture 1:**  
**Vectors. Dot product.**

## Vectors

**Vector** is a mathematical concept characterized by its *magnitude* and *direction*.

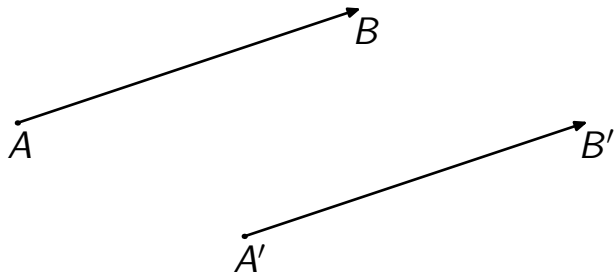
**Scalar** is a mathematical concept characterized by its *magnitude* and, possibly, *sign*.

Scalar is a real number (positive or negative).

Many physical quantities are vectors:

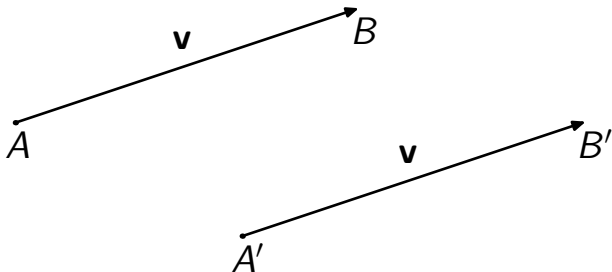
- force;
- displacement, velocity, acceleration;
- electric field, magnetic field.

## Vectors: geometric approach



- A vector is represented by a directed segment.
- Directed segment is drawn as an arrow.
- Different arrows represent the same vector if they are of the same length and direction.

## Vectors: geometric approach

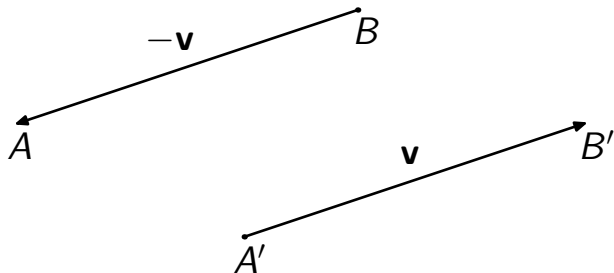


*Notation:*  $\mathbf{v}$  or  $\vec{v}$ .

$\overrightarrow{AB}$  denotes the vector represented by the arrow with tip at  $B$  and tail at  $A$ .

$\overrightarrow{AA}$  is called the *zero vector* and denoted  $\mathbf{0}$  or  $\vec{0}$ .

## Vectors: geometric approach

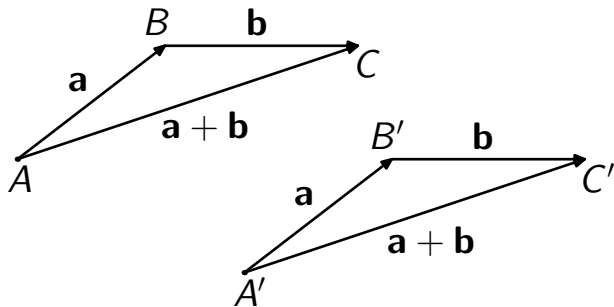


If  $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{AB}$  then  $\overrightarrow{BA}$  is called the *inverse vector* of  $\mathbf{v}$  and denoted  $-\mathbf{v}$ .

## Vector addition

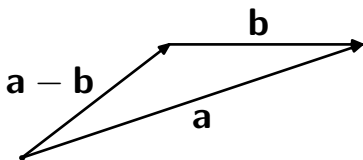
Given vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , their *sum*  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$  is defined by the rule  $\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC} = \overrightarrow{AC}$ .

That is, choose points  $A, B, C$  so that  $\overrightarrow{AB} = \mathbf{a}$  and  $\overrightarrow{BC} = \mathbf{b}$ . Then  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{AC}$ .



## Vector subtraction

The *difference* of the two vectors is defined as  
 $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{b})$ .



*Properties of vector addition:*

$$(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) \quad (\text{associative law})$$

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \quad (\text{commutative law})$$

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$\mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{a}) = (-\mathbf{a}) + \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$$

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Let  $\overrightarrow{AB} = \mathbf{a}$ . Then  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BB} = \overrightarrow{AB} = \mathbf{a}$ ,

$$\mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{a}) = \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BA} = \overrightarrow{AA} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Let  $\overrightarrow{AB} = \mathbf{a}$ ,  $\overrightarrow{BC} = \mathbf{b}$ , and  $\overrightarrow{CD} = \mathbf{c}$ . Then

$$(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c} = (\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC}) + \overrightarrow{CD} = \overrightarrow{AC} + \overrightarrow{CD} = \overrightarrow{AD},$$

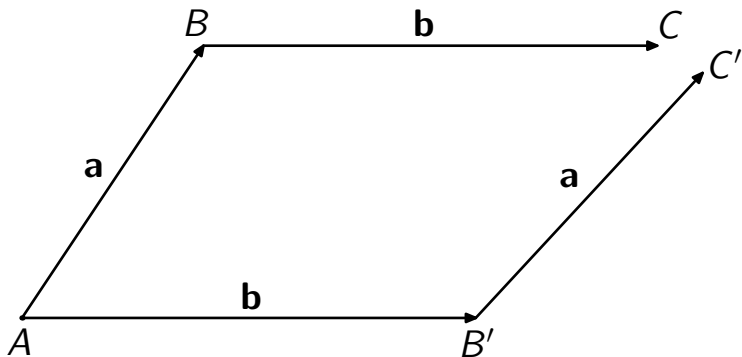
$$\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \overrightarrow{AB} + (\overrightarrow{BC} + \overrightarrow{CD}) = \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BD} = \overrightarrow{AD}.$$



## Parallelogram rule

Let  $\overrightarrow{AB} = \mathbf{a}$ ,  $\overrightarrow{BC} = \mathbf{b}$ ,  $\overrightarrow{AB'} = \mathbf{b}$ , and  $\overrightarrow{B'C'} = \mathbf{a}$ .

Then  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{AC}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{AC'}$ .

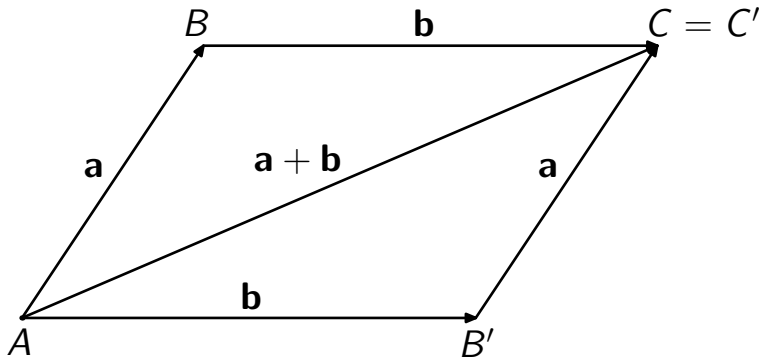


*Wrong picture!*

## Parallelogram rule

Let  $\vec{AB} = \mathbf{a}$ ,  $\vec{BC} = \mathbf{b}$ ,  $\vec{AB'} = \mathbf{b}$ , and  $\vec{B'C'} = \mathbf{a}$ .

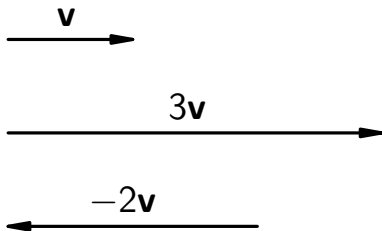
Then  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \vec{AC}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} = \vec{AC'}$ .



*Right picture!*

## Scalar multiplication

Let  $\mathbf{v}$  be a vector and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . By definition,  $r\mathbf{v}$  is a vector whose magnitude is  $|r|$  times the magnitude of  $\mathbf{v}$ . The direction of  $r\mathbf{v}$  coincides with that of  $\mathbf{v}$  if  $r > 0$ . If  $r < 0$  then the directions of  $r\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are opposite.



*Properties of scalar multiplication:*

$$r(\mathbf{sa}) = (rs)\mathbf{a} \quad (\text{associative law})$$

$$r(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = r\mathbf{a} + r\mathbf{b} \quad (\text{distributive law \#1})$$

$$(r + s)\mathbf{a} = r\mathbf{a} + s\mathbf{a} \quad (\text{distributive law \#2})$$

$$1\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$(-1)\mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{a}$$

$$0\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$$

## Length of a vector

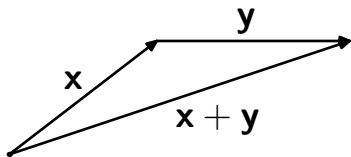
The **length** (or the **magnitude**) of a vector  $\overrightarrow{AB}$  is the length of the representing segment  $AB$ . The length of a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  is denoted  $|\mathbf{v}|$ .

*Properties of vector length:*

$$|\mathbf{x}| \geq 0, \quad |\mathbf{x}| = 0 \text{ only if } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \quad (\text{positivity})$$

$$|r\mathbf{x}| = |r| |\mathbf{x}| \quad (\text{homogeneity})$$

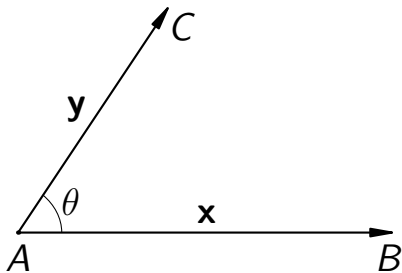
$$|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}| \leq |\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{y}| \quad (\text{triangle inequality})$$

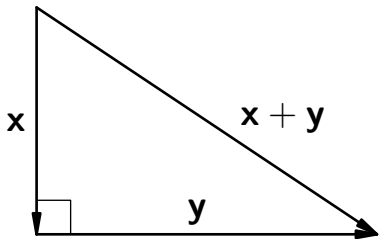


## Angle between vectors

Given nonzero vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , let  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  be points such that  $\overrightarrow{AB} = \mathbf{x}$  and  $\overrightarrow{AC} = \mathbf{y}$ . Then  $\angle BAC$  is called the **angle** between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

The vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are called **orthogonal** (denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ ) if the angle between them equals  $90^\circ$ .





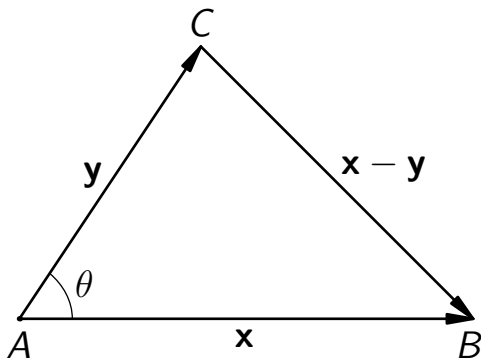
*Pythagorean Theorem:*

$$\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y} \implies |\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|^2 = |\mathbf{x}|^2 + |\mathbf{y}|^2$$

*3-dimensional Pythagorean Theorem:*

If vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}$  are pairwise orthogonal then

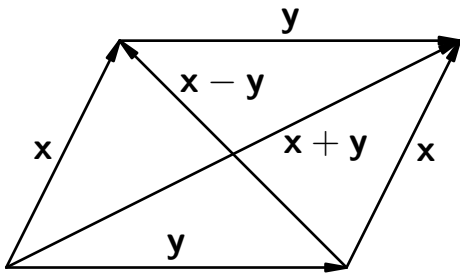
$$|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z}|^2 = |\mathbf{x}|^2 + |\mathbf{y}|^2 + |\mathbf{z}|^2$$



*Law of cosines:*

$$|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 = |\mathbf{x}|^2 + |\mathbf{y}|^2 - 2|\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}| \cos \theta$$





*Parallelogram Identity:*

$$|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|^2 + |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 = 2|\mathbf{x}|^2 + 2|\mathbf{y}|^2$$

## Dot product

The **dot product** of vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  is

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}| \cos \theta,$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

The dot product is also called the **scalar product**.

Alternative notation:  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  or  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ .

The vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are orthogonal if and only if

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0.$$

*Relations between lengths and dot products:*

- $|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$
- $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \leq |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}|$
- $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 = |\mathbf{x}|^2 + |\mathbf{y}|^2 - 2 \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$

## Vectors: algebraic approach

An  $n$ -dimensional vector is an element of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e., an ordered  $n$ -tuple  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  of real numbers. Components of the vector are called *coordinates*.

Let  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$  be vectors, and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  be a scalar. Then, by definition,

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n),$$

$$r\mathbf{a} = (ra_1, ra_2, \dots, ra_n),$$

$$\mathbf{0} = (0, 0, \dots, 0),$$

$$-\mathbf{b} = (-b_1, -b_2, \dots, -b_n),$$

$$\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{b}) = (a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2, \dots, a_n - b_n).$$

*Properties of vector addition and scalar multiplication:*

$$(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})$$

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$$

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$\mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{a}) = (-\mathbf{a}) + \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$r(sa) = (rs)a$$

$$r(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = r\mathbf{a} + r\mathbf{b}$$

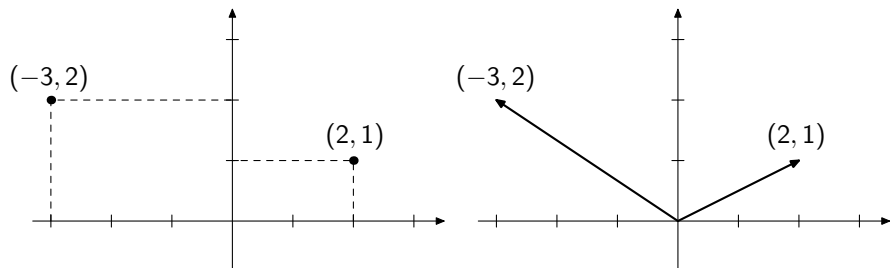
$$(r + s)\mathbf{a} = r\mathbf{a} + s\mathbf{a}$$

$$1\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$(-1)\mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{a}$$

$$0\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$$

## Cartesian coordinates: geometry meets algebra



Cartesian coordinates allow us to identify a line, a plane, and space with  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , respectively.

Once we specify the *origin*  $O$ , each point  $A$  is associated a *position vector*  $\overrightarrow{OA}$ . Conversely, every vector has a unique representative with tail at  $O$ .

## Standard basis

The *standard basis* in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of  $n$  vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, 0)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_n = (0, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$ .

If  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{e}_n.$$

We say that  $\mathbf{x}$  is a *linear combination* of vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ . The numbers  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are called *coordinates* of  $\mathbf{x}$ . The vectors  $x_1\mathbf{e}_1, x_2\mathbf{e}_2, \dots, x_n\mathbf{e}_n$  are called *components* of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , we have an alternative notation  $\mathbf{i} = (1, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{j} = (0, 1)$ . In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we have an alternative notation  $\mathbf{i} = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{j} = (0, 1, 0)$ , and  $\mathbf{k} = (0, 0, 1)$ .

## Length and distance

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

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

The **distance** between vectors (or points)  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  is  $|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|$ .

*Properties of length:*

$$|\mathbf{x}| \geq 0, \quad |\mathbf{x}| = 0 \text{ only if } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \quad (\text{positivity})$$

$$|r\mathbf{x}| = |r| |\mathbf{x}| \quad (\text{homogeneity})$$

$$|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}| \leq |\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{y}| \quad (\text{triangle inequality})$$

## Dot product

*Definition.* The **dot product** of vectors  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  is

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n = \sum_{k=1}^n x_ky_k.$$

*Properties of dot product:*

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} \geq 0, \quad \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0 \text{ only if } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \quad (\text{positivity})$$

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{x} \quad (\text{symmetry})$$

$$(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{z} \quad (\text{distributive law})$$

$$(r\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{y} = r(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) \quad (\text{homogeneity})$$



*Relations between lengths and dot products:*

$$|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$$

$$|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \leq |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}| \quad (\text{Cauchy-Schwarz inequality})$$

$$|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 = |\mathbf{x}|^2 + |\mathbf{y}|^2 - 2 \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, for any nonzero vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}|} \quad \text{for some } 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi.$$

$\theta$  is called the **angle** between the vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

The vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are said to be **orthogonal** (denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ ) if  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$  (i.e., if  $\theta = 90^\circ$ ).