Chapter 2: Vector Geometry

Daniel Chan

UNSW

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In this chapter, we will answer the following geometric questions involving

"measurement" **eg** How far is the point $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ from the plane 2x - y + z = 3?

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Key To do so, we introduce two marvellous gadgets called the *dot* (*or scalar*) *product* and the *cross* (*or vector*) *product* of vectors.

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For $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we define the *dot* or *scalar product* of \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} to be

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$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|}\right) \quad \text{ so } \quad \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos\theta.$$

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Example. What is the angle between
$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

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To prove these, just write things out using the definition!

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We prove

Theorem (Cauchy-Schwarz)

 $-|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \le \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} \le |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|.$

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$$q(\lambda) = |\mathbf{a} - \lambda \mathbf{b}|^2 \ge 0.$$

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= $|\mathbf{a}|^2 - 2\lambda \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \lambda^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2$. (2)

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$$0 \geq (-2\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2 - 4|\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2 = 4(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2 - 4|\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2 \Longrightarrow (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2 \leq |\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2$$

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Theorem

$$|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}|^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2 - 2|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos\theta.$$

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Proof.

Since the cosine rule holds in space, this identifies the classical defn of angle for geom vectors & abstract defn via dot product.

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Application: Orthocentre

Question

Show that the altitudes of $\triangle ABC$ are concurrent.

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A Let P be the intersection of the altitudes through A and B. It suffices to show that PC is an altitude too.

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We may pick *C* to be the origin $O \& \text{let } \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{0}$ be the position vectors of P, A, B, C.

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Orthonormal sets of vectors

Definition

The vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ form an *orthogonal* set if they are mutually orthogonal. If furthermore, they all have length 1, we say they are *orthonormal* i.e.

$$\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = \delta_{ij} := \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0, & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

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E.g. Show
$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$
, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$ are o/n & express $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ as a linear combination of them

combination of them.

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We can prescribe a plane P by giving a point **a** on the plane, and its orientation which is usually done by giving 2 non-parallel vectors giving "directions". In \mathbb{R}^3 the orientation, can also be given by a *normal vector* **n**, i.e. so **n** is perpendicular to every vector parallel to the plane.

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The plane P is the set of all point \mathbf{x} such that

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) = 0. \qquad (\mathsf{PN})$$

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Point-normal forms for planes in \mathbb{R}^3

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These are called the *point-normal form* of the plane.

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Point-normal forms for planes in \mathbb{R}^3

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These are called the *point-normal form* of the plane. We can re-write (3) in Cartesian form

$$n_1x_1 + n_2x_2 + n_3x_3 = b$$

where *b* is the constant $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{a}$.

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(3)

Example: point-normal form

E.g. Find the Cartesian form for the plane in \mathbb{R}^3 with normal $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ passing

through
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\3 \end{pmatrix}$$
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Challenge Q What's the angle between P_1 and $P_2: x + y + z = 9$?

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For $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n - \mathbf{0}$, the projection of \mathbf{b} onto \mathbf{v} is

$$\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{b} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|^2}\right)\mathbf{v}.$$

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It's the unique vector of the form $\lambda \mathbf{v}$ such that $\mathbf{b} - \lambda \mathbf{v}$ is orthogonal to \mathbf{v} .

Proof. $0 = (\mathbf{b} - \lambda \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{v} - \lambda |\mathbf{v}|^2$ has unique soln

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Proposition

 $\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{b}$ is the unique point on the line $\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{v}, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, closest to \mathbf{b} .

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Proof. It's best to see this with a picture and use Pythagoras.

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Distance between a point and a line

E.g. Find the point on the line

$$\mathbf{x} = egin{pmatrix} 1 \ 2 \ 3 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda egin{pmatrix} 2 \ 1 \ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \lambda \in \mathbb{R},$$

closest to $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find this distance from \mathbf{b} to the line.

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E.g. Find the distance between the plane $P: x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$ and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

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E.g. Find the distance between the plane $P: x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$ and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

A If **c** gives the point on *P* which is closest to **b**, then our argument using Pythagoras thm says that we should have $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}$ is orthogonal to *P* i.e. $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}$ is parallel to

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Determinants

We will look at determinants more fully in chapter 5. Here's what we need for now. Below a_i, b_i, e_i are real (and later complex) scalars.

Definition

We define the 2×2 determinant by

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1.$$

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E.g. The 3×3 determinant is defined by

$$\begin{vmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} = e_1 \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} - e_2 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} + e_3 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

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Determinants satisfy many beautiful formulae such as Formula (row scaling) $\begin{vmatrix} \lambda a_1 & \lambda a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} =$

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Cross product

For $a,b \in \mathbb{R}^3$, the cross or vector product of a and b is the vector

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{1} & \mathbf{e}_{2} & \mathbf{e}_{3} \\ a_{1} & a_{2} & a_{3} \\ b_{1} & b_{2} & b_{3} \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= \mathbf{e}_{1} \begin{vmatrix} a_{2} & a_{3} \\ b_{2} & b_{3} \end{vmatrix} - \mathbf{e}_{2} \begin{vmatrix} a_{1} & a_{3} \\ b_{1} & b_{3} \end{vmatrix} + \mathbf{e}_{3} \begin{vmatrix} a_{1} & a_{2} \\ b_{1} & b_{2} \end{vmatrix}$$

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N.B. The second term is not really well-defined, but is a useful mnemonic. **E.g.** Find $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

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Proposition

For $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

 $a \times a = 0.$

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

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

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- $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$ so \times is not commutative!
- The cross product is NOT associative!

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The magnitude of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$

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The magnitude of $\mathbf{a}\times\mathbf{b}$

Theorem

Suppose $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ have angle θ between them. Then $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta$.

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Proof. Note $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ in \mathbb{R}^3 so sin $\theta \ge 0$ \therefore suff show

$$|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^2 - |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 \sin^2 \theta = 0 \quad \dots (*)$$

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Can assume $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$, so using defn of θ :

$$\sin^2 \theta = 1 - \cos^2 \left(\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|} \right) \right) = 1 - \left(\frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|} \right)^2$$

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and so

$$|\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 \sin^2 \theta = |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2.$$

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Now

$$LHS(*) = |\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^{2} - (|\mathbf{a}|^{2}|\mathbf{b}|^{2} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^{2}) = \\ \begin{vmatrix} a_{2} & a_{3} \\ b_{2} & b_{3} \end{vmatrix}^{2} + \begin{vmatrix} a_{1} & a_{3} \\ b_{1} & b_{3} \end{vmatrix}^{2} + \begin{vmatrix} a_{1} & a_{2} \\ b_{1} & b_{2} \end{vmatrix}^{2} - \sum_{i} a_{i}^{2} \sum_{i} b_{i}^{2} + (\sum_{i} a_{i}b_{i})^{2} = \end{vmatrix}$$

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The area of the parallelogram with sides \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} is $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$.

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Proof The area of the parallelogram is

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Proof The area of the parallelogram is

 $A = base \times perp height = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta$.

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A = base \times perp height = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta.
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Thm previous slide gives the result.

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Thm previous slide gives the result.

E.g. Find the area of the parallelogram with vertices at (1, 1), (4, 2), (2, 3) and (5, 4).
Let $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^3$.

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Let $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^3$.

Proposition-Definition

The scalar

$$\mathbf{e} \cdot \left(\mathbf{a} imes \mathbf{b}
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It is called the scalar triple product of $\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}$.

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Let $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^3$.

Proposition-Definition

The scalar

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$$\mathbf{e} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = e_1 c_1 + e_2 c_2 + e_3 c_3 = \begin{vmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

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Direction of ${\boldsymbol{a}} \times {\boldsymbol{b}}$

E.g.
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The vector $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$ is orthogonal to both \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

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The choice of which one is given by the *right hand rule*.

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Example. Find a point-normal, and hence a Cartesian form for the plane

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} -3\\1\\2 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\-2 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda_2 \begin{pmatrix} 4\\0\\3 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

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Daniel Chan (UNSW)

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Our argument via Pythagoras thm shows that the shortest line segment joining the two lines needs to be orthogonal to both the lines, that is orthogonal to the two direction vectors.

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Proposition

Let **n** be orthogonal to both lines. Then the shortest distance between the lines equals the length of the vector $\text{proj}_n(\mathbf{a}_1 - \mathbf{a}_2)$, where \mathbf{a}_j is any point on L_j .

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Example: distance between lines

Problem. What is the shortest distance between the two lines

$$L_1: \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\2 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 2\\2\\1 \end{pmatrix}, \ \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \qquad L_2: \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\-1\\1 \end{pmatrix} + \mu \begin{pmatrix} 4\\0\\3 \end{pmatrix}, \ \mu \in \mathbb{R}?$$

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A Here we can take $\mathbf{n} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\2\\1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 4\\0\\3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6\\-2\\-8 \end{pmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{a}_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\2 \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{a}_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\-1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$, so $\mathbf{a}_{1} - \mathbf{a}_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$.

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The shortest distance between the lines is

$$proj_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{a}_1 - \mathbf{a}_2)| = \left| \frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{a}_1 - \mathbf{a}_2)}{|\mathbf{n}|^2} \mathbf{n} \right|$$
$$= \left| \frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{a}_1 - \mathbf{a}_2)}{|\mathbf{n}|} \right|$$

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If the base of P is the parallelogram sides **b**, **c**, then the perpendicular height P is the length of the projection of **a** onto **n**. Hence

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Volume of
$$P$$
 = area base × perp. height
= $|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}| |\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{a}|$
= $|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}| \left| \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})}{|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}|} \right|$
= $|\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|$.

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Example: volume of parallelepiped

Example. Find the volume of a parallelepiped with vertices at

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2\\2\\1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 4\\0\\3 \end{pmatrix}$$
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