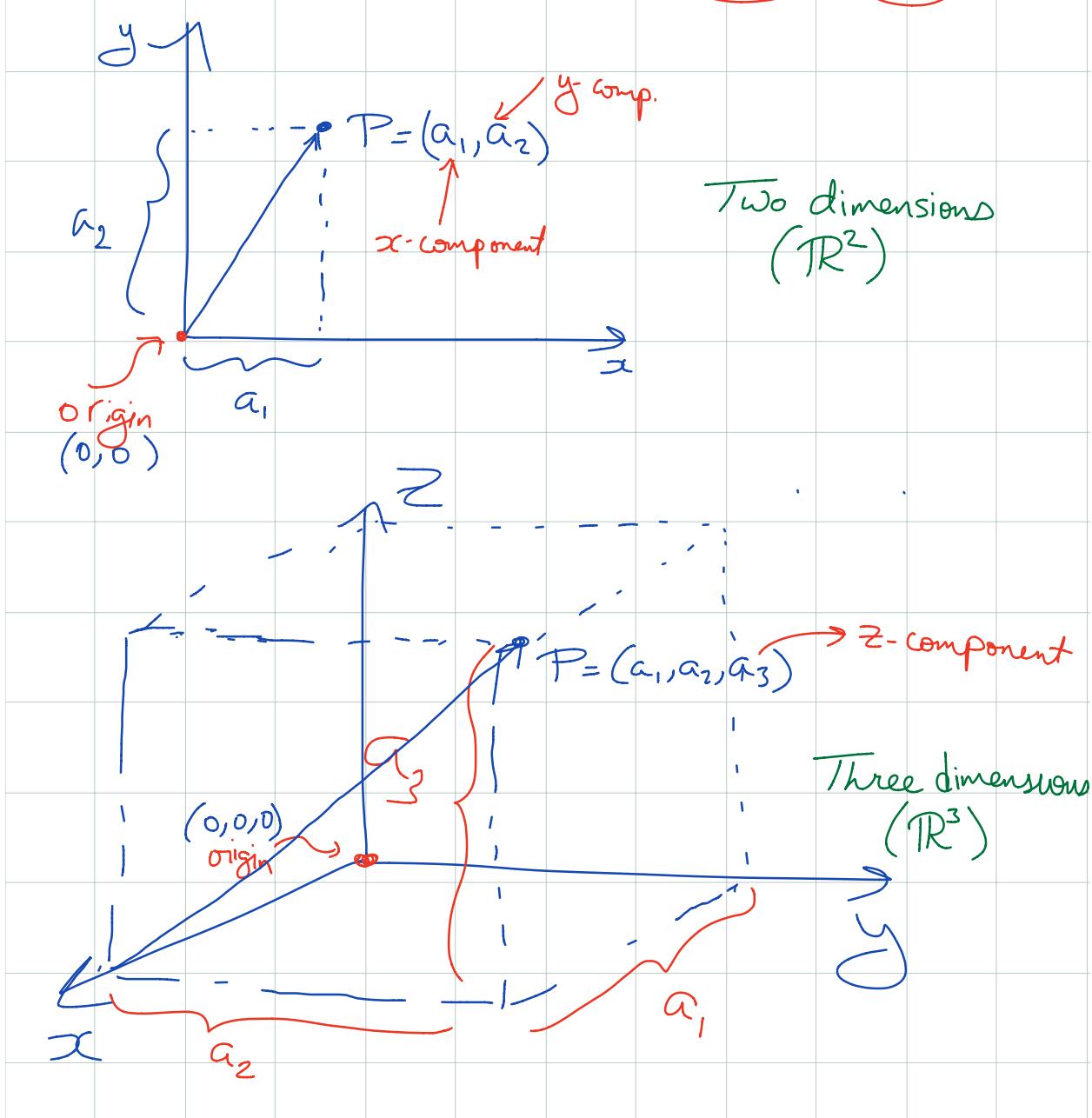


Lecture 1

- We have already learned about differentiation (computing rates of change, tangents to curves, velocities...) & Integration (areas under curves, ...) and the relationship between Integration & differentiation (Fundamental theorem of calculus).
- But we were working with Functions of one variable only!
- We live in a 3-dimensional world (4, if you count time) and many interesting functions depend not just on one variable but many.
- We would ultimately like to generalize differentiation & integration & understand

their relationship & their applications
 when we have many variables.

I-1 Vectors in 2 & 3 dimensional Space



Vector addition & Scalar Multiplication

Define : $(a, b, c) + (d, e, f) = (a+d, b+e, c+f)$

So $(1, 1, 2) + (-1, 7, \pi) = (0, 8, 2+\pi)$

• $(a_1, a_2, a_3) + \underbrace{(-a_1, -a_2, -a_3)}_{\text{negative of } (a_1, a_2, a_3)} = \underbrace{(0, 0, 0)}_{\text{Zero element or zero vector or zero}}$

negative
of (a_1, a_2, a_3)

Zero element
or zero vector
or zero

• Define : $\overbrace{\alpha}^{\text{Scalar}} \underbrace{(a, b, c)}_{\text{Vector}} = (\alpha a, \alpha b, \alpha c)$

So $2(1, -7, 5) = (2, -14, 10)$

Properties:

• $\alpha(0, 0, 0) = (0, 0, 0)$

• $0(a, b, c) = (0, 0, 0)$

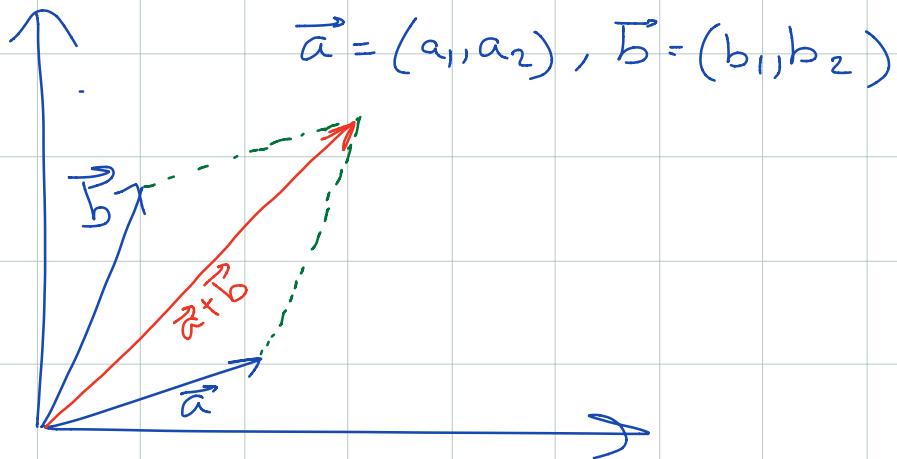
• $I(a, b, c) = (a, b, c)$

• $(\alpha\beta)(a, b, c) = \alpha(\beta(a, b, c)) \rightarrow \text{associativity}$

- $(\alpha + \beta)(a, b, c) = \alpha(a, b, c) + \beta(a, b, c)$ → distributivity
- $\alpha[(a_1, a_2, a_3) + (b_1, b_2, b_3)] = \alpha(a_1, a_2, a_3) + \alpha(b_1, b_2, b_3)$

(Proofs follow "easily" from the definitions)

Geometry of Vector Operations



Vectors: Directed line segments, with a beginning & end (\nearrow). Translating a vector gives you the same vector

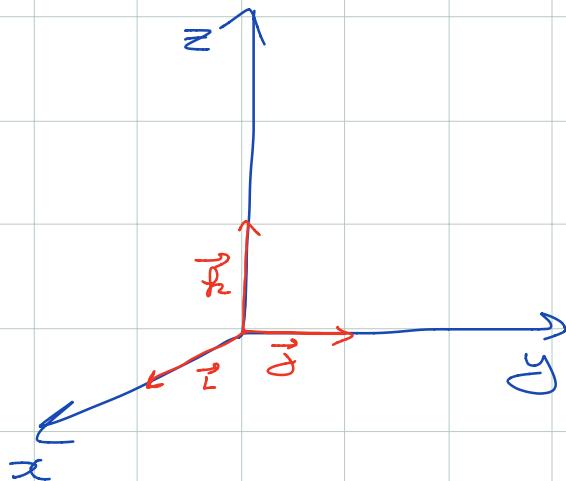
Standard Basis Vectors

It will be convenient to give names to the following vectors

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

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

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



$$\text{So: } (3, 4, 5) = 3(1, 0, 0) + 4(0, 1, 0) + 5(0, 0, 1) \\ = 3\vec{i} + 4\vec{j} + 5\vec{k}$$

In general $(a, b, c) = a\vec{i} + b\vec{j} + c\vec{k}$.

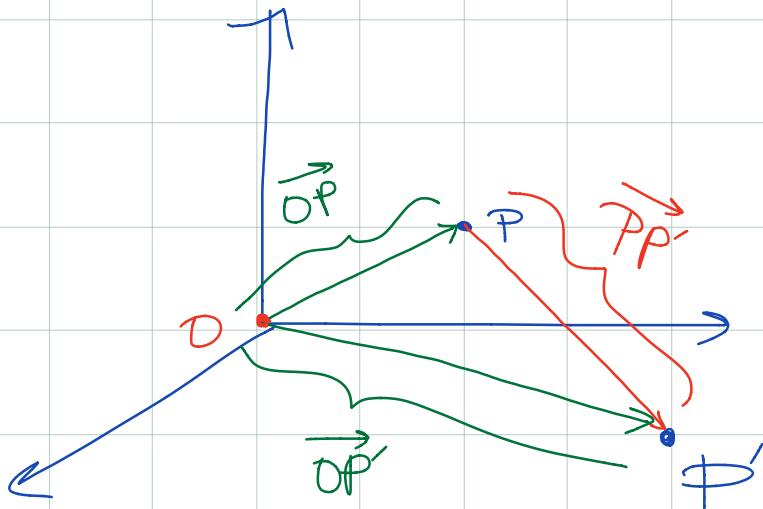
The vector joining 2 points

If the point P has coordinates (x, y, z)

and the point P' has coordinates (x', y', z')

Then the vector $\vec{PP'}$ has components

$$(x' - x, y' - y, z' - z)$$



$$\begin{aligned}\vec{PP'} &= \vec{OP'} - \vec{OP} \\ &= \vec{OP'} + \vec{PO}\end{aligned}$$

Example: add the vector from $(1, 1, 2)$ to $(2, 2, 3)$

\Rightarrow the vector from $(0, 0, 1)$ to $(-7, -5, -3)$

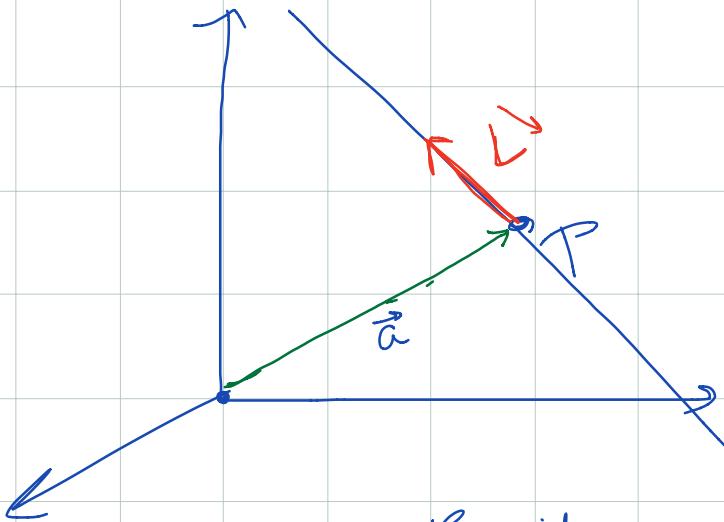
Solution: The first vector is $(2, 2, 3) - (1, 1, 2) = (1, 1, 1)$

The second vector is $(-7, -5, -3) - (0, 0, 1) = (-7, -5, -4)$

So their sum is $(1, 1, 1) + (-7, -5, -4) = (-6, -4, -3)$.
 $= -6\vec{i} - 4\vec{j} - 3\vec{k}$

Equations of lines:

- Equations of a line l passing through a point P with the direction of a vector \vec{v} .



the point

We can see that $\vec{a} + \vec{v}$ is on the line l

$\vec{a} + 2\vec{v}$ is also on the line

$\vec{a} - 0.5\vec{v}$ is also on l

In fact, any point on l is of the form $\vec{a} + t\vec{v}$ for some scalar t .

Point-Direction Form of a Line :

The equation of the line l passing through the tip of $\vec{a} = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ in the direction of $\vec{v} = (a, b, c)$

is

$$\ell(t) = \vec{a} + t\vec{v}$$

In coordinate form, the equations are

$$\begin{aligned}x &= x_1 + at \\y &= y_1 + bt \\z &= z_1 + ct\end{aligned}$$

Remark: When working in 2D we simply drop the z -coordinate.

Example: Find the equation of the line passing through the point $(1, 1, 2)$ in the direction $2\vec{i} - 3\vec{j} + 4\vec{k}$

Soln: $\ell(t) = \vec{a} + t\vec{v}$ where $\vec{a} = (1, 1, 2)$ & $\vec{v} = (2, -3, 4)$

$$\text{So } \begin{cases} x = 1 + 2t \\ y = 1 - 3t \\ z = 2 + 4t \end{cases}$$

Example: In what direction does the line

$$x = -3t + 2$$

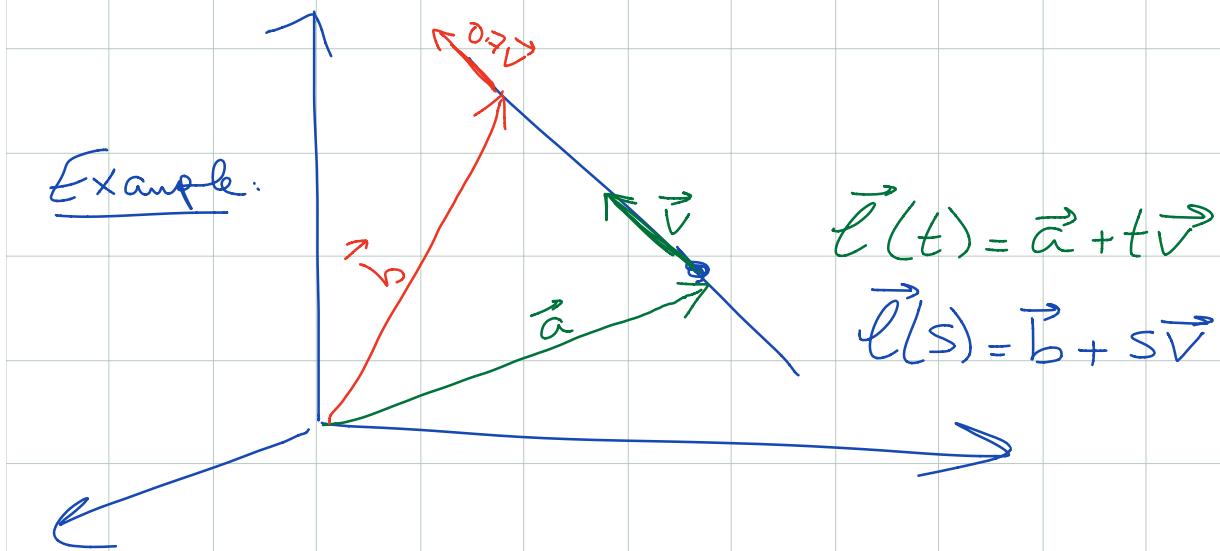
$$y = -2t + 2$$

$$z = 8t + 2$$

Point?

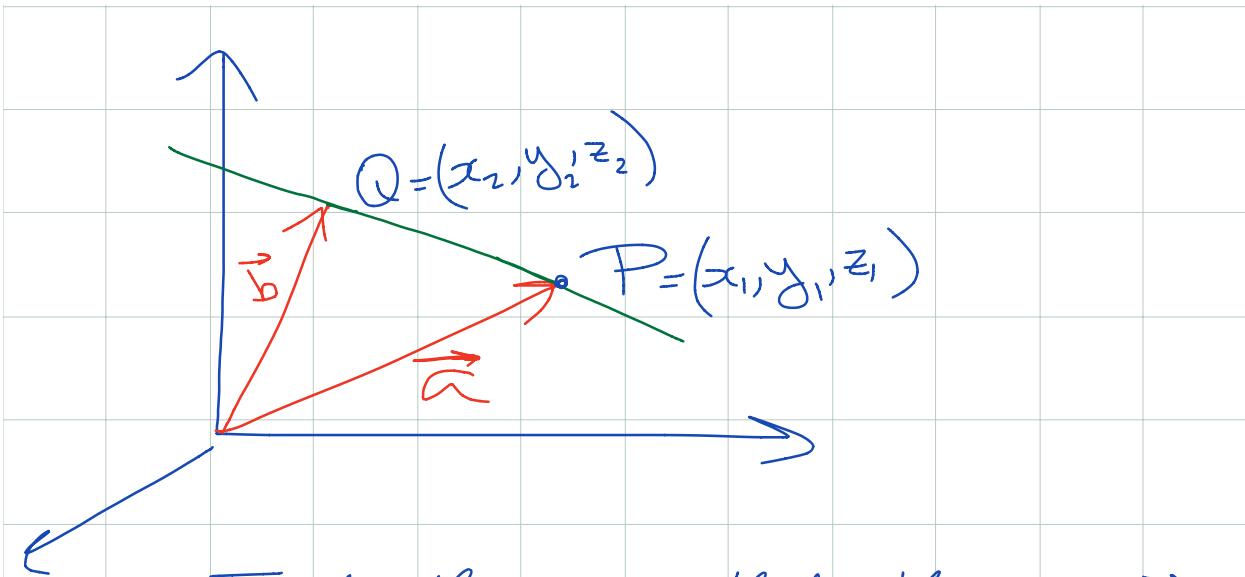
answer: It points in the direction of $\vec{v}(-3, -2, 8)$

Remark: Equation of a line is not unique



Point-point form of a line

Want an equation of a line passing through the endpoints of 2 vectors \vec{a} & \vec{b}



To do this, note that the vector $\vec{b} - \vec{a}$
is in the direction of the line

So $\vec{r}(t) = \vec{a} + (\vec{b} - \vec{a})t$ (1)

$$\vec{r}(t) = (1-t)\vec{a} + t\vec{b}$$

Rewriting (1) in coordinate form:

$$x = x_1 + (x_2 - x_1)t$$

$$y = y_1 + (y_2 - y_1)t$$

$$z = z_1 + (z_2 - z_1)t$$

Parametric
equation of a
line in
Point-Point
form

Remark: we can eliminate t to get

$$\frac{x-x_1}{x_2-x_1} = \frac{y-y_1}{y_2-y_1} = \frac{z-z_1}{z_2-z_1}$$

(provided the denominators are not zero)
)

Example: Find the equation of the
line passing through $(4, 5, 6)$ & $(2, 1, 2)$

Soln: $x = 4 + (2-4)t$

$$y = 5 + (1-5)t \quad \text{or } \vec{r}(t) = (4, 5, 6)$$

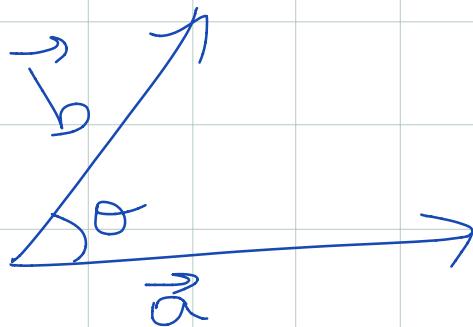
$$z = 6 + (2-6)t$$

$$+ t(-2, -4, -4)$$

1.2 The inner product, Length & Distance

Say, you have two vectors \vec{a} & \vec{b}

and you want to determine the angle
between them



Inner products will help us do this

Define the inner product of $\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$

& $\vec{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$ to be (the number)

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3$$

Sometimes we write $\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle$

Example: Find the inner product of

$$\vec{a} = 3\vec{i} + \vec{j} - 2\vec{k} \quad \& \quad \vec{b} = \vec{i} - \vec{j} + \vec{k}$$

Sol'n: $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 3 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot (-1) + (-2)(1) = 0$

Properties of Inner Products

Let $\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}$ be vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 & α, β be real numbers in \mathbb{R} . Then

(i) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} \geq 0$

& $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} = 0$ if and only
if $\vec{a} = 0$

(ii) $\alpha \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \alpha(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b})$

& $\vec{a} \cdot \alpha \vec{b} = \alpha(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b})$

$$(iii) \vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} + \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}$$

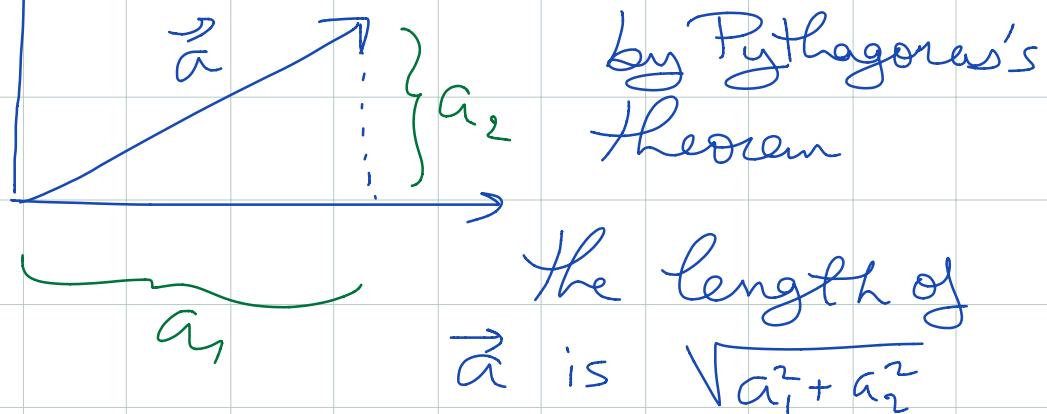
$$\& (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) \cdot \vec{c} = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c} + \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c}$$

$$(iv) \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}$$

Exercise: Try to prove these properties

The length/norm of a vector

Let $\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2)$



$$\text{But } \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} = a_1 \cdot a_1 + a_2 \cdot a_2 = a_1^2 + a_2^2$$

$$\text{So } \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} = (\text{length of } \vec{a})^2$$

$$\text{we write this as } \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} = \underbrace{\|\vec{a}\|^2}$$

→ norm of \vec{a}

In 3D, if $\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$

$$\|\vec{a}\|^2 = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} = a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 = (\text{length of } \vec{a})^2$$

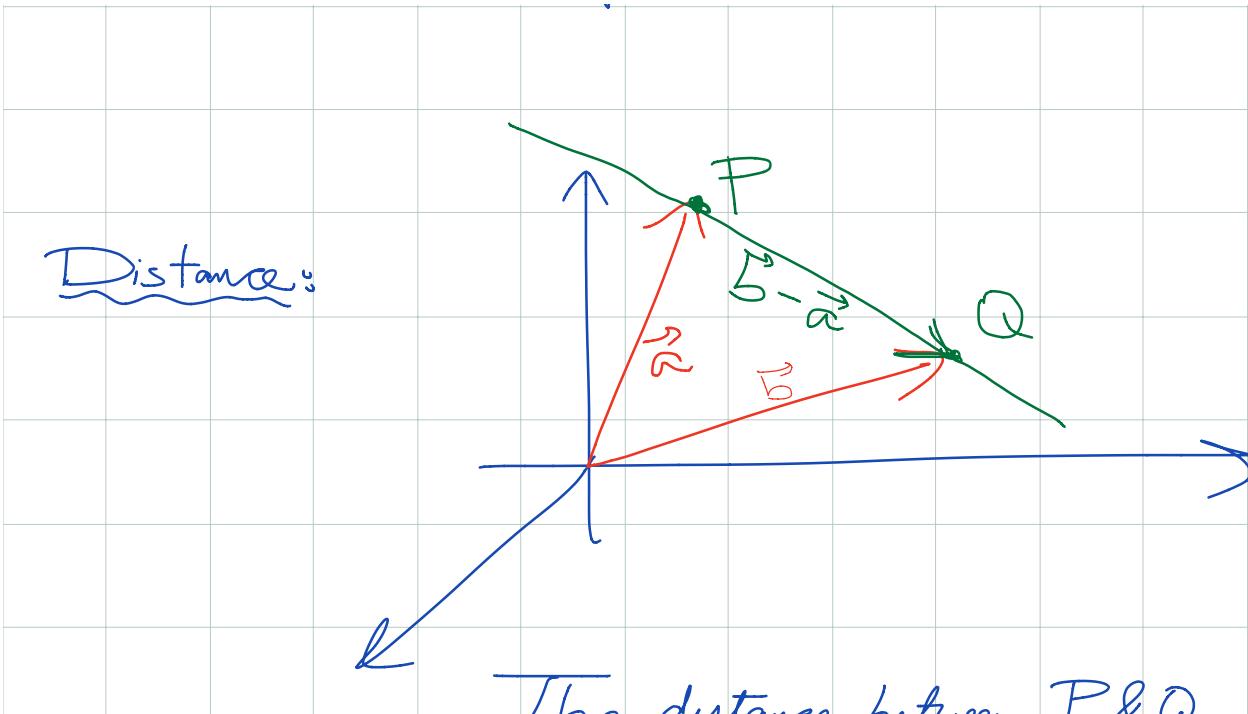
Unit Vectors : For any non-zero vector

$\frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$ is a unit vector (i.e. its length is 1)

Example: Normalize ^{= make it unit length} the vector

$$\vec{V} = 2\vec{i} + 3\vec{j} + 4\vec{k}$$

$$\text{Answer: } \vec{u} = \frac{\vec{V}}{\|\vec{V}\|} = \frac{2\vec{i} + 3\vec{j} + 4\vec{k}}{\sqrt{2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{29}}\vec{i} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{29}}\vec{j} + \frac{4}{\sqrt{29}}\vec{k}$$



The distance between $P & Q$

is $\|\vec{b} - \vec{a}\|$

Summary: Let $\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3) = a_1\vec{i} + a_2\vec{j} + a_3\vec{k}$

$$\vec{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3) = b_1\vec{i} + b_2\vec{j} + b_3\vec{k}$$

Then • $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3$

• $\|\vec{a}\| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2} = \sqrt{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}}$

• the vector $\frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$ is normalized

i.e., it has unit norm

• the distance between the endpoints of \vec{a} & \vec{b} is $\|\vec{b} - \vec{a}\|$

The angle between 2 vectors

Theorem: Let \vec{a} & \vec{b} be two vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 & let θ

where $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$, be the angle between them. Then

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta.$$

Exercise: Read the proof in the book

Example: Find the angle between the vectors

$$(1, 1, 2) \text{ & } (1, -1, 1)$$

Soln. $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta$

$$\Rightarrow \cos \theta = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{\|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\|} = \frac{1 \times 1 + 1 \times (-1) + 2 \times 1}{\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 2^2} \times \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{18}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3\sqrt{2}} \Rightarrow \theta = \arccos\left(\frac{2}{3\sqrt{2}}\right) = \cos^{-1}\theta.$$

(Cauchy-Schwarz)

Corollary: $|\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}| \leq \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\|$

with equality if & only if \vec{a} is a scalar multiple
of \vec{b} (or one of them is 0)

$$\text{Proof: } \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}| = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| |\cos \theta|$$

$$\leq \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| (\cos \theta \leq 1)$$

Moreover equality can only happen if $\vec{a} = 0, \vec{b} = 0$

or $\cos \theta = 0$ 

Remark: If \vec{a} & \vec{b} are nonzero, then

If $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0 \Rightarrow \cos \theta = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{a} \& \vec{b}$

are perpendicular

If $\vec{a} \& \vec{b}$ are perpendicular then $\cos \theta = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$$

Def'n: If $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$, we say they are orthogonal

Def'n: If $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$ & $\|\vec{a}\| = \|\vec{b}\| = 1$, we

say $\vec{a} \& \vec{b}$ are orthonormal

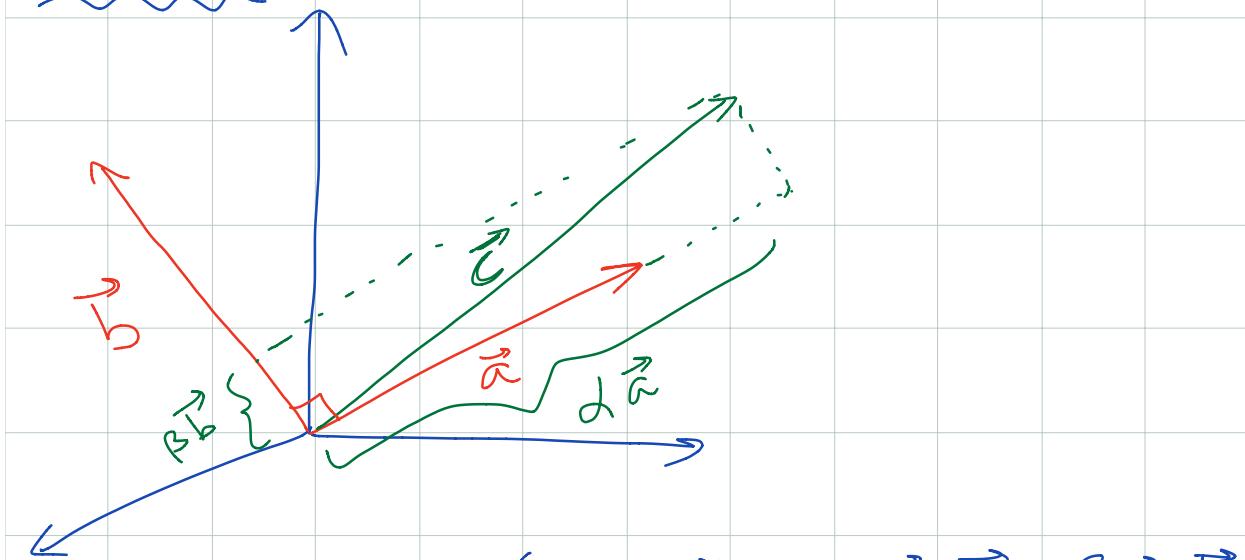
Example: Let \vec{a} & \vec{b} be two orthogonal

vectors. Let \vec{c} be a vector in the plane spanned by \vec{a} & \vec{b} . We can write

$$\vec{c} = \alpha \vec{a} + \beta \vec{b} \text{ for some scalars } \alpha \text{ & } \beta.$$

Use the inner product to determine α & β .

Solution:



$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c} = \vec{a} \cdot (\alpha \vec{a} + \beta \vec{b}) = \alpha \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} + \underbrace{\beta \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}_{=0}$$

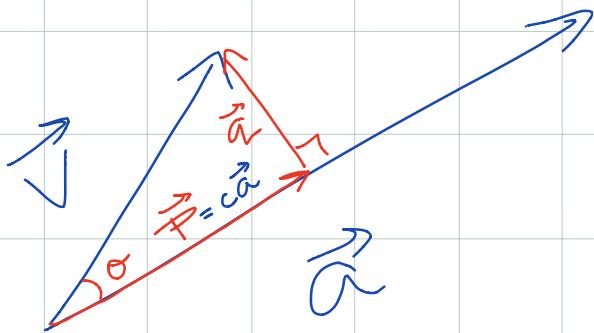
$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}}{\|\vec{a}\|^2}$$

Similarly

$$\beta = \frac{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{c}}{\|\vec{b}\|^2}$$

We call $\alpha \vec{a}$ the projection of \vec{c} along \vec{a}
& $\beta \vec{b}$ the projection of \vec{c} along \vec{b}

Orthogonal Projection



\vec{P} is the orthogonal projection of \vec{v} on \vec{a}

$$\vec{v} = c\vec{a} + \vec{q}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{a} \cdot \vec{v} = c \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} + \underbrace{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{q}}_0$$

$$\Rightarrow c = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{v}}{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{P} = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{a}\|^2} \vec{a}$$

\vec{P} is the orth. proj of
 \vec{v} on \vec{a}

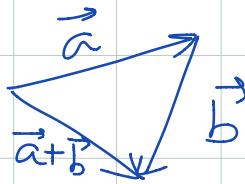
Example: The orthogonal proj. of $\vec{z} + \vec{y}$ on $\vec{z} - 2\vec{y}$

is

$$\vec{P} = \frac{(\vec{z} + \vec{y}) \cdot (\vec{z} - 2\vec{y})}{(\vec{z} - 2\vec{y}) \cdot (\vec{z} - 2\vec{y})} (\vec{z} - 2\vec{y}) = \frac{1-2}{1+4} \vec{z} - 2\vec{y} = -\frac{1}{5}(\vec{z} - 2\vec{y})$$

Triangle inequality

$$\|\vec{a} + \vec{b}\| \leq \|\vec{a}\| + \|\vec{b}\|$$



Proof: $\|\vec{a} + \vec{b}\|^2 = (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) \cdot (\vec{a} + \vec{b})$

$$= \|\vec{a}\|^2 + 2\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} + \|\vec{b}\|^2$$

$$\leq \|\vec{a}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{a}\|\|\vec{b}\| + \|\vec{b}\|^2$$

$$= (\|\vec{a}\| + \|\vec{b}\|)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\vec{a} + \vec{b}\| \leq \|\vec{a}\| + \|\vec{b}\|$$

