# 1 Definitions and Properties of Vectors

**Note 1.1** Everything is defined here in two dimensions, but the corresponding definitions in three dimensions are identical.

**Definition 1.2** A vector is a quantity with both length and direction, given by a tuple of real numbers (in this course, a pair or triple), except for the **0** vector which has zero length and no defined direction. Geometrically, a vector  $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$  is depicted as an arrow starting at a point and ending at another point that's  $x_1$  in the x-direction and  $x_2$  in the y-direction away from the starting point, and we draw the point of the arrow at that end point. The start is called the **tail** of the vector, and the point of the arrow is usually called the **head** of the vector. Per the book's notation, we'll denote vectors with boldface letters. A **scalar** is a number. **Scalar multiplication** is defined as follows: given a vector  $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$  and scalar c,  $c\mathbf{x} = \langle cx_1, cx_2 \rangle$ . We call  $c\mathbf{x}$  a **scalar multiple** of  $\mathbf{x}$ , and if two vectors are scalar multiples of each other, we call the vectors **parallel**.

**Definition 1.3** A vector whose tail is at the origin is called a **position vector**. We also say such a vector is in **standard position**.

**Definition 1.4** Given a vector  $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$  in 2 dimensional space (denoted  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ), its **magnitude** is defined as  $|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$ . Magnitude is similarly defined in 3D (denoted  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ). For such an  $\mathbf{x}$ , its corresponding unit vector is  $\mathbf{x}_u = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{x}|}\mathbf{x}$ .

**Procedure 1.5** Given vectors  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$ , their sum is defined as  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle$ and is interpreted geometrically as completing the triangle whose edges are  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , where the tail of  $\mathbf{b}$  is positioned at the head of  $\mathbf{a}$ , as depicted in the image below.



# 2 Basic Physical Applications

#### 2.1 Boats and rivers

Given a stream with velocity given by the vector  $\mathbf{w}$  and a boat moving in the water, if we denote by  $\mathbf{v}_w$  the velocity of the boat relative to the water and denote by  $\mathbf{v}_g$  the velocity of the boat relative to the shore, we relate these quantities by the equality

$$\mathbf{v}_g = \mathbf{v}_w + \mathbf{w}.$$

The typical convention is to use the compass directions as our coordinate plane (east as the positive x-direction, north as the positive y direction, etc.). Moreover, speed of a vector  $\mathbf{v} = \langle x, y \rangle$  is given by  $|\mathbf{v}|$  and direction of  $\mathbf{v}$  is given by the angle  $\theta_v$  determined by v with respect to the positive x-axis; this is computed as either  $\tan^{-1}(y/x)$  or  $\tan^{-1}(y/x) + 180^\circ$ , depending on the direction of  $\mathbf{v}$ .

#### 2.2 Force Vectors

Suppose a force **F** is applied to an object (the book uses the example of a child pulling a wagon at a diagonal) with magnitude  $|\mathbf{F}|$  and direction  $\theta$  relative to the positive x-axis. Then, **F** is given by  $\mathbf{F} = \langle |\mathbf{F}| \cos(\theta), |\mathbf{F}| \sin(\theta) \rangle$ . If a combination of forces  $\mathbf{F}_1, ..., \mathbf{F}_n$  are applied to an object so that the object doesn't move, i.e.  $\mathbf{F}_1 + \cdots + \mathbf{F}_n = \mathbf{0}$ , then we say the object is at **equilibrium**.

#### 2.3 Flight in crosswinds

We abide by the usual convention for the compass in the xy-plane and abide by the convention that the positive z direction is positive altitude. Suppose a plane is flying with velocity in calm air given by  $\mathbf{v}_a$  and

velocity relative to the ground given by  $\mathbf{v}_g$ . Furthermore, suppose that a crosswind is given by the vector  $\mathbf{w}$  and downdraft is given by the vector  $\mathbf{d}$ . Then, these quantities are related by the equality

$$\mathbf{v}_g = \mathbf{v}_a + \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{d}$$

## 3 Particulars to 3D

Note 3.1 We will adopt the convention of using the right-handed coordinate system: the positive z direction is up, the positive y direction is to the right on the page, and the positive x direction is pointing out from the page.



Distance in 3D space is defined just as in 2D space but with the square of the difference in z coordinates included in the sum.

**Definition 3.2** A sphere of radius r centered at a point (a, b, c) is the set of all points (x, y, z) that are distance r away from (a, b, c), i.e. the points (x, y, z) satisfying  $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2 = r^2$ . An open ball of radius r centered at a point (a, b, c) is the set of all points (x, y, z) that are of distance strictly less than r away from (a, b, c), i.e. the points (x, y, z) satisfying  $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2 < r^2$ . A closed ball of radius r centered at a point (a, b, c) is the set of all points (x, y, z) that are of distance at most r away from (a, b, c), i.e. the points (x, y, z) satisfying  $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2 < r^2$ . A closed ball of radius r centered at a point (a, b, c) is the set of all points (x, y, z) that are of distance at most r away from (a, b, c), i.e. the points (x, y, z) satisfying  $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2 \le r^2$ . In this chapter, we just call a closed ball a ball.

## 4 The Dot Product

**Definition 4.1** Given two vectors  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$ , their **dot product** is  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3$ . Note that this is ALWAYS a scalar; we'll later learn about cross-products, and those are always vectors.  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are **orthogonal** or **normal** (meaning perpendicular to each other) if  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ .

**Fact 4.2** Given two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , the angle  $\theta$  between them is given by

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

**Definition 4.3** Given two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  onto  $\mathbf{v}$ , denoted  $proj_{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{u}$ , is given by the vector

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

and it always has length

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

where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ . We call  $\operatorname{scal}_{v}\mathbf{u}$  the scalar component of u in the direction of v. proj<sub>v</sub> $\mathbf{u}$  is the vector in the direction of  $\mathbf{v}$  that one adds to a vector perpendicular to  $\mathbf{v}$  to get the vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .

### 4.1 Physical Applications of the Dot Product

**Definition 4.4** If a force  $\mathbf{F}$  (in Newtons) is applied to an object and produces a displacement  $\mathbf{d}$  (in meters), then the work done by the force is  $W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{d}$  (in Joules).

**Definition 4.5** Suppose an object rests on an inclined plane of angle  $\theta$  from the *x* direction and **F** is the force of gravity (acting straight down) on the object. Then, if the vector **v** is in the direction of the plane and **n** is in the direction perpendicular to the plane (we call this a **normal vector**), then  $\mathbf{p} = \text{proj}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{F}$  is **parallel component** of **F** and  $\mathbf{N} = \text{proj}_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{F}$  is the **normal component** of **F**. Note that  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{N}$ .