

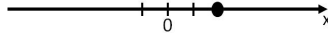
Vectors in Euclidean Space

Linear Algebra

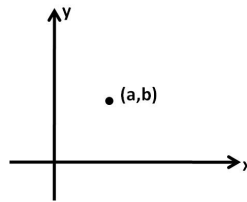
MATH 2010

- **Euclidean Spaces:** First, we will look at what is meant by the different Euclidean Spaces.

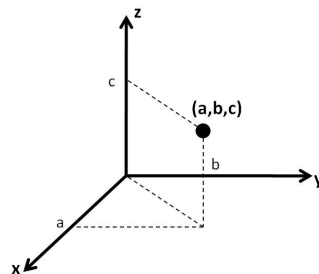
- Euclidean 1-space \mathfrak{R}^1 : The set of all real numbers, i.e., the real line. For example, 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, -2.45 are all elements of \mathfrak{R}^1 .



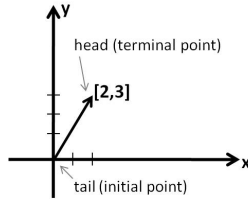
- Euclidean 2-space \mathfrak{R}^2 : The collection of ordered pairs of real numbers, (x_1, x_2) , is denoted \mathfrak{R}^2 . Euclidean 2-space is also called *the plane*. For example, $(0, -1)$ and $(5, \frac{1}{2})$ are elements of \mathfrak{R}^2 .



- Euclidean 3-space \mathfrak{R}^3 : The collection of all ordered triplets, (x_1, x_2, x_3) , of real numbers is denoted \mathfrak{R}^3 . Euclidean 3-space is also called *space*. For example, $(-1, 2, 4)$ is in \mathfrak{R}^3 .



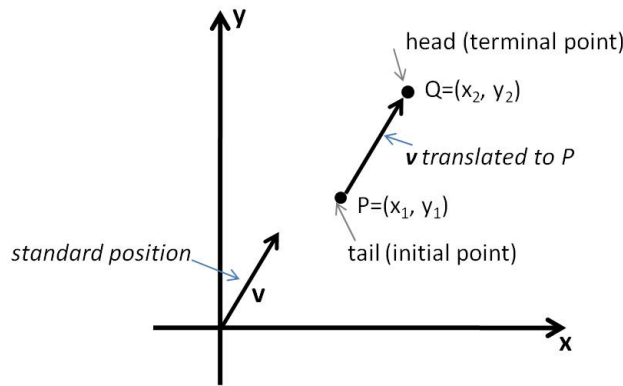
- Although it is harder to visualize, we can extend the notation above, to the set of all ordered n -tuples, (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) . This space is called Euclidean n -space and is denoted \mathfrak{R}^n .
- **Introduction to Vectors:** Vectors are used in many disciplines such as physics and engineering. Let's first consider vectors in \mathfrak{R}^2 .
 - **Definition:** Vectors are *directed* line segments that have both a magnitude and a direction.
 - * The length of the vector denotes the *magnitude*. For example in Physics, the length of the vector will denote the amount of force on an object.
 - * The *direction* of the vector is denoted by the arrow at the terminal point. In Physics, the arrow will denote the direction of the force.
 - * Below is the vector pointing to the point $(2,3)$.



- **Position:** Typically the tail of the vector is at the origin, as in the figure above. This is called *standard position*. However, sometimes, the vector has a tail not at the origin. For example, consider the vector $\mathbf{v} = \vec{PQ}$ where P is the point (x_1, y_1) , and Q is the point (x_2, y_2) in \mathfrak{R}^2 . The figure shows the vector \mathbf{v} in its *standard position* as well as \mathbf{v} translated to P . The standard position of \mathbf{v} is represented by

$$\mathbf{v} = [x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1]$$

the coordinates are given by the head point (Q) minus the tail point (P).



- **Terminology:**

- * If $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$, then x_i is called the i^{th} component of \mathbf{x} relative to the coordinate system.
- * $\mathbf{0} = [0, 0, \dots, 0]$ is called the *zero vector*.
- * Two vectors $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$ and $\mathbf{w} = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m]$ are *equal* if $n = m$ (same length) and $v_i = w_i$ for all i (all components are equal).
- **Notation:** A point in \mathfrak{R}^n is denoted by the ordered pair (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) ; however, depending on the context, this notation can also be used to represent a vector. For example $(2, 3)$ is a point in \mathfrak{R}^2 or a vector in \mathfrak{R}^2 depending on the context. The different notations for vectors are as follows

- * (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) is the comma-delimited form of a vector
- * $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ is the bracketed comma-delimited form of vector. For example, $[2, 3]$.
- * A bold letter: $\mathbf{v} = [x_1, x_2]$ represents a vector.
- * A letter with an arrow over top: \vec{v} also represents a vector.
- * A vector can also be considered a row-matrix:

$$[x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \dots \quad x_n]$$

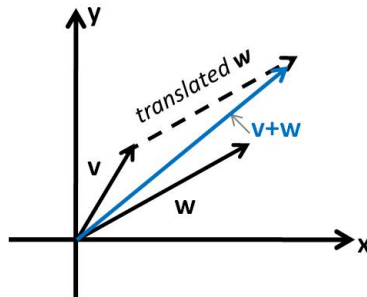
- * A vector can also be written as a column matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

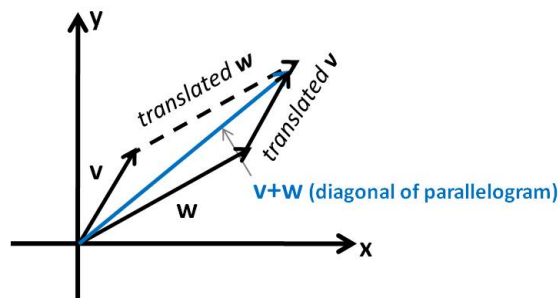
- Manipulation of Vectors

- **Addition of vectors:** Consider two vectors \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} . We want to find $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$.

- * **Geometrically** (see the figure below), we can translate \mathbf{w} to the head of \mathbf{v} , denoted as *translated \mathbf{w}* . Then the resulting vector found with tail at the origin and head at the terminal point of *translated \mathbf{w}* is $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$.



Alternatively, you can also view the sum of \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} as the diagonal of the parallelogram found by translating both \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} as shown in the figure below.

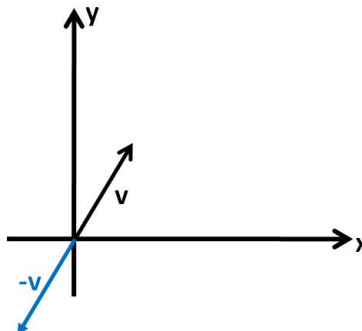


- * **Numerically** you just add the components of the vectors. If $\mathbf{u} = [1, 2]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [3, -4]$, then

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = [1 + 3, 2 + (-4)] = [4, -2].$$

- * **Zero vector addition:** $\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$.

- **Negative of \mathbf{v} :** The negative of \mathbf{v} is denoted $-\mathbf{v}$ and is a vector of the same length as \mathbf{v} in the opposite direction of \mathbf{v} .



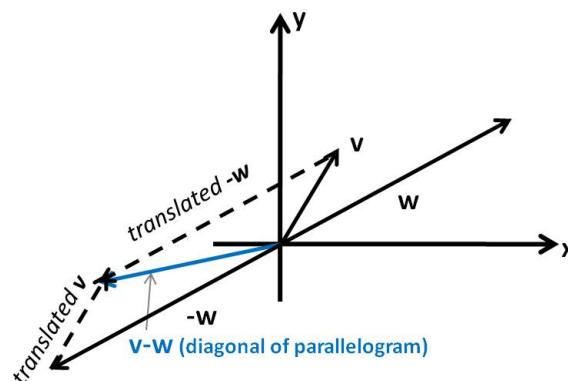
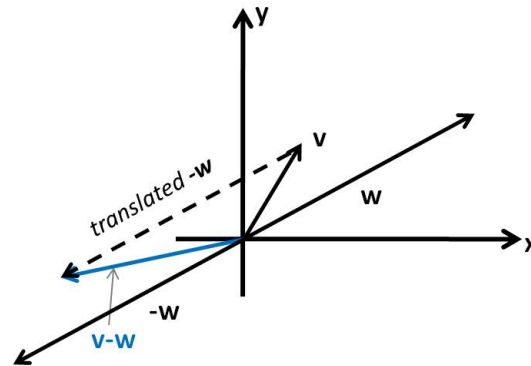
If $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$, then $-\mathbf{v} = [-v_1, -v_2, \dots, -v_n]$, and

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

Example: If $\mathbf{v} = [3, 2, -1]$, then $-\mathbf{v}$ is given as $-\mathbf{v} = [-3, -2, 1]$.

– **Subtraction of Vectors:**

- * **Geometrically**, there are a couple of different ways to think about $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}$. We can first find $-\mathbf{w}$, and then look at the addition of \mathbf{v} and $-\mathbf{w}$ as we did above, either using the just translated vector of $-\mathbf{w}$ or the parallelogram formed by \mathbf{v} and $-\mathbf{w}$ (see below)



Alternatively, you can also view the $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}$ as the *off-diagonal* of the original parallelogram formed by \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} . This gives the vector $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}$ in a translated position where we can simply find the standard position by placing the initial point at the origin.

- * **Numerically** you just subtract the components of the vectors. If $\mathbf{u} = [1, 3, -4]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [2, 0, -1]$, then

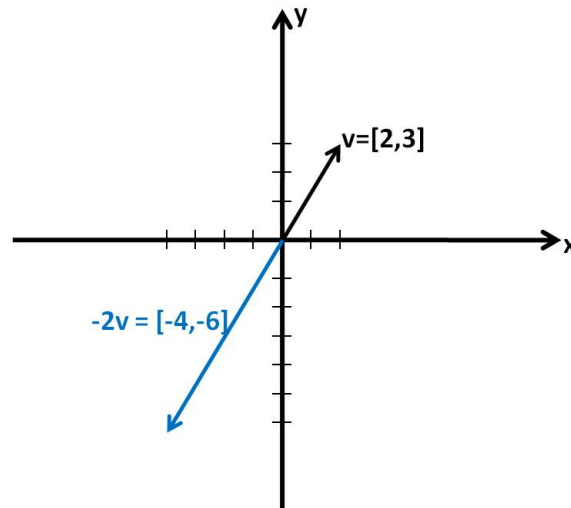
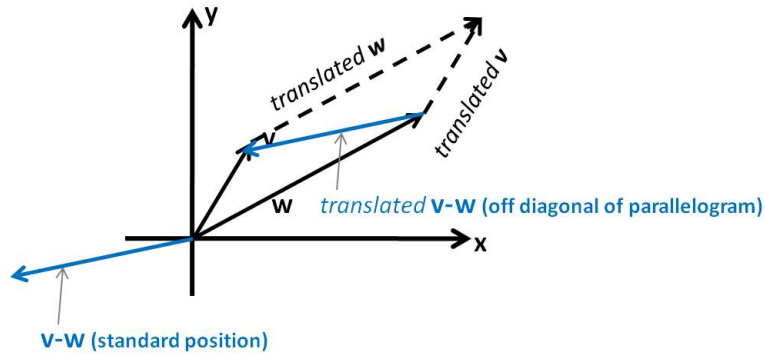
$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = [1 - 2, 3 - 0, -4 - (-1)] = [-1, 3, -3].$$

– **Parallel Vectors:**

- * Two vectors \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} are *parallel* if one vector is a scalar multiple of the other, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{v} = k\mathbf{w}$$

- If $k > 0$, then the vectors are in the same direction.
- If $k < 0$, then the vectors are in opposite directions.
- If $0 < |k| < 1$, the length (force) is decreased.



· If $|k| > 1$, the length (force) is increased

* The notation is: $\mathbf{v} \parallel \mathbf{w}$.

* An example is shown for $\mathbf{v} = [2, 3]$

– Sample Problems

1. Given $\mathbf{u} = [-2, 3, 1]$ and $\mathbf{w} = [-3, -2, -1]$, find $\frac{1}{2}(3\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w})$. Ans: $[-\frac{9}{2}, \frac{7}{2}, 1]$

2. Find all scalars c , if any exist, such that $[c^2, -4] \parallel [1, -2]$. Ans: $c = \pm\sqrt{2}$.

- **Properties of Vector Algebra in \mathfrak{R}^n :** Let \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} be any vectors in \mathfrak{R}^n and let r and s be any scalars in \mathfrak{R} .

– Properties of Vector Addition

A1) $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$ Associative Law

A2) $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v}$ Commutative Law

A3) $\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ Additive Identity of $\mathbf{0}$

A4) $\mathbf{v} + -\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ Additive Inverse of \mathbf{v}

– Properties Involving Scalar Multiplication

S1) $r(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = r\mathbf{v} + r\mathbf{w}$ Distributive Law

S2) $(r + s)\mathbf{v} = r\mathbf{v} + s\mathbf{v}$ Distributive Law

S3) $r(s\mathbf{v}) = (rs)\mathbf{v}$ Associative Law

S4) $1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ Preservation of Scale

– **Additional Properties**

1. $0\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$
2. $r\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$
3. $(-1)\mathbf{u} = -\mathbf{u}$

- **Norm of a vector** The *length* of a vector, also called the *norm* of a vector is denoted $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ and given by

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

– *Example:* Let $\mathbf{x} = [2, 3, 1, 0]$, then

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + 3^2 + 1^2 + 0^2} = \sqrt{4 + 9 + 1} = \sqrt{14}$$

– *Properties of norm* If \mathbf{x} is a vector in \mathfrak{R}^n , and if r is any scalar, then

1. $\|\mathbf{x}\| \geq 0$
2. $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
3. $\|r\mathbf{x}\| = |r|\|\mathbf{x}\|$

- **Unit vector:** A vector with length 1 is called a *unit vector*. If \mathbf{x} is any vector in \mathfrak{R}^n , then

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}\mathbf{x}$$

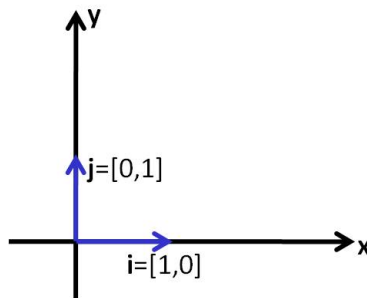
is a unit vector in the direction of \mathbf{x}

For example, for the vector above, $\mathbf{x} = [2, 3, 1, 0]$, we found that $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{14}$. Therefore, the vector

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}[2, 3, 1, 0] = \left[\frac{2}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}, 0 \right] = \left[\frac{2\sqrt{14}}{14}, \frac{3\sqrt{14}}{14}, \frac{\sqrt{14}}{14}, 0 \right]$$

is a unit vector in the direction of \mathbf{x}

- **Standard unit vectors:** The standard unit vectors are the vectors of length 1 along the coordinate axis. The picture below shows the standard unit vectors in \mathfrak{R}^2 .



– *Standard unit vectors in \mathfrak{R}^2 :* The standard unit vectors in \mathfrak{R}^2 are given by

$$\hat{i} = [1, 0] \quad \hat{j} = [0, 1]$$

– *Standard unit vectors in \mathfrak{R}^3 :* The standard unit vectors in \mathfrak{R}^3 are given by

$$\hat{i} = [1, 0, 0] \quad \hat{j} = [0, 1, 0] \quad \hat{k} = [0, 0, 1]$$

– *Standard unit vectors in \mathfrak{R}^n :* In general, the standard unit vectors in \mathfrak{R}^n are given by

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = [1, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 0] \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = [0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, 0] \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{e}_n = [0, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 1]$$

where \mathbf{e}_i has a 1 in the i^{th} components and all the other components are 0.

– Every vector in \mathfrak{R}^n can be written a a linear combination of the standard unit vectors

$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] = x_1[1, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 0] + x_2[0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, 0] + \dots + x_n[0, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 1] = x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{e}_n$$

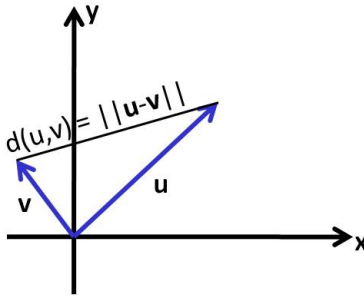
– *Examples:*

$$1. \mathbf{x} = -1[1, 0, 0, 0] + 3[0, 1, 0, 0] + 4[0, 0, 1, 0] - 2[0, 0, 0, 1] = -1\mathbf{e}_1 + 3\mathbf{e}_2 + 4\mathbf{e}_3 - 2\mathbf{e}_4$$

$$2. \mathbf{x} = [2, -1, 5] = 2[1, 0, 0] - 1[0, 1, 0] + 5[0, 0, 1] = 2\hat{i} - \hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$$

- **Distance between two vectors:** Let $\mathbf{u} = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$ be two vectors in \mathfrak{R}^n , then the distance between the two vectors is given by the formula:

$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 + \dots + (u_n - v_n)^2}$$



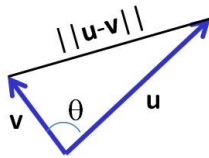
– *Example:* Let $\mathbf{u} = [2, 5]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [-1, 0]$, then

$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \sqrt{(2 - (-1))^2 + (5 - 0)^2} = \sqrt{9 + 25} = \sqrt{34}$$

– *Properties:* If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors in \mathfrak{R}^n , then

1. $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \geq 0$
2. $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$
3. $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u})$

- **Angle between two vectors:** We are interested in finding the angle between two given vectors are pictured in the schematic below:



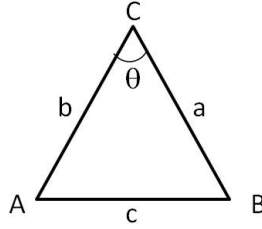
In order to do this, we need the *Law of Cosines*.

If we have the schematic above, then the Law of Cosines is given by

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$$

Using the law of cosines with our vector schematic, we have

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos(\theta)$$



Let's consider $\mathbf{u} = [u_1, u_2]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, v_2]$ in \mathbb{R}^2 . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 &= (u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 \\ &= u_1^2 - 2u_1v_1 + v_1^2 + u_2^2 - 2u_2v_2 + v_2^2 \\ &= u_1^2 + u_2^2 + v_1^2 + v_2^2 - 2(u_1v_1 + u_2v_2) \\ &= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2(u_1v_1 + u_2v_2) \end{aligned}$$

Combining this with

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos(\theta)$$

we have

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2(u_1v_1 + u_2v_2) = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos(\theta)$$

The $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ cancels out leaving

$$-2(u_1v_1 + u_2v_2) = -2\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos(\theta)$$

Solving for $\cos(\theta)$, we have

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{u_1v_1 + u_2v_2}{\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|}$$

The numerator is defined as the **dot product** between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} . Let's examine the dot product. Afterwards, we will continue looking at the angle between two vectors.

- **Dot Product** The dot product between two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n is denoted $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ and is defined by

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \cdots + u_nv_n$$

Therefore, in \mathbb{R}^2 , the dot product is simply

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2$$

– *Examples*

1. Let $\mathbf{u} = [1, 2]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [-1, 3]$, then

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 1(-1) + 2(3) = -1 + 6 = 5$$

2. Let $\mathbf{u} = [1, -2, 3, 4]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [2, 3, -2, 1]$, then

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 1(2) + (-2)(3) + 3(-2) + 4(1) = 2 - 6 - 6 + 4 = -6$$

– *Properties of the Dot Product:* Let \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and c be a scalar in \mathbb{R} . Then

1. $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$
2. $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$
3. $c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot (c\mathbf{v})$
4. $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = v_1v_1 + v_2 + v_2 = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$
5. $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} \geq 0$ and $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

– *Examples:* For the given \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} , find

a) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$

b) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$

c) $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2$

d) $(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{v}$

e) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (5\mathbf{v})$

1. $\mathbf{u} = [-1, 2]$, $\mathbf{v} = [2, -2]$

2. $\mathbf{u} = [2, -1, 1]$, $\mathbf{v} = [0, 2, -1]$

Answers

1. a) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = -6$

b) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 5$

c) $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = 5$

d) $(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{v} = [-12, 12]$

e) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (5\mathbf{v}) = -30$

2. a) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = -3$

b) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 6$

c) $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = 6$

d) $(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{v} = [0, -6, 3]$

e) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (5\mathbf{v}) = -15$

– *Example:* Find

$$(3\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \cdot (\mathbf{u} - 3\mathbf{v})$$

given that

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 8 \quad \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 7 \quad \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 6$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} (3\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \cdot (\mathbf{u} - 3\mathbf{v}) &= 3\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} - 3\mathbf{u} \cdot (3\mathbf{v}) - \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \cdot (3\mathbf{v}) \\ &= 3\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} - 9\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + 3\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ &= 3(8) - 9(7) - 7 + 3(6) \\ &= -26 \end{aligned}$$

• **Back to the angle between vectors:** The angle θ between vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} is given by

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|}, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$$

– **Example:** Let $\mathbf{u} = [1, 0, 0, 1]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [0, 1, 0, 1]$. Find the angle between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v}

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 1}{\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2}\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

So,

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{3} \text{ radians or } 60^\circ$$

– **Theorem** If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are nonzero and θ is the angle between them, then

* θ is acute if and only if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} > 0$

* θ is obtuse if and only if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} < 0$

– **Example:** Let $\mathbf{u} = [1, -1, 0, 1]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [-1, 2, -1, 0]$. Find the angle between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = -1 - 2 = -3, \quad \|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{3}, \quad \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{6}$$

so

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{-3}{\sqrt{3}\sqrt{6}} = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{6}} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

Then,

$$\theta = \frac{3\pi}{4}$$

– **Example:** Let $\mathbf{u} = [2, 3, 1]$ and $\mathbf{v} = [-3, 2, 0]$. Then $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = -6 + 6 + 0 = 0$. Then

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{0}{\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|} = 0$$

So, $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ or 90° .

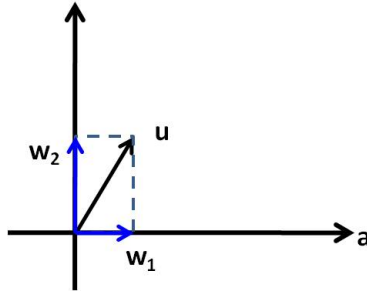
– **Orthogonal:** If $\cos \theta = 0$, i.e. $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$, then \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are said to be *orthogonal* (or perpendicular). Therefore, two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are *orthogonal* if

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$$

– **Examples:**

1. Determine all vectors orthogonal to $u = [2, 7]$. Ans: All vectors $\mathbf{v} = t[-7/2, 1]$ where t is any real number.
2. Determine all vectors orthogonal to $u = [2, -1, 1]$. Ans: All vectors $\mathbf{v} = [1/2(s-t), s, t]$ where s and t are any real number.

- **Projections:** Sometimes it is necessary to decompose a vector into a combination of two vectors which are orthogonal to one another. A trivial case is decomposing a vector $\mathbf{u} = [u_1, u_2]$ in \mathbb{R}^2 into its \hat{i} and \hat{j} directions, i.e., $\mathbf{u} = u_1\hat{i} + u_2\hat{j}$. However, sometimes it is necessary to decompose it along a direction different than the standard coordinate directions. Say, we need to decompose a vector into components along a vector \mathbf{a} , say \mathbf{w}_1 and along a vector, \mathbf{w}_2 , on an axis orthogonal to \mathbf{a} . See the image below.



– In the above figure \mathbf{w}_1 is called the *orthogonal projection of \mathbf{u} on \mathbf{a}* or the *vector component of \mathbf{u} along \mathbf{a}* and is given by

$$\mathbf{w}_1 = \text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} \mathbf{a} \quad (\text{vector component of } \mathbf{u} \text{ along } \mathbf{a})$$

– \mathbf{w}_2 is called the *vector component of \mathbf{u} orthogonal to \mathbf{a}* and is given by

$$\mathbf{w}_2 = \mathbf{u} - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} - \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} \mathbf{a}$$

– **Example:** Let $\mathbf{u} = [2, -1, 3]$ and $\mathbf{a} = [4, -1, 2]$. Find the vector component of \mathbf{u} along \mathbf{a} and the vector component of \mathbf{u} orthogonal to \mathbf{a} .

* vector component of \mathbf{u} along \mathbf{a} :

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a} = 2(4) + (-1)(-1) + 3(2) = 15$$

and

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|^2 = 4^2 + (-1)^2 + 2^2 = 21$$

Then

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} \mathbf{a} = \frac{15}{21} [4, -1, 2] = \left[\frac{20}{7}, -\frac{5}{7}, \frac{10}{7} \right]$$

* vector component of \mathbf{u} orthogonal to \mathbf{a} :

$$\mathbf{u} - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{u} = [2, -1, 3] - \left[\frac{20}{7}, -\frac{5}{7}, \frac{10}{7} \right] = \left[-\frac{6}{7}, -\frac{2}{7}, \frac{11}{7} \right]$$

– Formula for the length of the projection of \mathbf{u} along \mathbf{a} .

$$\begin{aligned} \|\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{u}\| &= \left\| \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} \mathbf{a} \right\| \\ &= \left| \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} \right| \|\mathbf{a}\| \\ &= \frac{|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a}|}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} \|\mathbf{a}\| \\ &= \text{frac}|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{a}|\|\mathbf{a}\| \\ &= \|\mathbf{u}\| \cos(\theta) \end{aligned}$$