## **LECTURE 1: LINES IN** $\mathbb{R}^3$

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ABSTRACT. In this first lecture, we'll review some necessary material and notation from linear algebra, and begin to explore geometry in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . In particular, we'll study lines in 3-space.

## 1. REVIEW: LINEAR ALGEBRA

Since we'll be working in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , where n > 1, it's useful to have the language of linear algebra at hand. Since we've all seen this before, let's quickly review and standardize notation.

**Definition 1.** We define n-dimensional real space as follows.

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$\mathbb{R} = \text{The set of real numbers}$$

It is important to note that we may think of elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  either as points or *vectors*. Similarly, we may think of elements of  $\mathbb{R}$  as numbers or as *scalars*. Let's keep both of these viewpoints in mind during our explorations; they each may come in handy.

With our vector viewpoint, we are pointing out that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is in fact a real vector space. Hooray! Vectors have lots of nice properties. In particular, we have addition and scalar multiplication.

**Definition 2.** Let  $\vec{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ ,  $\vec{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The (vector) addition of  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  is defined by

$$\vec{\alpha} + \vec{b} = (\alpha_1 + b_1, \alpha_2 + b_2, \dots, \alpha_n + b_n).$$

For any real number  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ , the scalar multiple of  $\vec{a}$  by k is

$$k\vec{\alpha}=(k\alpha_1,\ldots,k\alpha_n).$$

These are fine and dandy algebraic formulations of addition and scalar multiplication in n-space. But what the heck is going on geometrically? Can we find a geometric interpretation of addition and scalar multiplication? Yes indeed!

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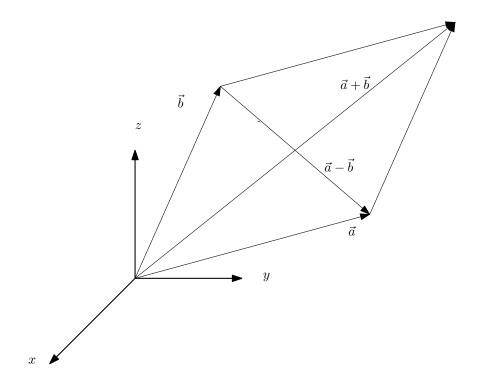


FIGURE 1. Geometric interpretation of vector addition (and subtraction)

1.1. **Basic Geometry of vectors.** Before we can discuss the geometry of a sum of vectors, let's recall the geometric interpretation of a single vector. Inspired by physical arguments, we may regard a vector as a *directed line segment* or a line segment with both *magnitude* (*length*) and direction.

How so? As follows.

**Definition 3.** Let  $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The position vector of  $\vec{a}$  is the directed line segment from the origin  $\vec{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  to the point  $\vec{a}$ .

Thus the information of the vector  $\vec{a}$  is equivalent to the information of its position vector. This position vector is the geometric realization of  $\vec{a}$ .

Now we can explore the geometry of addition of vectors. The vector  $\vec{a} + \vec{b}$  is, after all, the vector whose coordinates are the sums of coordinates of  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ . This is found geometrically by placing the position vector of  $\vec{b}$  at the end of the position vector of  $\vec{a}$ . Indeed, the result is a vector whose coordinates are the sums of  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ . See Figure 1.

This is called (not surprisingly) the *parallelogram law* of vector addition. We can use the parallelogram law to find the geometric realization of  $\vec{a} - \vec{b}$ . Indeed, since

$$\vec{a} - \vec{b} = \vec{a} + (-\vec{b}),$$

we construct the corresponding parallelogram for  $\vec{a}$  and  $-\vec{b}$ . Note that  $-\vec{b}$  is simply the reflection of  $\vec{b}$  through the origin. The resulting vector is shown in Figure 1.

**Remark 4.** It is worth pointing out (no pun intended) that the vector  $\vec{a} - \vec{b}$  points from  $\vec{b}$  to  $\vec{a}$ .

With this in mind, we make the following definition.

**Definition 5.** Let  $\mathfrak{p}_1 = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_2 = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$  be points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The displacement vector from  $\mathfrak{p}_1$  to  $\mathfrak{p}_2$  is

$$\overrightarrow{\mathfrak{p}_1\mathfrak{p}_2} = \mathfrak{p}_2 - \mathfrak{p}_1 = (x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, z_2 - z_1).$$

1.2. **Bases.** The last notion from linear algebra that is of immediate need is the notion of *basis* of a vector space.

**Definition 6.** A basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a collection B of n vectors

$$B = {\{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}}$$

such that any vector  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  may be uniquely written as a scalar linear combination of the elements of B, i.e. there exists a unique choice of numbers  $k_1, \ldots, k_n \in RR$  such that

$$\overrightarrow{v} = k_1 \overrightarrow{b}_1 + k_2 \overrightarrow{b}_2 + \dots + k_n \overrightarrow{b}_n.$$

**Example 7.** The standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the collection

$$\vec{e_1} = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\vec{e_i} = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\vec{e_n} = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$$

Here the  $i^{th}$  vector is zero is all but the  $i^{th}$  position.

**Example 8.** For  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we use even more specialized notation. Let i = (1,0) and j = (0,1) be the standard basis vectors in the plane. We abuse notation by using the same symbols in 3-space: Let i = (1,0,0), j = (0,1,0) and k = (0,0,1) denote the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Then, for example,

$$(1,0,-\pi) = i - k\pi.$$

## 2. LINES IN SPACE

We now have sufficient background to discuss some basic spacial geometry. Let's study lines? What is a line in space? How can we describe it? What is the equation of a line? Let's study these questions.

First, a line  $L \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  in space is uniquely determined by a point  $\mathfrak{p}_0 \in L$  and a vector  $\vec{\mathfrak{a}}$  parallel to L.

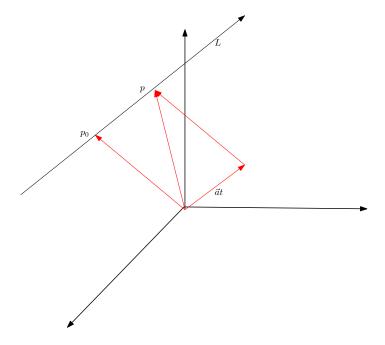


FIGURE 2. Derivation of parametric equation of a line in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 

This characterization will allow us to write the equation of L. Indeed, suppose we are given  $p_0 \in L$  and  $\vec{\alpha}$ . The equation of L is merely a way to describe the set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  which live on L. Let  $p \in L$  be any such point. Then the displacement vector from  $p_0$  to p must be parallel to  $\vec{\alpha}$  and hence it is a multiple of  $\vec{\alpha}$ : there exists  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\overrightarrow{p_0p} = t\vec{a}$$

Moreover, the point p is obtained by moving along  $t\vec{\alpha}$  from  $p_0$ . See Figure 2. By the parallelogram law, we have

$$p = p_0 + t\vec{a}$$
.

Thus we have a complete description of L.

$$L = \{p_0 + t\vec{a} : t \in RR\}.$$

Consider the associated map  $r(t):\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$r(t) = p_0 + t\vec{a}.$$

By the above, the image of this map is L. Thus, we have found an equation for L.

2.1. **Parametric equations.** In order to elaborate on this discussion, let's unpack Equation 1 in terms of coordinates. Let

$$\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$$
  $p_0 = (b_1, b_2, b_3).$ 

Then

$$r(t) = (a_1t + b_1, a_2t + b_2, a_3t + b_3).$$

But for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $r(t) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . Hence r(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)). Therefore we have

$$x(t) = a_1t + b_1$$

$$y(t) = a_2t + b_2$$

$$z(t) = a_3t + b_3.$$

**Definition 9.** *The above equations are called the* parametric equations *for the line* L.

**Remark 10.** We have shown that a line L in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is the image of a map

$$r:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}^3$$

$$\mathbf{r}(\mathsf{t}) = (\mathsf{x}(\mathsf{t}), \mathsf{y}(\mathsf{t}), \mathsf{z}(\mathsf{t}))$$

where x, y and z are *linear* functions of t!