

# Points and Vectors

Alex Nita

Let  $\mathbb{R}^n = \overbrace{\mathbb{R} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R}}^{n \text{ times}} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \text{ is a real number}\}$ . We will sometimes use boldface notation for the  $n$ -tuples,  $\mathbf{x}$  or ‘vector’ notation  $\vec{x}$  for  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .

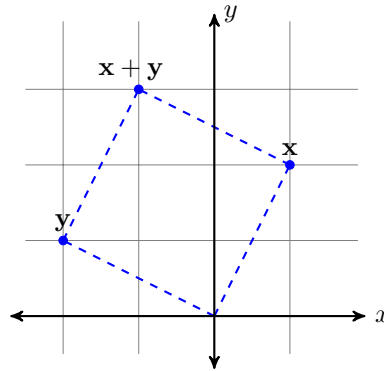
**Example 0.1** Our two main examples are the Euclidean plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and Euclidean three-dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We usually denote  $x_1$  by  $x$ ,  $x_2$  by  $y$ , and  $x_3$  by  $z$ , so that  $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$  or  $(x, y, z)$ , as the case may be. ■

We define **addition** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  componentwise,

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) \quad (0.1)$$

$$= (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n) \quad (0.2)$$

**Example 0.2** Let us see what this means in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Take, say,  $\mathbf{x} = (1, 2)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (-2, 1)$ . Then  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (1 - 2, 2 + 1) = (-1, 3)$ .



Thus we see that to reach  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$ , we may first go to  $\mathbf{x}$ , then go in the direction of  $\mathbf{y}$  to get to  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$ , or else we may go to  $\mathbf{y}$  first and then go in the direction of  $\mathbf{x}$ . This shows the algebraically obvious fact that  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}$ . ■

In general, we have **commutativity of addition**:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} &= (x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) & (0.3) \\ &= (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n) \\ &= (y_1 + x_1, \dots, y_n + x_n) \\ &= \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

which, as we saw in the previous example, geometrically means that we may ‘get to’  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$  in any order we like, first along  $\mathbf{x}$  then along  $\mathbf{y}$ , or along  $\mathbf{y}$  first and then along  $\mathbf{x}$ .

Another obvious fact about our definition of addition in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is that it is **associative**:

$$(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z}) \quad (0.4)$$

which again follows from the same associativity holding in each component,  $(x_i + y_i) + z_i = x_i + (y_i + z_i)$ .

It is also clear that **zero**, the element  $\mathbf{0} = (0, \dots, 0)$ , satisfies

$$\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x} \quad (0.5)$$

for all  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Moreover, the **negative** element of  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , defined by

$$-\mathbf{x} = (-x_1, \dots, -x_n) \quad (0.6)$$

satisfies

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

which we may more compactly write  $-\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . That is, we may define **subtraction** of elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by addition of negatives:

$$\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} + (-\mathbf{y}) \quad (0.7)$$

Let us now define **scalar multiplication** of elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . That means, we will define multiplication of  $\mathbf{x}$  by a real number  $a$ . As with addition, we define this componentwise:

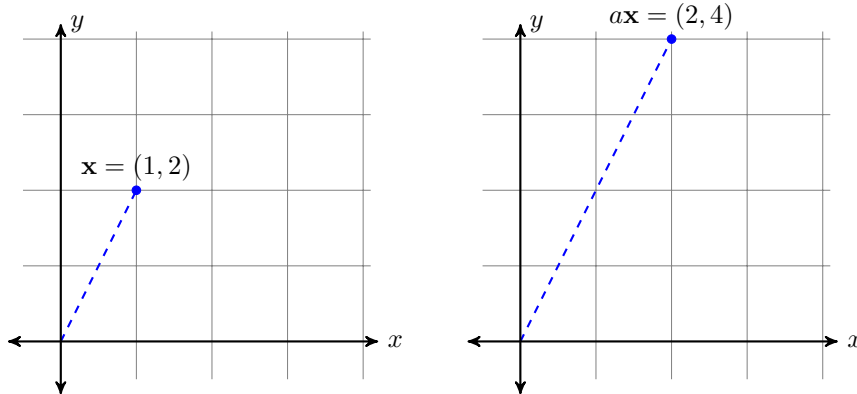
$$a\mathbf{x} = a(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (ax_1, \dots, ax_n) \quad (0.8)$$

It is clear that  $1\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$  and  $0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . Moreover, we have **associativity of scalar multiplication**,  $a(b\mathbf{x}) = (ab)\mathbf{x}$ , and we have **distributivity** of scalar multiplication over addition:

$$\begin{aligned} a(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) &= a\mathbf{x} + a\mathbf{y} \\ (a + b)\mathbf{x} &= a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

for all real numbers  $a$  and  $b$  and all elements  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Example 0.3** Let us see what this means in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Take, say,  $\mathbf{x} = (1, 2)$  and  $a = 2$ . Then  $a\mathbf{x} = 2(1, 2) = (2 \cdot 1, 2 \cdot 2) = (2, 4)$ .



Thus geometrically scalar multiplication has the effect of scaling the distance of the element  $\mathbf{x}$  from the origin  $\mathbf{0}$ . ■

Let us now touch upon the distinction between points and vectors. We will call elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  **points** when we think of them as positions in  $n$ -space, and we will call them **vectors** when we think of them as having direction (in which case we will put an arrow in illustrations). The **length** or **magnitude** of a point/vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  will be defined as the distance of  $\mathbf{x}$  from the origin  $\mathbf{0}$ , and will be denoted by  $x$  or  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ ,

$$x \text{ or } \|\mathbf{x}\| = d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{0}) = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2} \quad (0.9)$$

**Remark 0.4** *We remark here that the definitions of addition and scalar multiplication in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  make  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into a **vector space**. If we think of the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as a position space for particles, then we tend to think of its elements as points, which happen to also be vectors, whereas if we think of the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as phase space or something analogous, where velocities of particles and forces act, then we think of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as consisting entirely of vectors. The idea of translation invariance of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is an amalgam of these two notions. In such a situation we think of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as having both points and vectors in it, with the vectors moving around but staying unchanged in magnitude and direction. This actually means that at each ‘point’  $\mathbf{x}$  we attach a ‘vector’  $\mathbf{v}$  so that the vector ‘emanates’ from  $\mathbf{x}$ . But this really means that at  $\mathbf{x}$  we have attached a copy of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , whose elements we treat as ‘vectors’, and we superimpose this copy onto our ‘position space’. The fact that there is such a copy at each point  $\mathbf{x}$  of our position space means that we can think of the vector  $\mathbf{v}$  as ‘moving’ from point to point, but really it’s just another copy of  $\mathbf{v}$ . This, however, is a technicality, and I only include it to clarify the math going on here. ■*