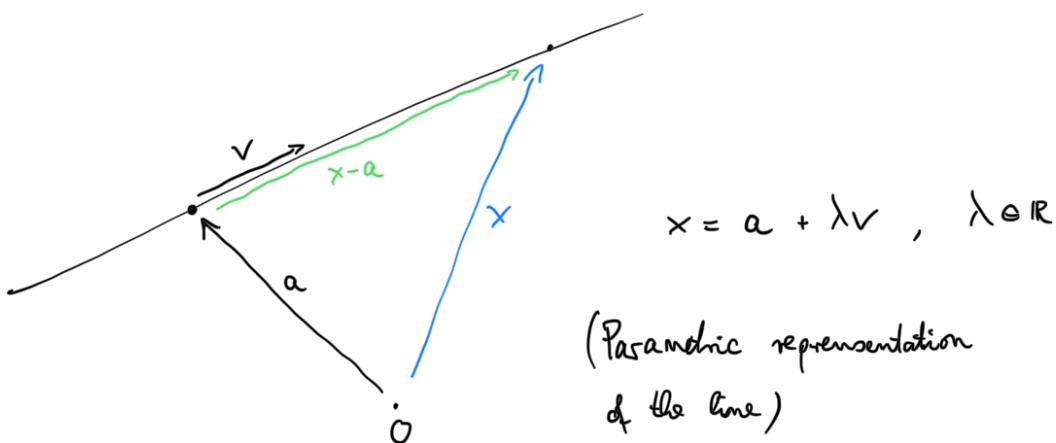


Equations of lines and planes



Examples: Find the equation of the line through a and b :

$$|u \times v| = |u| |v| \sin \theta$$

a : reference point

$$v = b - a$$

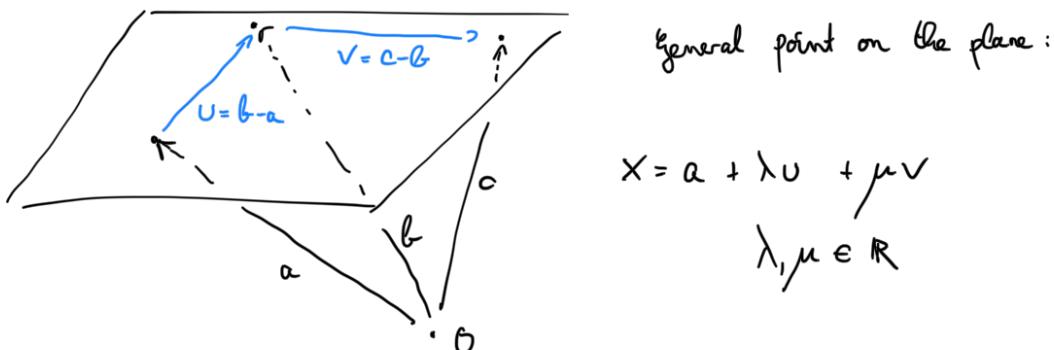
$$\Rightarrow x = a + \lambda(b - a) \quad (\text{other choices are possible ...})$$

Note: . x is on the line if $(x-a) \parallel v$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x-a) \parallel (b-a)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\vec{x} - \vec{a}) \times (\vec{b} - \vec{a}) = 0$$

- Any set of two (independent) linear equations in three dimensions defines a line.

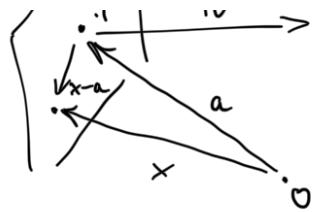


"normal equation" of a plane:



$$(x-a) \perp n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x-a) \cdot n = 0$$



From parametric representation to normal representation: Set $n = uxv$

From an equation to the normal representation:

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_3 = \beta$$

$$n = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\beta = n \cdot n$$

$$\text{e.g.: } a = \beta \frac{n}{\|n\|^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot n = \beta \frac{n \cdot n}{\|n\|^2}$$

Example: Find the direction of the line of intersection of the planes defined by

$$x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 = 5 \quad \Rightarrow \quad n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$2x_1 - 2x_2 + 4x_3 = 3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad m = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$v = n \times m = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \cdot 4 - (-1)(-2) \\ (-1) \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 4 \\ 1 \cdot (-2) - 2 \cdot 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ -6 \\ -8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Vector spaces

V is a vector space over \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C}) if

(i) V is closed under commutative and associative addition, i.e.

$$+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

$$\text{with } \begin{aligned} a+b &= b+a \\ (a+b)+c &= a+(b+c) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \right\} \forall a, b, c \in V$$

(ii) V is closed under distributive and associative scalar multiplication, i.e.

$$\cdot : \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$$

$$\text{with } \begin{aligned} \lambda(a+b) &= \lambda a + \lambda b \\ (\lambda+\mu)a &= \lambda a + \mu a \\ \lambda(\mu a) &= (\lambda\mu)a \end{aligned} \quad \left. \right\} \forall a, b \in V \quad \forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(iii) \exists n \in V \text{ s.t. } a+n=a \quad \forall a \in V$$

(iii) $\exists v \in V$ s.t.

(iv) $1 \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in V$

Note: . 0 is unique: $0 + 0 = 0$
 $" "$ $0 + 0 = 0$

. For every $a \in V$ there is $-a := (-1)a \Rightarrow a - a = 0$

Indeed: $a - a = \underbrace{(-1)}_0 a = 0$

Examples: . $V = \mathbb{R}^n$

. $V = \{p: p \text{ polynomial of degree } \leq n\}$

. $V = \{ \text{continuous functions on } [0,1] \}$

Non-examples:

. $V = \{p: p \text{ polynomial of degree } = n\}$

. images with grayscale values $0 \dots 255$

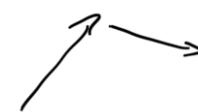
. probability vectors: $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n) \quad p_i \in [0,1]$
 $p_1 + \dots + p_n = 1$

. \mathbb{R}^3 where "addition" is the cross product.

$\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent if

$$\underbrace{\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_m v_m}_\text{"linear combination"} = 0 \text{ implies } \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_m = 0$$

"linear combination"



$\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ is called a basis of V if

(i) For every $x \in V$ there are $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x = \alpha_1 b_1 + \dots + \alpha_n b_n$

(ii) this representation is unique.

If B is a basis of V , the vector $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called the coordinate vector of x .