$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m\times n}}_{A} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_{n\times 1}}_{x} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}_{m\times 1}}_{b}$$

CX1104: **Linear Algebra for Computing**

Chap. No : **6.1.2 (modified by Tay Kian Boon)**

Lecture : **Orthogonality**

Topic : **Dot Product**

Concept : **Norm of a Vector and Unit Vectors**

Instructor: **A/P Chng Eng Siong**

TAs: **Zhang Su, Vishal Choudhari**

Rev: 25th June 2020

Norm of Vector

DEFINITION 1 If $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$ is a vector in R^n, then the ***norm*** of $\mathbf{v}$ (also called the ***length*** of $\mathbf{v}$ or the ***magnitude*** of $\mathbf{v}$) is denoted by $\|\mathbf{v}\|$, and is defined by the formula

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2} \tag{3}$$

Unit Vector

For any non-zero vector v in Euclidean space, $v/||v||$ is a unit vector pointing in same direction as v.

Unit Vector Example

EXAMPLE 2 Normalizing a Vector

Find the unit vector $\mathbf{u}$ that has the same direction as $\mathbf{v} = (2, 2, -1)$.

Solution The vector $\mathbf{v}$ has length

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + 2^2 + (-1)^2} = 3$$

Thus, from (4)

$$\mathbf{u} = \tfrac{1}{3}(2, 2, -1) = \left(\tfrac{2}{3}, \tfrac{2}{3}, -\tfrac{1}{3}\right)$$

As a check, you may want to confirm that $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$. ◀

Norm of a Vector: properties

THEOREM 3.2.1 *If* $\mathbf{v}$ *is a vector in* R^n, *and if* k *is any scalar, then:*

(*a*) $\|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0$

(*b*) $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 0$ *if and only if* $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

(*c*) $\|k\mathbf{v}\| = |k|\|\mathbf{v}\|$

We will prove part (*c*) and leave (*a*) and (*b*) as exercises.

Proof (c) If $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$, then $k\mathbf{v} = (kv_1, kv_2, \ldots, kv_n)$, so

$$\begin{aligned}\|k\mathbf{v}\| &= \sqrt{(kv_1)^2 + (kv_2)^2 + \cdots + (kv_n)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(k^2)(v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2)} \\ &= |k|\sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2} \\ &= |k|\|\mathbf{v}\| \quad \blacktriangleleft\end{aligned}$$

Examples

A vector whose length is 1 is called a **unit vector**. If we *divide* a nonzero vector $\mathbf{v}$ by its length—that is, multiply by $1/\|\mathbf{v}\|$—we obtain a unit vector $\mathbf{u}$ because the length of $\mathbf{u}$ is $(1/\|\mathbf{v}\|)\|\mathbf{v}\|$. The process of creating $\mathbf{u}$ from $\mathbf{v}$ is sometimes called **normalizing** $\mathbf{v}$, and we say that $\mathbf{u}$ is *in the same direction* as $\mathbf{v}$.

Several examples that follow use the space-saving notation for (column) vectors.

EXAMPLE 2 Let $\mathbf{v} = (1, -2, 2, 0)$. Find a unit vector $\mathbf{u}$ in the same direction as $\mathbf{v}$.

SOLUTION First, compute the length of $\mathbf{v}$:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{v} = (1)^2 + (-2)^2 + (2)^2 + (0)^2 = 9$$
$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{9} = 3$$

Then, multiply $\mathbf{v}$ by $1/\|\mathbf{v}\|$ to obtain

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{3}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ -2/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

To check that $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$, it suffices to show that $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = 1$.

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = \mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{u} = \left(\tfrac{1}{3}\right)^2 + \left(-\tfrac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \left(\tfrac{2}{3}\right)^2 + (0)^2$$
$$= \tfrac{1}{9} + \tfrac{4}{9} + \tfrac{4}{9} + 0 = 1$$

Note: $||v||^2 = v.v$

Derived in Slide 6 of Lecture 6.1.3 on Dot Product

Lay's Linear Algebra and Applications:

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DEFINITION For $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, the **distance between u and v**, written as $\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$, is the length of the vector $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$. That is,

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$$

In $\mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbb{R}^3$, this definition of distance coincides with the usual formulas for the Euclidean distance between two points, as the next two examples show.

EXAMPLE 4 Compute the distance between the vectors $\mathbf{u} = (7, 1)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (3, 2)$.

SOLUTION Calculate

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{4^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{17}$$

The vectors $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, and $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ are shown in Fig. 4. When the vector $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ is added to $\mathbf{v}$, the result is $\mathbf{u}$. Notice that the parallelogram in Fig. 4 shows that the distance from $\mathbf{u}$ to $\mathbf{v}$ is the same as the distance from $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ to $\mathbf{0}$.

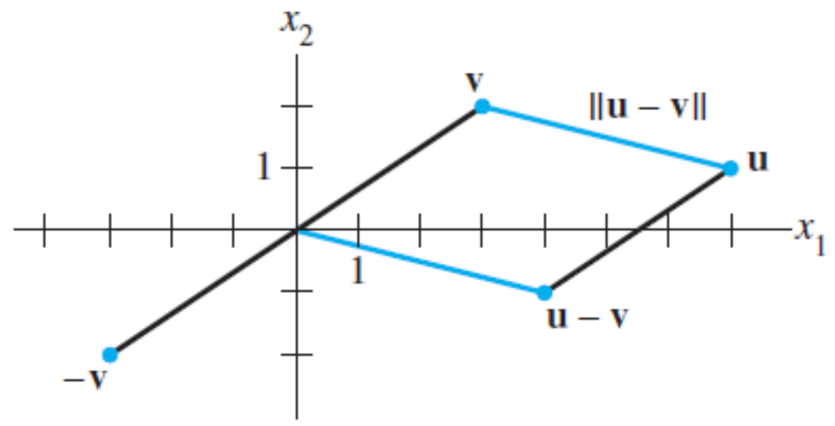


FIGURE 4 The distance between $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ is the length of $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$.

EXAMPLE 5 If $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$, then

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v})\cdot(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v})}$$
$$= \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 + (u_3 - v_3)^2}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m\times n}}_{A} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_{n\times 1}}_{x} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}_{m\times 1}}_{b}$$

CX1104: **Linear Algebra for Computing**

Chap. No : **6.1.3**

Lecture : **Orthogonality**

Topic : **Dot Product**

Concept : **The Dot Product**

Instructor: **A/P Chng Eng Siong**

TAs: **Zhang Su, Vishal Choudhari**

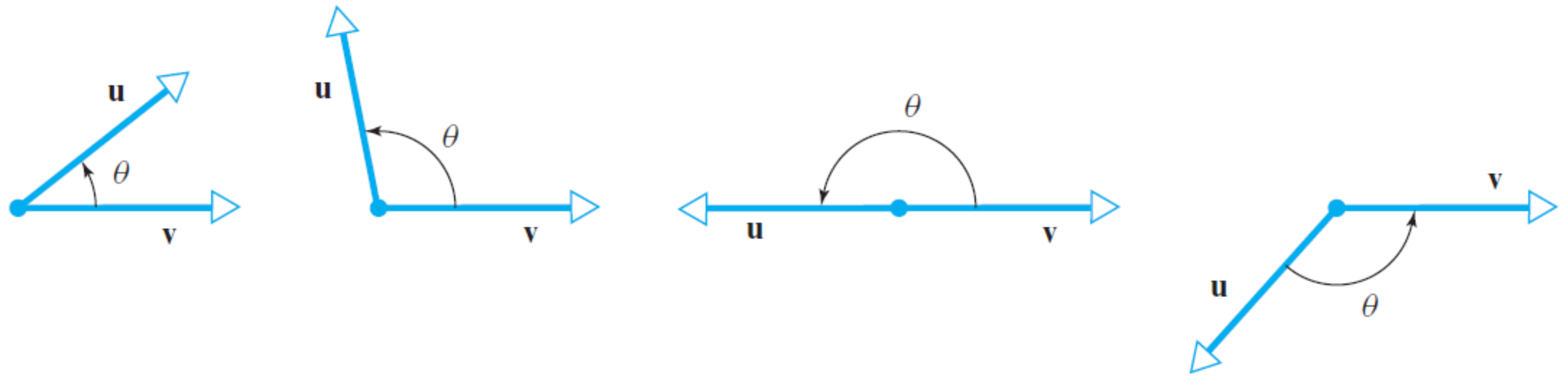
Rev: 25th June 2020

Dot Product

DEFINITION 3 If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are nonzero vectors in R^2 or R^3, and if θ is the angle between $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$, then the ***dot product*** (also called the ***Euclidean inner product***) of $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ is denoted by $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ and is defined as

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\| \cos\theta \tag{12}$$

If $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then we define $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ to be 0.



The angle θ between $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ satisfies $0 \le \theta \le \pi$.

How to define "angle" between two vectors in R^2 or R^3 ? For this purpose, let $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ be nonzero vectors in R^2 or R^3 that have been positioned so that their initial points coincide. We define the ***angle between*** $\mathbf{u}$ ***and*** $\mathbf{v}$ to be the angle θ determined by $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ that satisfies the inequalities $0 \le \theta \le \pi$ (Figure 3.2.4).

The sign of the dot product reveals information about the angle θ that we can obtain by rewriting Formula (12) as

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|} \tag{13}$$

Since $0 \le \theta \le \pi$, it follows from Formula (13) and properties of the cosine function studied in trigonometry that

- θ is acute if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} > 0$.
- θ is obtuse if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} < 0$.
- $\theta = \pi/2$ if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.

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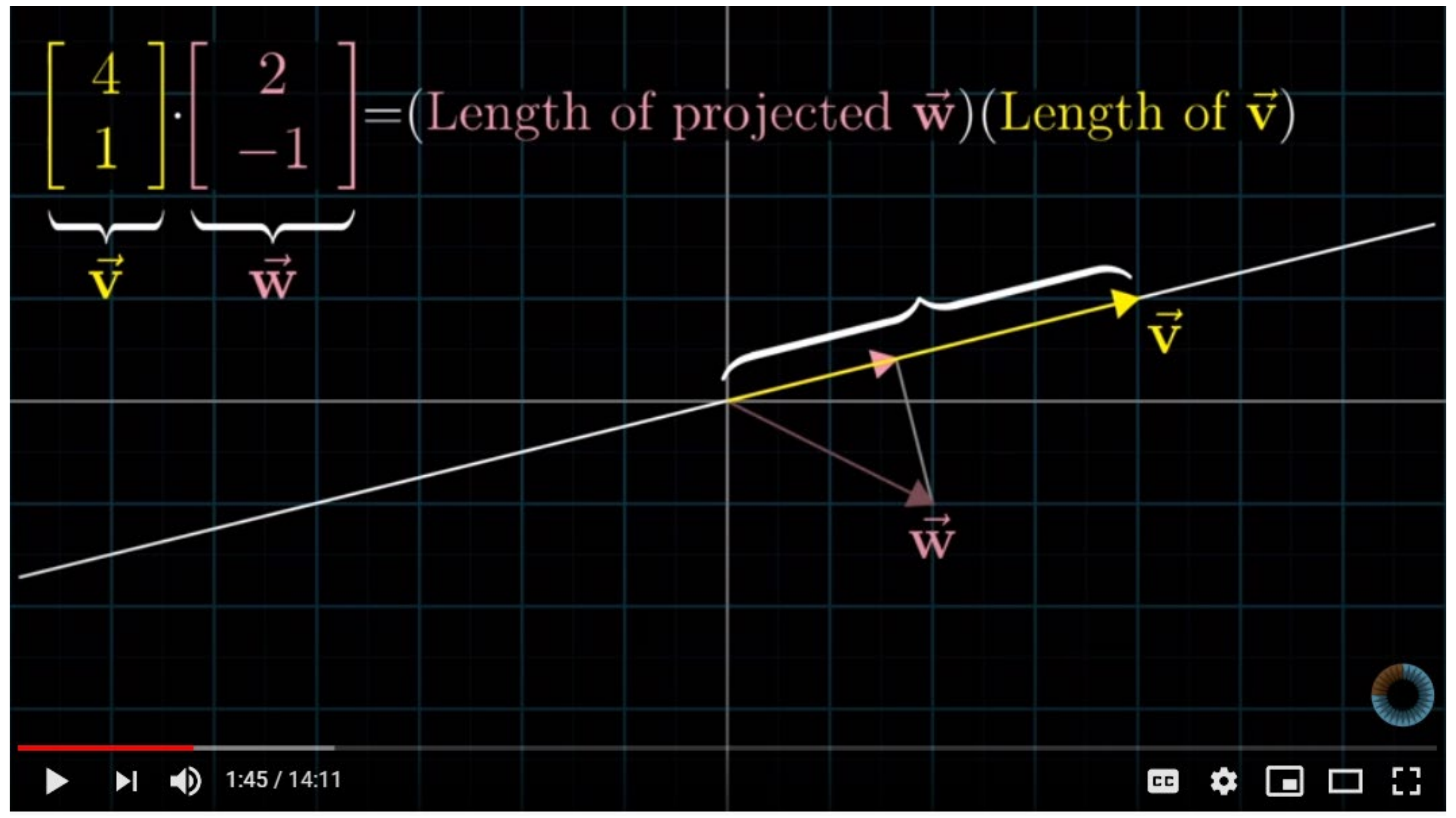
Dot product relates the length of two vectors and the angle (θ) between them.

$If\ vectors u\ and v\ are\ unit\ vectors,$
$i.e, ||v|| = ||u|| = 1,$
$the\ dot\ product\ is u.v = cos\theta.$

Ref:

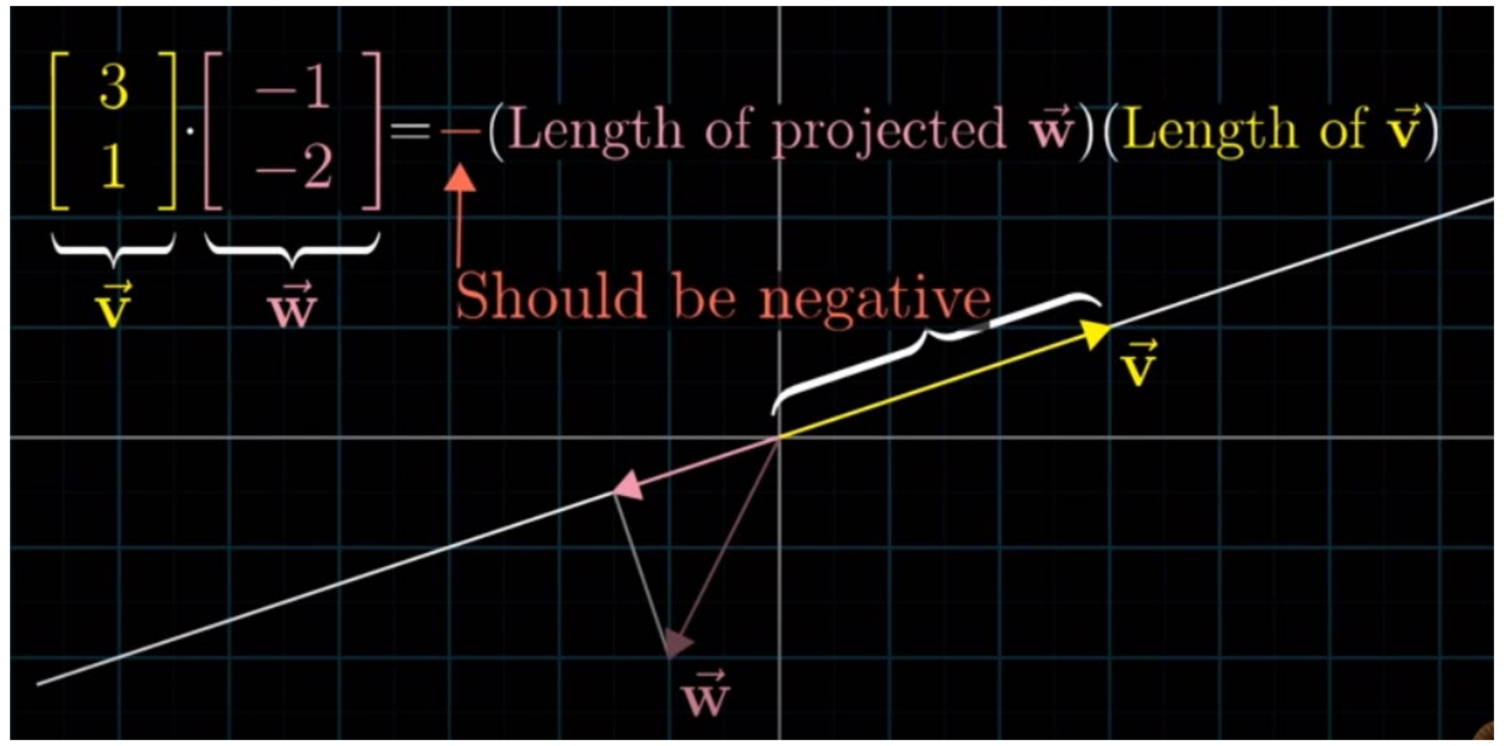
1. Stack Exchange
2. Khan Academy: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KDHuWxy53uM
3. 3Blue1Brown, Dot Product and Duality: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LyGKycYT2v0
4. MathsTheBeautiful: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QPkKWGq_V0U

Dot Product Interpretation



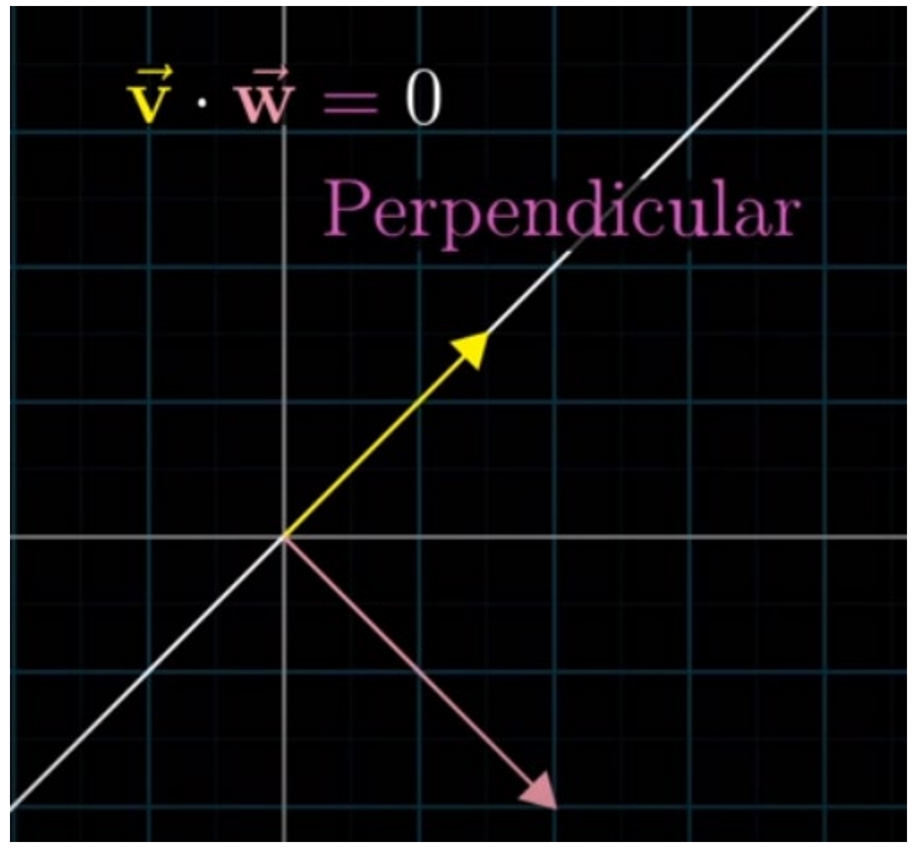
Case 1: When two vectors are pointing nearly towards the same direction, their dot product is +ve.

Angle between vectors: acute.



Case 2: When two vectors are pointing away from one another, their dot product is -ve.

Angle between vectors: obtuse.



Case 3: When two vectors are perpendicular, their dot product is zero.

$$v.w = \sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i w_i = v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2 + \cdots + v_n$$

$$= ||v|| \times ||w|| \times cos\theta$$

Derived in Slide 5

$$v.w = ||v|| \times ||w|| \times cos\theta$$

$$v.w = \underbrace{(||w|| \times cos\theta)}_{\text{Length of projection of } w \text{ onto } v} \times \underbrace{||v||}_{\text{Length of vector } v}$$

$$v.w = \underbrace{(||v|| \times cos\theta)}_{\text{Length of projection of } v \text{ onto } w} \times \underbrace{||w||}_{\text{Length of vector } w}$$

Example

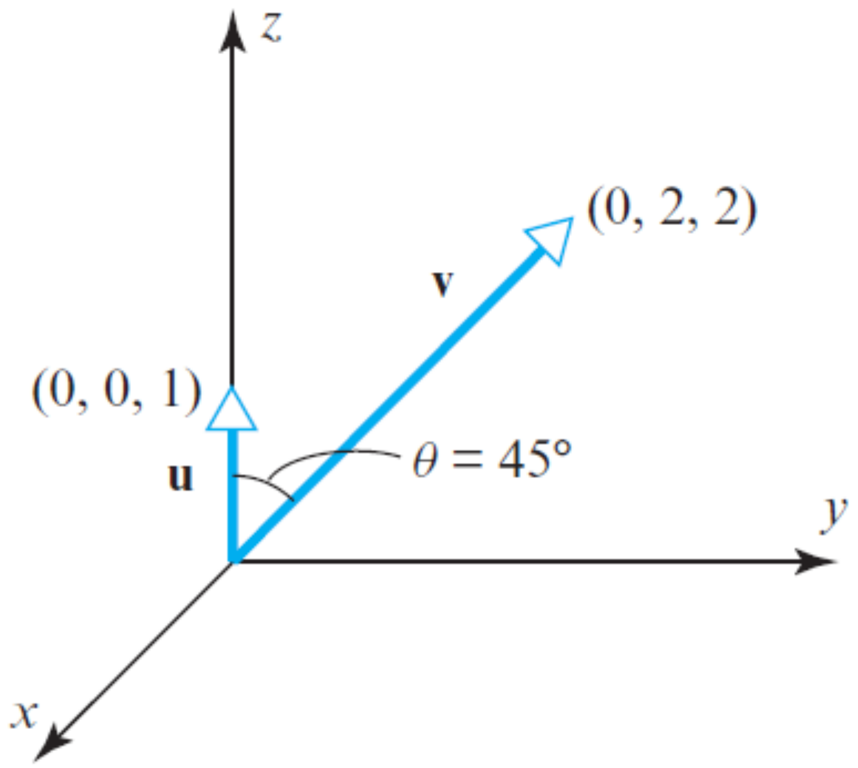


Figure 3.2.5

EXAMPLE 5 Dot Product

Find the dot product of the vectors shown in Figure 3.2.5.

Solution The lengths of the vectors are

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{8} = 2\sqrt{2}$$

and the cosine of the angle θ between them is

$$\cos(45^\circ) = 1/\sqrt{2}$$

Thus, it follows from Formula (12) that

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{u}\|\,\|\mathbf{v}\| \cos\theta = (1)(2\sqrt{2})(1/\sqrt{2}) = 2$$

Component Form of the Dot Product

Component Form of the Dot Product

For computational purposes it is desirable to have a formula that expresses the dot product of two vectors in terms of components. We will derive such a formula for vectors in 3-space; the derivation for vectors in 2-space is similar.

Let $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ be two nonzero vectors. If, as shown in Figure 3.2.6, θ is the angle between $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$, then the law of cosines yields

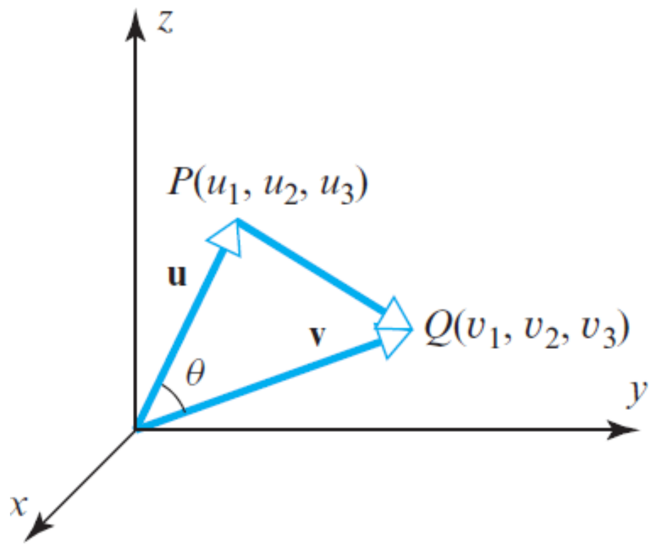


Figure 3.2.6

$$\|\overrightarrow{PQ}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos\theta \tag{14}$$

Since $\overrightarrow{PQ} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}$, we can rewrite (14) as

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos\theta = \tfrac{1}{2}(\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}\|^2)$$

or

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \tfrac{1}{2}(\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}\|^2)$$

Substituting

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2, \qquad \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2$$

and

$$\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}\|^2 = (v_1 - u_1)^2 + (v_2 - u_2)^2 + (v_3 - u_3)^2$$

we obtain, after simplifying,

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3 \tag{15}$$

The companion formula for vectors in 2-space is

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 \tag{16}$$

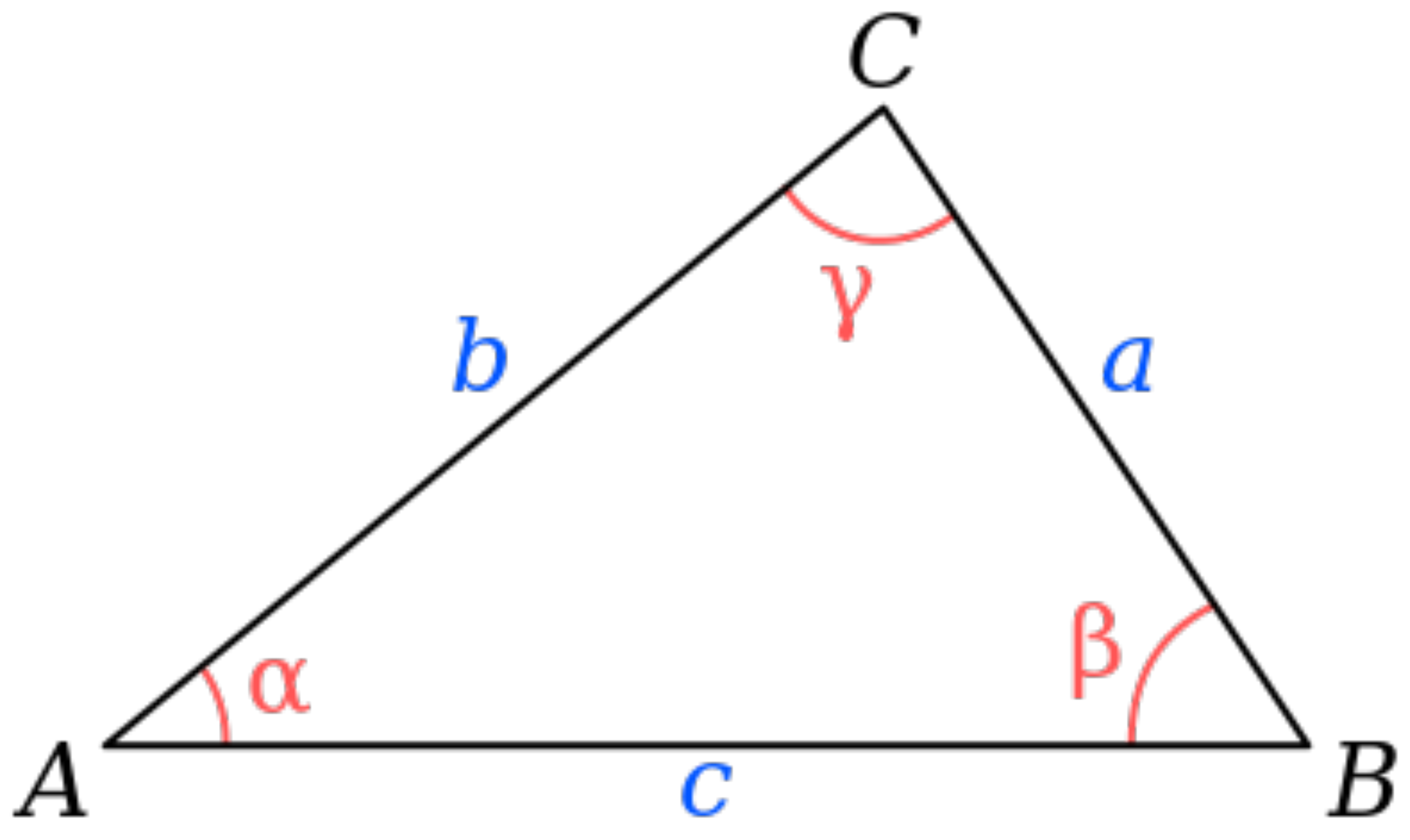
Motivated by the pattern in Formulas (15) and (16), we make the following definition.

Although we derived Formula (15) and its 2-space companion under the assumption that $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are nonzero, it turned out that these formulas are also applicable if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ (verify).

DEFINITION 4 If $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$ are vectors in R^n, then the ***dot product*** (also called the ***Euclidean inner product***) of $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ is denoted by $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ and is defined by

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \cdots + u_nv_n \tag{17}$$

Reviewing Law of Cosines



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

Example

▶ EXAMPLE 6 **Calculating Dot Products Using Components**

(a) Use Formula (15) to compute the dot product of the vectors **u** and **v** in Example 5.

(b) Calculate $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ for the following vectors in R^4:

$$\mathbf{u} = (-1, 3, 5, 7), \quad \mathbf{v} = (-3, -4, 1, 0)$$

Solution (a) The component forms of the vectors are $\mathbf{u} = (0, 0, 1)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (0, 2, 2)$. Thus,

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (0)(0) + (0)(2) + (1)(2) = 2$$

which agrees with the result obtained geometrically in Example 5.

Solution (b)

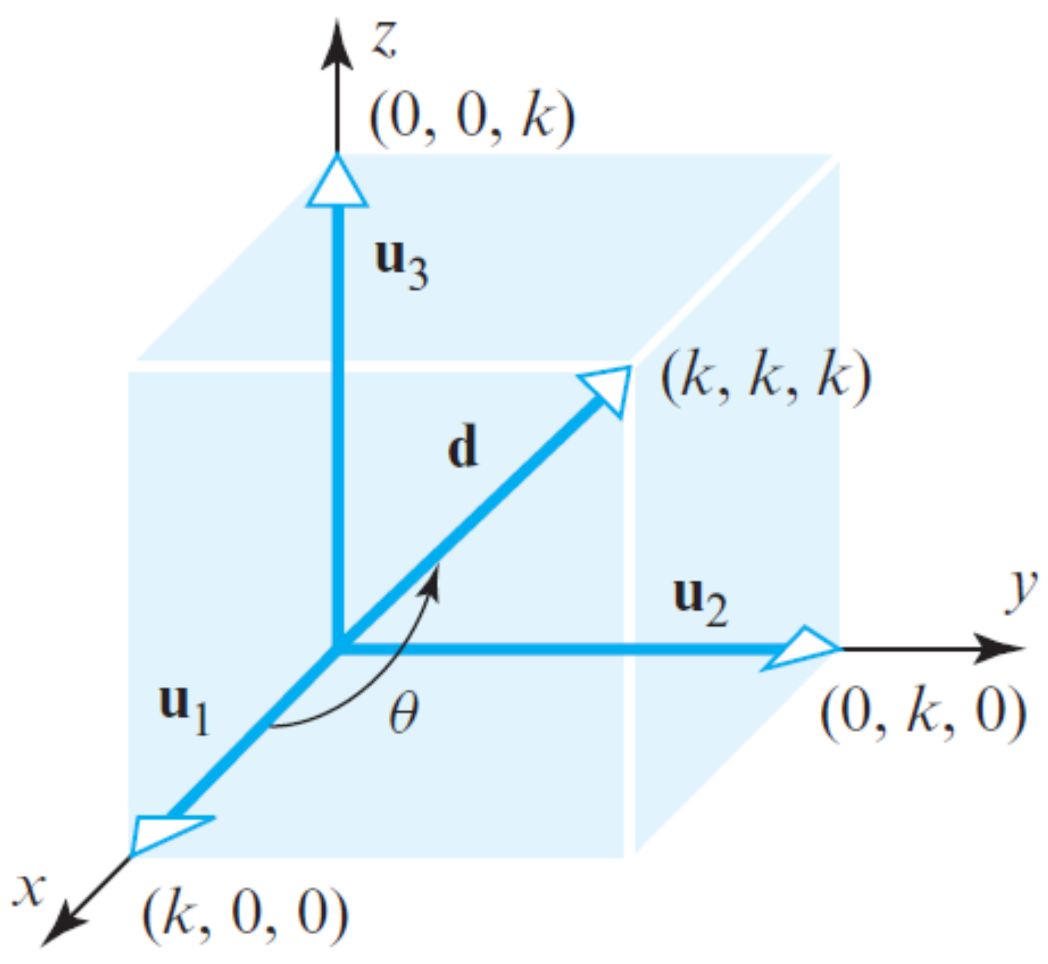
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (-1)(-3) + (3)(-4) + (5)(1) + (7)(0) = -4$$

In the special case where $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$ in Definition 4, we obtain the relationship

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2 = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \tag{18}$$

This yields the following formula for expressing the length of a vector in terms of a dot product:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} \tag{19}$$



▲ Figure 3.2.7

Note that the angle θ obtained in Example 7 does not involve k. Why was this to be expected?

▶ EXAMPLE 7 **A Geometry Problem Solved Using Dot Product**

Find the angle between a diagonal of a cube and one of its edges.

Solution Let k be the length of an edge and introduce a coordinate system as shown in Figure 3.2.7. If we let $\mathbf{u}_1 = (k, 0, 0)$, $\mathbf{u}_2 = (0, k, 0)$, and $\mathbf{u}_3 = (0, 0, k)$, then the vector

$$\mathbf{d} = (k, k, k) = \mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2 + \mathbf{u}_3$$

is a diagonal of the cube. It follows from Formula (13) that the angle θ between **d** and the edge $\mathbf{u}_1$ satisfies

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}}{\|\mathbf{u}_1\|\|\mathbf{d}\|} = \frac{k^2}{(k)(\sqrt{3k^2})} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$

With the help of a calculator we obtain

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \approx 54.74^\circ$$ ◀

Properties of Dot Product

Dot products have many of the same algebraic properties as products of real numbers.

THEOREM 3.2.2 *If* $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, *and* $\mathbf{w}$ *are vectors in* R^n, *and if* k *is a scalar, then:*

(*a*) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$ **[Symmetry property]**

(*b*) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ **[Distributive property]**

(*c*) $k(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (k\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$ **[Homogeneity property]**

(*d*) $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} \geq 0$ *and* $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ *if and only if* $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ **[Positivity property]**

Proof (c) Let $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} k(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) &= k(u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \cdots + u_nv_n) \\ &= (ku_1)v_1 + (ku_2)v_2 + \cdots + (ku_n)v_n = (k\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} \end{aligned}$$

Proof (d) The result follows from parts (*a*) and (*b*) of Theorem 3.2.1 and the fact that

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = v_1v_1 + v_2v_2 + \cdots + v_nv_n = v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2 = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \blacktriangleleft$$

THEOREM 3.2.3 *If* $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, *and* $\mathbf{w}$ *are vectors in* R^n, *and if* k *is a scalar, then:*

(*a*) $\mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{0} = 0$

(*b*) $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$

(*c*) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$

(*d*) $(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$

(*e*) $k(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot (k\mathbf{v})$

Proof (b)

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{w} \cdot (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) && \text{[By symmetry]} \\ &= \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} && \text{[By distributivity]} \\ &= \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} && \text{[By symmetry]} \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned}$$

▶ EXAMPLE 8 Calculating with Dot Products

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{u} - 2\mathbf{v}) \cdot (3\mathbf{u} + 4\mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{u} \cdot (3\mathbf{u} + 4\mathbf{v}) - 2\mathbf{v} \cdot (3\mathbf{u} + 4\mathbf{v}) \\ &= 3(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}) + 4(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) - 6(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}) - 8(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \\ &= 3\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 - 2(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) - 8\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned}$$

Property and Example

Table 1

Form	Dot Product	Example	
$\mathbf{u}$ a column matrix and $\mathbf{v}$ a column matrix	$\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}$	$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{v} = [1 \quad -3 \quad 5]\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -7$ $\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u} = [5 \quad 4 \quad 0]\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = -7$

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix and $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are $n \times 1$ matrices, then it follows from the first row in Table 1 and properties of the transpose that

$$A\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^T(A\mathbf{u}) = (\mathbf{v}^TA)\mathbf{u} = (A^T\mathbf{v})^T\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}\cdot A^T\mathbf{v}$$
$$\mathbf{u}\cdot A\mathbf{v} = (A\mathbf{v})^T\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{v}^TA^T)\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}^T(A^T\mathbf{u}) = A^T\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}$$

The resulting formulas

$$A\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}\cdot A^T\mathbf{v} \tag{26}$$

$$\mathbf{u}\cdot A\mathbf{v} = A^T\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} \tag{27}$$

provide an important link between multiplication by an $n \times n$ matrix A and multiplication by A^T.

EXAMPLE 9 Verifying that $A\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}\cdot A^T\mathbf{v}$

Suppose that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$A\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 10 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^T\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ -2 & 4 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 4 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

from which we obtain

$$A\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = 7(-2) + 10(0) + 5(5) = 11$$
$$\mathbf{u}\cdot A^T\mathbf{v} = (-1)(-7) + 2(4) + 4(-1) = 11$$

Thus, $A\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}\cdot A^T\mathbf{v}$ as guaranteed by Formula (26). We leave it for you to verify that Formula (27) also holds.

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m\times n}}_{A} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_{n\times 1}}_{x} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}_{m\times 1}}_{b}$$

CX1104: **Linear Algebra for Computing**

Chap. No : **6.1.4**

Lecture : **Orthogonality**

Topic : **Dot Product**

Concept : **Important Inequalities**

Instructor: **A/P Chng Eng Siong**

TAs: **Zhang Su, Vishal Choudhari**

Rev: 25th June 2020

Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

DEFINITION 3 If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are nonzero vectors in R^2 or R^3, and if θ is the angle between $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$, then the ***dot product*** (also called the ***Euclidean inner product***) of $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ is denoted by $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ and is defined as

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos\theta \tag{12}$$

If $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then we define $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ to be 0.

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|}\right)$$

Formula (20) is not defined unless its argument satisfies the inequalities

$$-1 \le \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} \le 1 \tag{21}$$

Fortunately, these inequalities *do* hold for all nonzero vectors in R^n as a result of the following fundamental result known as the ***Cauchy–Schwarz inequality***.

THEOREM 3.2.4 Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality

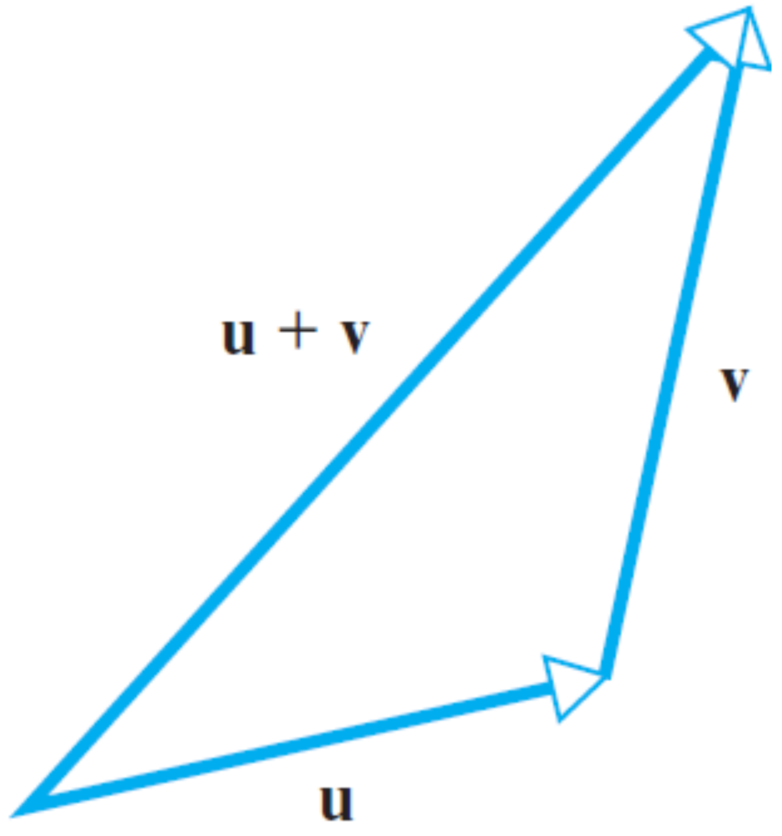
If $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n)$ *and* $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$ *are vectors in* R^n, *then*

$$|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| \le \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \tag{22}$$

or in terms of components

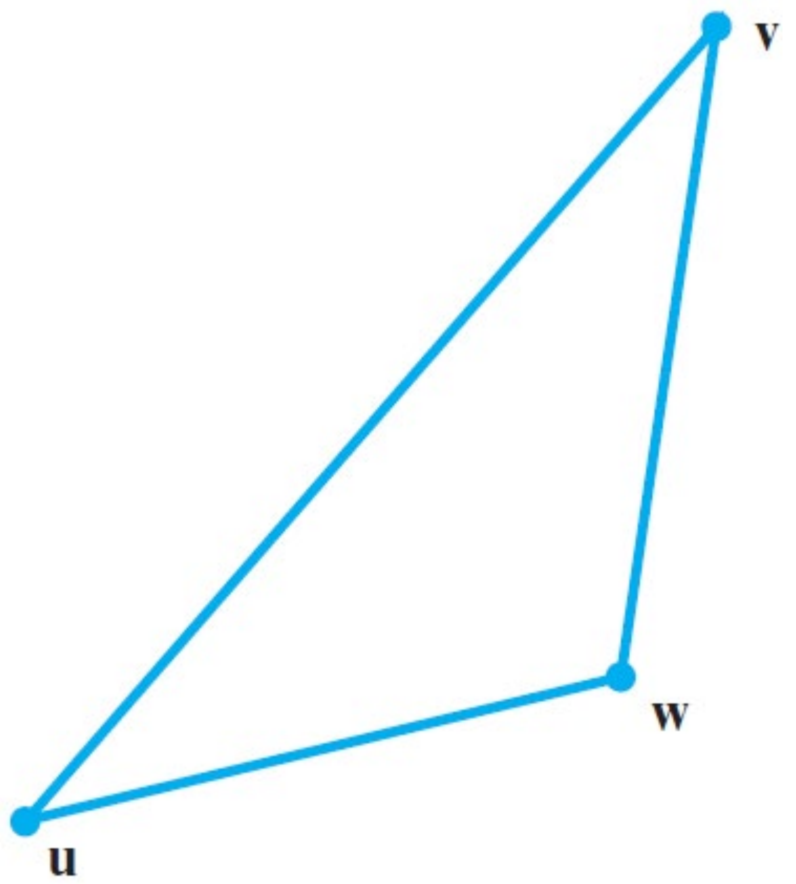
$$|u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \cdots + u_nv_n| \le (u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \cdots + u_n^2)^{1/2}(v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2)^{1/2} \tag{23}$$

Triangle Inequality



$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$

▲ Figure 3.2.8



$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \leq d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}) + d(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v})$

▲ Figure 3.2.9

THEOREM 3.2.5 *If* $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, *and* $\mathbf{w}$ *are vectors in* R^n, *then:*

(*a*) $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$ **[Triangle inequality for vectors]**

(*b*) $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \leq d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}) + d(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v})$ **[Triangle inequality for distances]**

Proof:

Proof (a)

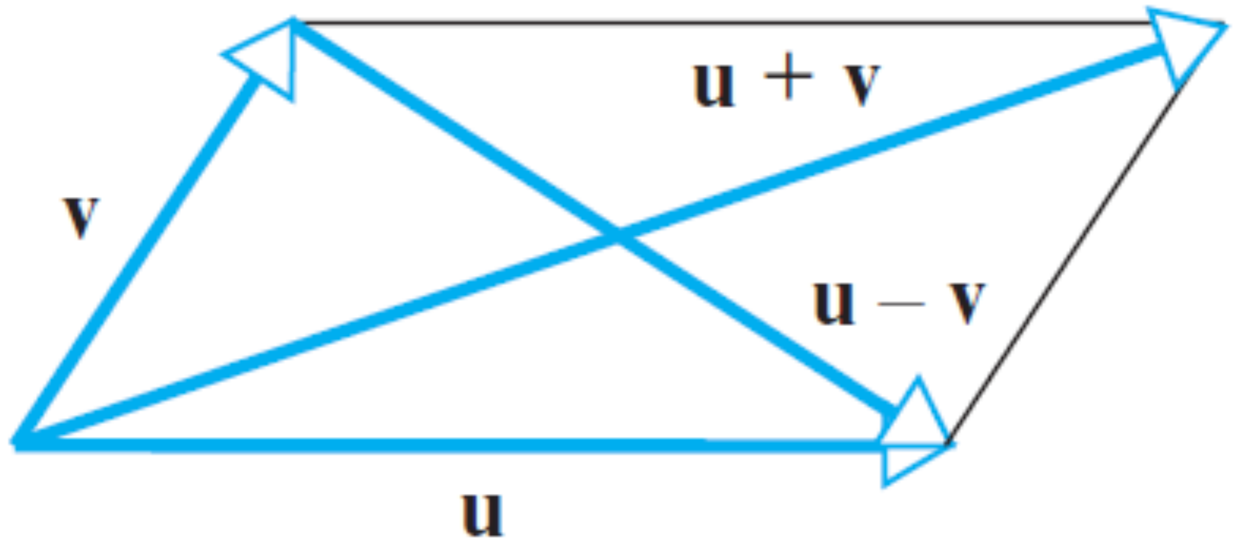
$$\begin{aligned}
\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 &= (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}) + 2(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \\
&= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \\
&\leq \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 && \leftarrow \text{Property of absolute value} \\
&\leq \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{u}\|\,\|\mathbf{v}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 && \leftarrow \text{Cauchy–Schwarz inequality} \\
&= (\|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|)^2
\end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof since both sides of the inequality in part (*a*) are nonnegative.

Proof (b) It follows from part (*a*) and Formula (11) that

$$\begin{aligned}
d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) &= \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \|(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w}) + (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v})\| \\
&\leq \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w}\| + \|\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v}\| = d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}) + d(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v}) \quad ◀
\end{aligned}$$

Parallelogram Equation for Vectors



▲ Figure 3.2.10

THEOREM 3.2.6 Parallelogram Equation for Vectors

If $\mathbf{u}$ *and* $\mathbf{v}$ *are vectors in* R^n, *then*

$$\|\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}\|^2 = 2\left(\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2\right) \tag{24}$$

Proof:

THEOREM 3.2.6 Parallelogram Equation for Vectors

If $\mathbf{u}$ *and* $\mathbf{v}$ *are vectors in* R^n, *then*

$$\|\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}\|^2 = 2\left(\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2\right) \tag{24}$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}\|^2 &= (\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v})\cdot(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v})\cdot(\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}) \\
&= 2(\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{u}) + 2(\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{v}) \\
&= 2\left(\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2\right) \quad ◀
\end{aligned}$$

THEOREM 3.2.7 *If* $\mathbf{u}$ *and* $\mathbf{v}$ *are vectors in* R^n *with the Euclidean inner product, then*

$$\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = \tfrac{1}{4}\|\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}\|^2 - \tfrac{1}{4}\|\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}\|^2 \tag{25}$$

Proof

$$\|\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}\|^2 = (\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v})\cdot(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2(\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}) + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$$

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

from which (25) follows by simple algebra. ◀

Reference

Materials in these slides have been taken from:

Anton and Rorres, “Linear Algebra”, 11th edition , Wiley.

Chapter: 3.1, 3.2

Euclidean Vector Spaces