# Scalar Product 

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In $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ we have $\|\mathbf{x}\|=\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}$, and in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ we have $\|\mathbf{x}\|=\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}$. In either case this is the length of the arrow that we use to visualize $\mathbf{x}$.

A couple of simple properties of scalar products.

1. The scalar product of $\alpha \mathbf{x}$ and $\beta \mathbf{y}$ is $(\alpha \mathbf{x})^{T}(\beta \mathbf{y})=\alpha \beta\left(\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}\right)$

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Let $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ or $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Suppose $\|\mathbf{x}\| \neq 0$ and $\|\mathbf{y}\| \neq 0$. Let $\theta$ be the angle between $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ with $0 \leq \theta \leq 180^{\circ}$. Then

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We're actually going to prove this in the case $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. But first recall the linear transformations on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ given by rotations. That is, if $\gamma$ is any angle let $R_{\gamma} \mathbf{x}$ be the arrow $\mathbf{x}$ rotated counterclockwise by the angle $\gamma$.

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Example: if $\mathbf{x}=\binom{3}{4}$ and $\mathbf{y}=\binom{-1}{1}$ then $\|\mathbf{x}\|=5$ and $\|\mathbf{y}\|=\sqrt{2}$, $\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}=1$.

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$$
\cos \theta=\binom{3 / 5}{4 / 5}^{T}\binom{-1 / \sqrt{2}}{1 / \sqrt{2}}=\frac{-3}{5 \sqrt{2}}+\frac{4}{5 \sqrt{2}}=\frac{1}{5 \sqrt{2}}
$$

## The Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

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If $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, then $\left|\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}\right| \leq\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\|$.

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If $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, we say that $\mathbf{x}$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{y}$ if $\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}=0$. We denote this by writing $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$.

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Note that if $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ then also $\mathbf{y} \perp \mathbf{x}$. Also $\mathbf{0}$ is orthogonal to any vector.

## The Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

## Theorem

If $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, then $\left|\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}\right| \leq\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\|$.
In $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ or $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ this follows from $\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}=\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\| \cos \theta$ and the fact that $|\cos \theta| \leq 1$. In $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ for $n>3$ we can rotate 2 variables at a time (without changing the scalar product or the norms) until coordinates $x_{j}$ and $y_{j}$ are 0 for all $j>2$. Then apply the $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ case.

## Definition

If $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, we say that $\mathbf{x}$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{y}$ if $\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}=0$. We denote this by writing $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$.

Note that if $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ then also $\mathbf{y} \perp \mathbf{x}$. Also $\mathbf{0}$ is orthogonal to any vector. In $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ or $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, if neither $\mathbf{x}$ nor $\mathbf{y}$ is $\mathbf{0}$ then $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ means that the angle between them is $90^{\circ}$.

Some properties of orthogonality:

1. If $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}_{1}, \mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}_{n}$ then $\mathbf{x}$ is orthogonal to every vector in $\operatorname{Span}\left(\mathbf{y}_{1}, \mathbf{y}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_{n}\right)$. Proof:

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\mathbf{x}^{T}\left(c_{1} \mathbf{y}_{1}+\cdots+c_{n} \mathbf{y}_{n}\right)=c_{1} \mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}_{1}+\cdots+c_{n} \mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}_{n}=0+\cdots+0=0
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3. $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{x}$ if and only if $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{0}$. Proof: $0=\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{x}=x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}$ can only be true if all $x_{j}=0$.

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Here $x_{1}$ is leading, $x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$ are free. The basic solutions

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
2 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad\left(\begin{array}{r}
-3 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right)
$$

are orthogonal to a, as is every vector in their span.

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\left(\begin{array}{rrr}
1 & -1 & 3 \\
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\end{array}\right) \xrightarrow{R_{2}+R_{1}}\left(\begin{array}{rrr}
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This has leading variables $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ with free variable $x_{3}$, also $x_{1}=-5 x_{3}$
and $x_{2}=-2 x_{3}$ and so the vectors $\left(\begin{array}{c}-5 \alpha \\ -2 \alpha \\ \alpha\end{array}\right)$ are orthogonal to $\mathbf{a}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{a}_{2}$, for any choice of $\alpha$.

## Orthogonal Projection

If $\mathbf{x}=\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}}$ then $\|\mathbf{x}\|=\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}$ is the distance from the point
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Suppose we want to find the point on a line that is closest to the point $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$. Suppose we can express a line as all points that are tips of the vectors $\alpha \mathbf{y}$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

The following is a picture of this setup:


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To get $\mathbf{p}$ itself we observe that $\mathbf{u}=(1 /\|\mathbf{y}\|) \mathbf{y}$ has the same direction as both $\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{p}$, but has length 1 .

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If $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ belong to $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ or $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ then:
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Note that the scalar projection $\alpha$ times the vector $\mathbf{u}=(1 /\|\mathbf{y}\|) \mathbf{y}$ is the vector projection.

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If we try this with a line $L$ that does not pass through $(0,0)$ we simply have to pick two points $P_{0}$ and $P_{1}$ on the line. The displacement vector from $P_{0}$ to $P_{1}$ will be denoted $\vec{P}_{0} P_{1}$. All the calculations to get the point on $L$ closest to a point $P$ then take place with $\mathbf{x}=\overrightarrow{P_{0} P}$ and $\mathbf{y}={\overrightarrow{P_{0} P_{1}}}_{1}$. When we find $\mathbf{p}$, the closest point will be the point $Q$ such that $\overrightarrow{P_{0} Q}=\mathbf{p}$.

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$\mathbf{x}=\overrightarrow{P_{0} P}=\binom{1}{3}$. Then we get the projection of $\mathbf{x}$ onto $\mathbf{y}$

$$
\mathbf{p}=\frac{\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y}^{T} \mathbf{y}} \mathbf{y}=\frac{6}{10}\binom{3}{1}=\binom{1.8}{0.6}
$$

To get that closest point, we add the components of $\mathbf{p}$ to $P_{0}$ to get $Q=(1.8,1.6)$ and the distance $\left((1-1.8)^{2}+(4-1.6)^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}=\sqrt{6.4} \approx 2.53$.

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In the usual format (i.e., using variables $x, y, z$ ) this says that
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## Planes in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$

A plane can be specified in terms of orthogonality. If $\mathbf{a}$ is any vector, then the set of vectors orthogonal to $\mathbf{a}$ is a plane passing through $(0,0,0)$. The expression of orthogonality gives us an equation for the plane:

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$$
a\left(x-x_{0}\right)+b\left(y-y_{0}\right)+c\left(z-z_{0}\right)=0
$$

