

0. *Reminder.* Unless otherwise stated, we will deliberately confuse each  $(1 \times 1)$ -matrix with the entry in the matrix.

1. **Definition. (Inner product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .)**

For any  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , write  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^t \mathbf{v}$ .

$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  is called the inner product of the vector  $\mathbf{u}$  with the vector  $\mathbf{v}$ .

$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is called the inner product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Remark.** Many people refer to  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  as the ‘dot product’. A common alternative notation for  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  is  $\mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{v}$ . For this reason, we may, for convenience, read it as ‘ $\mathbf{u}$  dot  $\mathbf{v}$ ’.

2. **Theorem (1). (Basic properties of inner product.)**

The statements below hold:

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$ .
- (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\langle \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ .
- (c) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .
- (d) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \geq 0$ . Moreover, equality holds if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}_n$ .

3. **Proof of Theorem (1).**

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Denote the  $j$ -th entry of  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  as  $u_j, v_j$  respectively.

$$\text{Then } \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^t \mathbf{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \cdots + u_n v_n.$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \mathbf{v}^t \mathbf{u} = v_1 u_1 + v_2 u_2 + \cdots + v_n u_n.$$

$$\text{Therefore } \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle.$$

- (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\text{Then } \langle \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = (\alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v})^t \mathbf{w} = (\alpha \mathbf{u}^t + \beta \mathbf{v}^t) \mathbf{w} = \alpha \mathbf{u}^t \mathbf{w} + \beta \mathbf{v}^t \mathbf{w} = \alpha \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle.$$

- (c) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\text{Then } \langle \mathbf{w}, \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle.$$

- (d) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Denote the  $j$ -th entry of  $\mathbf{u}$  as  $u_j$  respectively.

$$\text{Then } \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \cdots + u_n^2 \geq 0.$$

Hence  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $u_j = 0$  for each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . The latter happens exactly when  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}_n$ .

4. **Definition. (Norm.)**

For any  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the number  $\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle}$  is called the norm of the vector  $\mathbf{u}$ , and is denoted by  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$ .

**Remark.** By definition,  $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$ . It is often read as ‘norm-square of  $\mathbf{u}$ ’.

5. **Theorem (2). (Basic properties of norm.)**

The statements below hold:

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\|\mathbf{u}\| \geq 0$ . Moreover, equality holds if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}_n$ .
- (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\|\alpha \mathbf{u}\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|\mathbf{u}\|$ .

6. **Proof of Theorem (2).**

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\text{By definition, } \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \geq 0. \text{ Then } \|\mathbf{u}\| \geq 0.$$

Moreover,  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 0$  if and only if  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 0$ . The latter happens exactly when  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}_n$ .

- (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\text{Then } \|\alpha \mathbf{u}\|^2 = \langle \alpha \mathbf{u}, \alpha \mathbf{u} \rangle = \alpha \cdot \alpha \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \alpha^2 \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \alpha^2 \|\mathbf{u}\|^2.$$

$$\text{Therefore } \|\alpha \mathbf{u}\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|\mathbf{u}\|.$$

7. **Theorem (3). (Conversion between inner product and norm.)**

The statements below hold:

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\|\mathbf{u} \pm \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \pm 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  respectively.
- (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \pm \frac{1}{2}(\|\mathbf{u} \pm \mathbf{v}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2)$  respectively.
- (c) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = 2\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ .

**Remark.** The result described in Item (b) is known as the polarization identity. The result described in Item (c) is known as the parallelogram identity.

**Proof of Theorem (3).** Exercise.

8. **Theorem (4). (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality.)**

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$ . Moreover, equality holds if and only if  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are linearly dependent.

**Theorem (5). (Triangle Inequality.)**

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$ . Moreover, equality holds if and only if  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are non-negative scalar multiples of each other.

**Corollary to Theorem (5). (Triangle Inequality also.)**

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| \geq | \|\mathbf{u}\| - \|\mathbf{v}\| |$ . Moreover, equality holds if and only if  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are non-negative scalar multiples of each other.

9. **Definition. (Orthogonality.)**

Let  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We say  $\mathbf{u}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{v}$ , and write  $\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v}$ , if and only if  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$ .

10. **Theorem (6). (Basic properties of orthogonality.)**

The statements below hold:

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{u}$ .
- (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{u}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}_n$ .
- (c) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $(\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v}$  for any  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}_n$ .
- (d) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v}$ .

**Proof of Theorem (6).** Exercise (in the matrix/vector algebra).

11. **Appendix 1: Proof of the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality.**

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ . Then  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| = 0 = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$ .
- (b) From now on suppose neither of  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  is the zero vector.

Define the quadratic polynomial  $f(x)$  by  $f(x) = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 x^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle x + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ . The discriminant  $\Delta$  of  $f(x)$  is given by  $\Delta = 4(\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle)^2 - 4\|\mathbf{u}\|^2\|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ .

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $f(\alpha) = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \alpha^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \alpha + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \dots = \|\mathbf{u} + \alpha \mathbf{v}\|^2 \geq 0$ .

Then  $\Delta \leq 0$ .

Therefore  $4(\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle)^2 \leq 4\|\mathbf{u}\|^2\|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ .

Hence  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$ .

- (c) Suppose  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$ . Then  $\Delta = 0$ .

Therefore the quadratic polynomial  $f(x)$  has a repeated real root, say, ' $x = \rho$ '.

By definition  $0 = f(\rho) = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \rho^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \rho + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u} - \rho \mathbf{v}\|^2$ .

Then  $1 \cdot \mathbf{u} - \rho \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} - \rho \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ . Therefore  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are linearly dependent.

- (d) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are linearly dependent.

Then there exist some  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\alpha, \beta$  are not both zero and  $\alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .

Since neither of  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  is the zero vector, neither of  $\alpha, \beta$  is 0.

Write  $\gamma = -\beta/\alpha$ . We have  $\mathbf{u} = \gamma \mathbf{v}$ .

Then  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| = |\langle \mathbf{u}, \gamma \mathbf{u} \rangle| = |\gamma \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle| = |\gamma| \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = |\gamma| \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$ .

12. **Appendix 2: Proof of the Triangle Inequality.**

Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- (a) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .

Without loss of generality, suppose  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ .

Then  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$ .

- (b) From now on suppose neither of  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  is the zero vector.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} (\|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|)^2 - \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 &= (\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|) - (\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle) \\ &= 2(\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| - \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle) \end{aligned}$$

- (c) By the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality,  $\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \geq \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .

Then  $(\|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|)^2 - \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 \geq 0$ .

Therefore  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 \leq (\|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|)^2$ .

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

- (d) Suppose  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$ .

Then  $2(\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| - \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle) = (\|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|)^2 - \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = 0$ .

Therefore  $\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .

By the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality, we have  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .

We also have  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \leq |\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle|$ .

Then we have  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .

By the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality,  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are linearly dependent. Then  $\mathbf{u} = \gamma \mathbf{v}$  for some  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Now  $|\gamma| \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \gamma \|\mathbf{u}\|^2$ . Since  $\mathbf{u}$  is not the zero vector,  $|\gamma| = \gamma$ . Then  $\gamma \geq 0$ .

- (e) Suppose  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are non-negative scalar multiples of each other.

Then there is some non-negative real number  $\rho$  so that  $\mathbf{v} = \rho \mathbf{u}$ . Note that  $1 + \rho \geq 0$ .

Then  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| = \|(1 + \rho)\mathbf{u}\| = |1 + \rho| \cdot \|\mathbf{u}\| = (1 + \rho)\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| + |\rho| \cdot \|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$ .

### 13. Appendix 3: Geometric interpretation of the inner product, the normal, and orthogonality.

- (a) Recall the geometric interpretation of (column) vectors:

We visualize the column vector, say,  $\mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} t_1 \\ t_2 \\ \vdots \\ t_n \end{bmatrix}$  as an arrow with 'arrowhead' at the point  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$  in

real coordinate  $n$ -space and with tail at its origin.

We may then further identify this vector as the point  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ .

By definition,  $\|\mathbf{t}\| = \sqrt{t_1^2 + t_2^2 + \dots + t_n^2}$ .

This is the (Euclidean) distance between the origin and the point  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$  in the coordinate  $n$ -space. Why?

- The origin, the point  $(t_1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$  and the point with coordinate  $(t_1, t_2, 0, \dots, 0)$  are the vertices of a right-angle triangle with right angle at the point  $(t_1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ . Then, by Pythagoras' Theorem, the distance between the origin and the point with  $(t_1, t_2, 0, \dots, 0)$  is given by  $\sqrt{t_1^2 + t_2^2}$ .
- The origin, the point  $(t_1, t_2, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$  and the point with coordinate  $(t_1, t_2, t_3, 0, \dots, 0)$  are the vertices of a right-angle triangle with right angle at the point  $(t_1, t_2, 0, \dots, 0)$ . Then, by Pythagoras' Theorem, the distance between the origin and the point with  $(t_1, t_2, t_3, 0, \dots, 0)$  is given by  $\sqrt{t_1^2 + t_2^2 + t_3^2}$ .
- The origin, the point  $(t_1, t_2, t_3, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$  and the point with coordinate  $(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, 0, \dots, 0)$  are the vertices of a right-angle triangle with right angle at the point  $(t_1, t_2, t_3, 0, \dots, 0)$ . Then, by Pythagoras' Theorem, the distance between the origin and the point with  $(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, 0, \dots, 0)$  is given by  $\sqrt{t_1^2 + t_2^2 + t_3^2 + t_4^2}$ .
- So forth and so on. We deduce that the distance between the origin and the point with  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{n-1}, 0)$  is given by  $\sqrt{t_1^2 + t_2^2 + \dots + t_{n-1}^2}$ .

- The origin, the point  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{n-1}, 0)$  and the point with coordinate  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{n-1}, t_n)$  are the vertices of a right-angle triangle with right angle at the point  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{n-1}, 0)$ .

Then, by Pythagoras' Theorem, the distance between the origin and the point with  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$  is given by  $\sqrt{t_1^2 + t_2^2 + \dots + t_n^2}$ .

(b) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$ . They are respectively identified as the points  $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n), (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$

in the coordinate  $n$ -space.

Then  $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 + \dots + (u_n - v_n)^2}$  is the (Euclidean) distance between the points  $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n), (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  in the coordinate  $n$ -space.

(c) Suppose  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$ . They are respectively identified as the points  $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n), (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$

in the coordinate  $n$ -space.

Suppose these two points and the origin in the coordinate  $n$ -space are three non-collinear points in the coordinate  $n$ -space.

Denote by  $\theta$  the angle at the origin in the triangle whose vertices are these three points.

By the Cosine Law,  $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos(\theta)$ .

Then  $\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2) = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .

Hence  $\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|}$ .

In this context, the inequality in the result 'Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality'  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$  is simply re-stating the 'fact' that  $\cos(\theta)$  has magnitude between  $-1$  and  $1$ .

The inequality  $\|\mathbf{u}\| \leq \|\mathbf{v}\| + \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$  (which is a consequence of the 'Triangle Inequality') is simply re-stating the 'fact' that the length of the line segment joining the origin to the point  $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$  is no greater than the sum of the lengths of the line segments respectively joining the origin to the point  $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  and joining the point  $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  to the point  $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ .

The vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is orthogonal to the vector  $\mathbf{v}$  exactly when the line segment joining the origin and the point  $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$  meet the line segment joining the origin with the point  $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  at right angle.