We have previous seen the case of a projection of a vector onto a single vector (or, equivalently, a one dimensional subspace). We will generalize this idea to projection onto a r-dimensional subspace. For example, when one wants to represent a 3-dimensional object on, say, a computer screen, we must project the object onto a 2-dimensional plane (namely the screen).

For the projection onto a line, L, in  ${\bf R}^2$  passing through the origin, we have seen that the standard matrix is given by

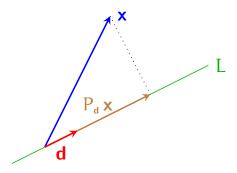
$$P_{\mathbf{d}} = \frac{1}{d_1^2 + d_2^2} \begin{bmatrix} d_1^2 & d_1 d_2 \\ d_1 d_2 & d_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\mathbf{d} = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

is any vector parallel to the direction of L.

# **PROJECTIONS**



Let

$$\textbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_1^2 + d_2^2}} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

be a *unit* vector in the direction of **d**. Now

$$\mathbf{u}\,\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} = \frac{1}{d_1^2 + d_2^2} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{d_1^2 + d_2^2} \begin{bmatrix} d_1^2 & d_1 d_2 \\ d_1 d_2 & d_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and so

$$P_d = u u^T$$
.

This is a very convenient form for the standard matrix. Note that

$$P_{\boldsymbol{d}}^{\mathsf{T}} = (\boldsymbol{u}\,\boldsymbol{u}^{\mathsf{T}})^{\mathsf{T}} = \boldsymbol{u}\,\boldsymbol{u}^{\mathsf{T}} = P_{\boldsymbol{d}}$$

and so  $P_d$  is a *symmetric* matrix. Since u is a unit vector

$$\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{u} = 1$$

and so

$$P_{\boldsymbol{d}}^2 = \boldsymbol{u} \left( \boldsymbol{u}^\mathsf{T} \, \boldsymbol{u} \right) \boldsymbol{u}^\mathsf{T} = \boldsymbol{u} \, \boldsymbol{u}^\mathsf{T} = P_{\boldsymbol{d}}.$$

A matrix A such that  $A^2 = A$  is called *idempotent*. This reflects the fact that if we project a vector that lies in the subspace then it will be unchanged. Furthermore

$$P_{\mathbf{d}} = \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_1^2 + d_2^2}} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \, \mathbf{u} & d_2 \, \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix}$$

and so

$$col(P_d) = span(u)$$
.

Thus the one dimensional subspace which  $P_d$  projects onto its column space.

## **PROJECTIONS**

## **DEFINITION 10.9 (Projection Matrix)**

A n × n matrix P is called a projection matrix if it is symmetric  $(P^T = P)$  and idempotent  $(P^2 = P)$ .

The following theorem shows that this definition captures the idea of a projection at least in the 1-dimensional case.

#### **THEOREM 10.10**

Let P be a rank 1 projection matrix. Then

$$P = u u^T$$

where  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathsf{col}\left(\mathsf{P}\right)$  is a unit vector. Furthermore

$$P\,\mathbf{x}=\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{u}}\left(\mathbf{x}\right)$$

and so P is the standard matrix for the linear transformation  $proj_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x})$ .

Proof: Since P has rank 1, we have

$$P = \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} \nu_1 \, \mathbf{u} & \nu_2 \, \mathbf{u} & \cdots & \nu_n \, \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix}$$

where we can assume that, without loss of generality,  $\mathbf{u}$  is a unit vector (why?). We must show  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}$ . Since P is idempotent, we have

$$O = P^2 - P = \mathbf{u} \, (\mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{u}) \, \mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T} - \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T}$$

Now  $\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{u}$  is a scalar (it is a dot product). Therefore we have

$$\mathbf{u} \, \left( \mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{u} \right) \mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T} = \left( \mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{u} \right) \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T}.$$

Thus

$$O = (\mathbf{v}^T \, \mathbf{u} - 1) \, \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{v}^T$$

and so

$$\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u}=1.$$

Furthermore P is symmetric and so

$$P^{\mathsf{T}} = \boldsymbol{v} \, \boldsymbol{u}^{\mathsf{T}} = \boldsymbol{u} \, \boldsymbol{v}^{\mathsf{T}} = P.$$

## **PROJECTIONS**

Now  $\mathbf{u}$  is a unit vector,  $\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{u} = 1$  and so

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} (\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{u}) = (\mathbf{v} \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}) \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{u}$$
 since P is symmetric  $= \mathbf{u} (\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{u}$  since P is idempotent

as required. Clearly  $\mathbf{u} \in \text{col}(P)$ . Finally, since  $\mathbf{u}$  is a unit vector, we have

$$P \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{u} = \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} (\mathbf{x}).$$

This result generalizes our earlier observations in  $\mathbf{R}^2$  to  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . The projection of a vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$  onto a direction given by the unit vector  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbf{R}^n$  is given by  $\mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{u}^T \, \mathbf{x}$ . Note that there are two choices for the unit vector  $(\pm \, \mathbf{u})$  but that the projection formula is independent of that choice.

## Example

Find the projection of  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  onto the direction  $\mathbf{d} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Solution:** A unit vector in the direction of **d** is  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{5} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$ . Therefore

$$P = \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} = \frac{1}{25} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{25} \begin{bmatrix} 16 & 0 & -12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -12 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus

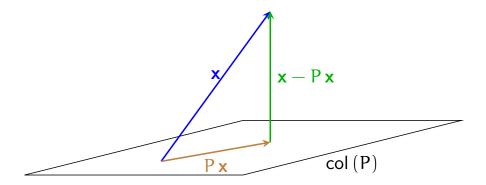
$$\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{d}}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{P}\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{25} \begin{bmatrix} 16 & 0 & -12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -12 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{25} \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

## **PROJECTIONS**

What is the effect of projection matrices of higher rank? We know that  $P \mathbf{x}$  is a linear combination of the columns of P and so P might act as a projection onto its column space. At this stage we have two options to address this question. First we could consider more examples. For example, we could examine the projection of a vector onto a 2-dimensional subspace in  $\mathbf{R}^3$  (that is, onto a plane passing through the origin). The second alternative is to try to generalize the properties we have found in the rank 1 case.

Exercise: Do Problems 6-12 on pages 378-379 (pages 364-365 in the second edition) in Poole. This computes the projection of a vector in  $\mathbf{R}^3$  onto a plane passing through the origin.

The idea of projection is to split a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  into a component which lies in a given subspace  $(P \mathbf{x})$  and a component which is perpendicular to that subspace  $(\mathbf{x} - P \mathbf{x})$ .



The two crucial properties for a projection are

- Any vector  $\mathbf{v} \in \text{col}(P)$  remains unchanged; that is  $P \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ .
- For any x, the "orthogonal" component x P x is orthogonal to every vector in col (P).

## **PROJECTIONS**

The question that we must address is whether we have captured these two geometric properties in our (algebraic) definition of a projection matrix. As a first step, we can check that these two properties hold in the 1-dimensional case by using the explicit form of  $P = \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{u}^T$ .

We see that if  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathsf{col}\,(\mathsf{P})$  then  $\mathbf{v} = c\,\mathbf{u}$  for some scalar c and so

$$P \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} c \mathbf{u} = c \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$$

since  $\mathbf{u}$  is a unit vector. Thus, in the rank 1 case, P leaves unchanged anything in its column space. In addition, for any  $\mathbf{x}$ , we have

$$\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{P} \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{u}) \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

since  $\mathbf{u}$  is a unit vector. Therefore  $\mathbf{x} - P \mathbf{x}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{u}$  and so is orthogonal to any vector in col (P).

Let us consider the general case. Suppose P is a projection matrix. Does the associated linear transformation satisfy the two requirements for a projection? For any  $\mathbf{x}$ , we have

$$P(\mathbf{x} - P\mathbf{x}) = P\mathbf{x} - P^2\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

since  $P^2 = P$  and so  $\mathbf{x} - P \mathbf{x} \in \text{null}(P)$ . Thus we want the null space of P to be "orthogonal" to the column space of P. Let  $\mathbf{y} \in \text{null}(P)$ . Since  $P^T = P$ , the rows of P are the same as the columns of P and so

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_1^T \\ \mathbf{p}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{p}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\mathbf{p}_i$  are the columns of P. Thus

## **PROJECTIONS**

$$P \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_1^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{p}_2^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{p}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Thus  $\mathbf{y}$  is orthogonal to any vector in  $\operatorname{col}(P) = \operatorname{span}(\mathbf{p}_1, \ \mathbf{p}_2, \ \ldots, \ \mathbf{p}_n)$ .

The fact that P is idempotent guarantees that  $\mathbf{x} - P \mathbf{x} \in \text{null}(P)$ . The fact that P is symmetric guarantees that anything in the null space of P is orthogonal to any vector in the column space of P. In particular, if  $\mathbf{y}$  is in *both* null (P) and col (P) then  $\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$  and so  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ . Finally, for  $\mathbf{v} \in \text{col}(P)$  we have  $\mathbf{v} - P \mathbf{v} \in \text{col}(P)$  (why?) and  $\mathbf{v} - P \mathbf{v} \in \text{null}(P)$ . Thus  $\mathbf{v} - P \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  and so

$$P \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$$

as required for a projection. Thus the linear transformation associated with a projection matrix is a projection in the geometric sense.

#### **THEOREM 10.11**

Let P be a  $n \times n$  projection matrix of rank r. Let  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ \mathbf{v}_2, \ \dots, \ \mathbf{v}_r\}$  be a basis for col (P) and  $\{\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \ \mathbf{v}_{r+2}, \ \dots, \ \mathbf{v}_n\}$  be a basis for null (P). Then  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ \mathbf{v}_2, \ \dots, \ \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . Furthermore, if  $\mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{v}_n$  then

$$P \mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + c_r \mathbf{v}_r.$$

Geometrically, we are splitting a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  into a component that lies in the subspace, the *parallel component* 

$$\mathsf{proj}_{\mathsf{col}\,(P)}\left(\mathbf{v}\right) = \mathbf{v}_{\parallel} = \mathsf{P}\,\mathbf{v} = c_1\,\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\,\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_r\,\mathbf{v}_r$$
,

and a component that is orthogonal to the subspace, the *orthogonal* (or *perpendicular*) *component* 

$$\mathsf{perp}_{\mathsf{col}\,(P)}\,(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}_\perp = \mathbf{v} - P\,\mathbf{v} = c_{r+1}\,\mathbf{v}_{r+1} + c_{r+2}\,\mathbf{v}_{r+2} + \dots + c_n\,\mathbf{v}_n.$$

## **PROJECTIONS**

We have yet to find an efficient way (or for that matter any way) to compute P. We need a symmetric and idempotent matrix with a prescribed column space.

Note that, for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, r$ ,

$$\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_r \mathbf{v}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{v}_r$$

since  $\mathbf{v}_i$  is orthogonal to everything in null (P). This gives a system of r equations for the r unknowns  $c_1,\ c_2,\ldots,\ c_r$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_r \\ \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_r \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v} \\ \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v} \end{bmatrix}.$$

This system can be rewritten

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \\ \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \\ \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}.$$

Since  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$  are linearly independent (they form a basis), the rank of the coefficient matrix is r and so this system has a unique solution for all  $\mathbf{v}$ . Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_r \end{bmatrix}$$
;

a matrix whose column space is given by span  $(\mathbf{v}_1,\,\mathbf{v}_2,\,\dots,\,\mathbf{v}_r)$ , then this system takes the form

$$A^T A \mathbf{c} = A^T \mathbf{v}$$
.

## **PROJECTIONS**

## Example

Find the projection of  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  onto the subspace spanned by

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Solution: Now

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The system is

$$\begin{bmatrix} A^{\mathsf{T}} A \mid A^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{v} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 35 & 5 \mid 3 \\ 5 & 5 \mid 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \mid \frac{1}{15} \\ 0 & 1 \mid \frac{2}{15} \end{bmatrix}$$

and so the projection is

$$P \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{15} \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{2}{15} \mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This is a cumbersome way to compute the projection (particularly if one wants to project many vectors onto the same subspace). With the rank 1 case, we found a very nice form for P by choosing a special basis for the subspace; namely a unit vector to span the 1-dimensional subspace. Can we do a similar thing with the higher rank cases?

## **PROJECTIONS**

The coefficent matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_r \\ \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_r \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T} \, \mathbf{v}_r \end{bmatrix}$$

If we choose an orthogonal basis for the column space then the coefficient matrix would become a *diagonal* matrix. In this case, the solution of the system is immediate and is given by

$$c_j = \frac{\textbf{v}_j^\mathsf{T}\,\textbf{v}}{\textbf{v}_j^\mathsf{T}\,\textbf{v}_j}.$$

Note that

$$c_j\, \mathbf{v}_j = \frac{\mathbf{v}_j^\mathsf{T}\, \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}_i^\mathsf{T}\, \mathbf{v}_j}\, \mathbf{v}_j = \frac{\mathbf{v}_j^\mathsf{T}\, \mathbf{v}\, \mathbf{v}_j}{\mathbf{v}_i^\mathsf{T}\, \mathbf{v}_j} = \frac{\mathbf{v}_j\, \mathbf{v}_j^\mathsf{T}}{\mathbf{v}_i^\mathsf{T}\, \mathbf{v}_j}\, \mathbf{v}$$

since  $\mathbf{v}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{v}$  is a scalar and so

$$P \mathbf{v} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T}{\mathbf{v}_1^T \mathbf{v}_1} + \frac{\mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T}{\mathbf{v}_2^T \mathbf{v}_2} + \dots + \frac{\mathbf{v}_r \mathbf{v}_r^T}{\mathbf{v}_r^T \mathbf{v}_r}\right) \mathbf{v}.$$

Furthermore if we chose an orthonormal basis then the coefficient matrix will be an identity matrix. In this case the solution simplifies to

$$P\,\boldsymbol{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{v}_1\,\boldsymbol{v}_1^T + \boldsymbol{v}_2\,\boldsymbol{v}_2^T + \dots + \boldsymbol{v}_r\,\boldsymbol{v}_r^T \end{pmatrix}\,\boldsymbol{v}$$

and we see

$$P = \mathbf{v}_1 \, \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} + \mathbf{v}_2 \, \mathbf{v}_2^\mathsf{T} + \dots + \mathbf{v}_r \, \mathbf{v}_r^\mathsf{T}.$$

# **GRAM SCHMIDT PROCESS**

Reference: §5.2-5.3 in Poole.

We have seen that if  $\{\mathbf{q}_1, \ \mathbf{q}_2, \ \dots, \ \mathbf{q}_k\}$  is an orthonormal basis for a subspace W then

$$\mathsf{proj}_{\mathcal{W}}(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{q}_1 \, \mathbf{q}_1^\mathsf{T} + \mathbf{q}_2 \, \mathbf{q}_2^\mathsf{T} + \dots + \mathbf{q}_k \, \mathbf{q}_k^\mathsf{T}) \, \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q} \, \mathbf{Q}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}$$

where

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{q}_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus we can decompose the projection onto W

$$\operatorname{proj}_{W}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{q}_{1}}(\mathbf{x}) + \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{q}_{2}}(\mathbf{x}) + \cdots + \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{q}_{k}}(\mathbf{x})$$

to the sum of projections onto each of the vectors in the basis. Thus, if we *choose* an orthonormal basis, then the projection onto W can be computed by computing the projection onto each of the 1-dimensional subspaces given by span  $(\mathbf{q}_i)$ .