W07-01

Slide 01: In this unit, we will discuss how to compute the orthogonal projection of a vector onto a subspace.

Slide 02: Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n that we would like to project onto. Suppose \boldsymbol{w} is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n . If we have an orthogonal basis for V, comprising of vectors $\boldsymbol{u_1}$, $\boldsymbol{u_2}$ to $\boldsymbol{u_k}$, then the projection of \boldsymbol{w} onto V

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is given by the following expression. Notice that this expression is a linear combination of the orthogonal basis vectors u_1 to u_k . This is expected as the projection is a vector in V and thus should be expressible as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

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If we have an orthonormal basis for V instead, comprising of vectors v_1 , v_2 to v_k , then the projection of w onto V, written as a linear combination of the orthonormal basis vectors is as shown.

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Take another look at the expression for the projection of w onto V. Do you find this expression familiar? Have you seen the same expression from an earlier unit?

Slide 03: Indeed we have seen this expression before. Recall from an earlier unit, when we introduced the special class of bases known as orthogonal basis, we saw that if u_1 to u_k is an orthogonal basis for a vector space V, then to write any vector w in V as a linear combination of the orthogonal basis vectors can be done without having to solve any linear systems to find the coefficients. This expression is precisely how w can be written in terms of u_1 to u_k .

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Now compare to what we have just seen from the previous slide, which states that if u_1 to u_k is an orthogonal basis for the vector space V, then for any w in \mathbb{R}^n , the projection of w onto V is given by the same expression as we have seen above.

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Why are the two expressions identical and why does this make sense?

Slide 04: To see why this makes sense, consider the case where we are projecting a vector \boldsymbol{w} onto V.

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The figure here shows \boldsymbol{w} to be outside V,

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so when we project w onto V, we obtain a different vector p whose expression is the linear combination of u_1 to u_k as shown.

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Recall that by orthogonal projection, we mean decomposing \boldsymbol{w} and writing it as the sum of two vectors \boldsymbol{p} and \boldsymbol{n} where \boldsymbol{p} belongs to V and \boldsymbol{n} is orthogonal to V.

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We have mentioned earlier what orthogonal projection means if the vector \boldsymbol{w} is already in the subspace V that we would like to project on, as shown in the figure on the left.

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The projection of w onto V in this case is simply w itself. This is where the expression from an earlier unit comes in, where we are writing w as a linear combination of the orthogonal basis vectors u_1 to u_k .

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If thought of as a projection, we are decomposing w as w + 0. So indeed there is no conflict in seeing the same expression twice, since the notion of projection can take place whether or not w belongs to V.

Slide 05: We are now ready to present a proof of this orthogonal projection theorem. Remember that this theorem allows us to compute orthogonal projection of any \boldsymbol{w} in \mathbb{R}^n onto the subspace V provided we have an orthogonal basis for V.

Slide 06: To prove the theorem, let p be the expression given in the statement of the theorem.

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We will show that \boldsymbol{p} is indeed the projection of \boldsymbol{w} onto V.

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First, observe that p is definitely a vector in V since it is a linear combination of the basis vectors u_1 to u_k .

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Next, we define the vector \boldsymbol{n} to be the difference between \boldsymbol{w} and \boldsymbol{p} . Why do we want to do this?

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By doing this, it would mean that w is in fact decomposed into n plus p, where we have already noted that p is a vector in V.

Slide 07: What remains for us to do, in order to conclude that p is the orthogonal projection of w onto V, is to show that the vector n, in the way we have defined it, is orthogonal to the space V. If we can do this, then we would have established that p will be the projection of w onto V.

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Recall that to show that a vector is orthogonal to a space, we need to show that it is orthogonal to the vectors that spans the space. Thus, we will check whether n is orthogonal to each of the u_i 's.

Slide 08: So for each i = 1 to k, consider the dot product between n with u_i . Since n is w - p, we have the expression on the right side of the equation,

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which can be simplified as follows by applying distributive law.

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We now write down the expression for p as shown.

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Now consider the expression in the red box. Here we have the dot product between u_i and a linear combination of u_1 to u_k .

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If we apply distributive law on this expression, we should have many terms as a result. Why is it that only one term remain? Namely, the only term that remains seems to be the $u_i \cdot u_i$ term.

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The reason is because that u_1 to u_k is an orthogonal set. This means that the vectors in the set are pairwise orthogonal, so the dot product between u_i and u_j will be zero whenever $i \neq j$. This is why only the $u_i \cdot u_i$ term remains.

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Now the dot product of u_i with itself is the square of the length of u_i . This will cancel with the denominator of the coefficient,

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which reduces the expression to $w \cdot u_i$ minus $w \cdot u_i$ which is 0.

Slide 09: We have thus established that n is indeed a vector orthogonal to V since it is orthogonal to the vectors that spans V.

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The vector \boldsymbol{w} in \mathbb{R}^n , has now been written as the sum of two vectors \boldsymbol{n} and \boldsymbol{p} where (#)

 \boldsymbol{n} is orthogonal to V while

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 \boldsymbol{p} belongs to V. So the vector \boldsymbol{p} is indeed the orthogonal projection of \boldsymbol{w} onto V.

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The second part of the theorem actually follows immediately from the first part, since when v_1 to v_k is an orthonormal basis for V, they are orthogonal vectors of length 1.

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Thus the denominators of all the coefficients in the expression for p is now 1 and we will obtain the expression for the projection of w onto V accordingly.

Slide 10: Let us go through one example. Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 spanned by the two vectors (1,0,1) and (1,0,-1). Notice that these two vectors are not multiples of each other, meaning that they are linearly independent. Thus the two vectors form a basis for V.

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In addition, note that the dot product between the two vectors is 0, which means that these two vectors are orthogonal.

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So the two vectorss actually form an orthogonal basis for V. Now that we have an orthogonal basis for V, we are ready to compute projection of vectors onto V.

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What is the projection of the vector (1, 1, 0) onto V?

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Using the orthogonal projection theorem, we have the following linear combination of (1,0,1) and (1,0,-1) as the projection of \boldsymbol{w} onto V.

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This simplifies to the vector (1,0,0) which is the projection of \boldsymbol{w} onto V.

Slide 11: What about this subspace V of \mathbb{R}^3 ? It is also spanned by two vectors (1,1,1) and (1,3,-1) which are not multiples of each other. So these two vectors also forms a basis for V.

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However, in this case, the dot product between the two vectors is not zero, which means that this is not an orthogonal basis.

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Remember that to apply the orthogonal projection theorem, we need to have an orthogonal basis for the subspace V that we wish to project on.

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So how can we compute the projection of \boldsymbol{w} onto V in this case?

Slide 12: Clearly, we cannot apply the orthogonal projection theorem in this case. (#)

So when we are faced with the situation that we do not have an orthogonal basis for the subspace V, what can we do?

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In a subsequent unit, we will introduce a process where we can construct an orthogonal basis for a subspace V. Such a basis, once constructed, will then allow us to use the orthogonal projection theorem to compute projection.

Slide 13: In summary, we have seen in this unit (#)

how to compute orthogonal projection of a vector onto a vector space V. This can be done provided we have an orthogonal or orthonormal basis for V.