### Definition 1

If a matrix Y in a linear space of matrices is orthogonal to every matrix in a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$ , Y is said to be *orthogonal* to  $\mathcal{U}$ .

The statement that Y is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{U}$  is sometimes abbreviated to  $Y \perp \mathcal{U}$ .

### Definition 2

Similarly, to indicate that every matrix in a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  is orthogonal to every matrix in a subspace  $\mathcal{W}$ , one says that  $\mathcal{U}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{W}$  or writes  $\mathcal{U} \perp \mathcal{W}$ .

#### Lemma 3

- Let Y represent a matrix in a linear space V, let U and W represent subspaces of V, and take  $\{X_1, \ldots, X_s\}$  to be a set of matrices that spans  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\{Z_1, \ldots, Z_t\}$  to be a set that spans W. Then,  $Y \perp U$  if and only if  $Y \cdot X_i = 0$  for i = 1, ..., s; that is, Y is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{U}$  if and only if Y is orthogonal to each of the matrices  $X_1, \ldots, X_s$ .
- ▶ And, similarly,  $\mathcal{U} \perp \mathcal{W}$  if and only if  $X_i \cdot Z_i = 0$  for  $i=1,\ldots,s$  and  $j=1,\ldots,t$ ; that is,  $\mathcal{U}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{W}$  if and only if each of the matrices  $X_1, \ldots, X_s$  is orthogonal to each of the matrices  $Z_1, \ldots, Z_t$ .

By applying Lemma (3) in the special case where  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{R}^{m \times 1}$  and  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{W}$  are the column spaces of two matrices (each of which has m rows), we obtain the following corollary.

### Corollary 4

Let  $\mathbf{y}$  represent an m-dimensional column vector, and let X represent an  $m \times n$  matrix and Z an  $m \times p$  matrix. Then,  $\mathbf{y}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  if and only if  $X'\mathbf{y} = 0$ . Similarly,  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{C}(Z)$  if and only if X'Z = 0.

### Theorem 5

Let Y represent a matrix in a linear space V, and let U represent an r-dimensional subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then there exists a unique matrix Z in  $\mathcal U$  such that  $(Y-Z)\perp \mathcal U$ , that is, such that the difference between Y and Z is orthogonal to every matrix in  $\mathcal{U}$ . If r=0, then Z = 0, and, if r > 0, Z is expressible as

$$Z = c_1 X_1 + \dots + c_r X_r, \qquad (1)$$

where  $\{X_1, \ldots, X_r\}$  is any orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $c_i = Y \cdot X_i$ (j = 1, ..., r). Moreover, Z = Y if and only if  $Y \in \mathcal{U}$ .

**Proof:** Consider first the case where r = 0. In this case, the only matrix in  $\mathcal{U}$  is the null matrix 0. Clearly, Y - 0 is orthogonal to 0. Thus, there exists a unique matrix Z in  $\mathcal{U}$  such that  $(Y - Z) \perp \mathcal{U}$ , namely, Z=0. Moreover, it is clear that Y=Z if and only if  $Y \in \mathcal{U}$ 

Consider now the case where r > 0. Take  $\{X_1, \ldots, X_r\}$  to be any orthonormal basis for U, and define  $c_i = Y \cdot X_i$  (j = 1, ..., r). Clearly,  $\sum_i c_i X_i \in \mathcal{U}$ , and

$$(\mathbf{Y} - \sum_{i} c_{j} \mathbf{X}_{j}) \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i} = (\mathbf{Y} \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i}) - c_{i} = 0$$

for i = 1, ..., r, implying (from Lemma 3) that  $(Y - \sum_{i} c_{i}X_{j}) \perp \mathcal{U}.$ 

Moreover, for any matrix X such that  $X \in \mathcal{U}$  and  $(Y - X) \perp \mathcal{U}$ , we find that  $(X - \sum_i c_i X_i) \in \mathcal{U}$  and hence

$$(X - \sum_{j} c_j X_j) \cdot (X - \sum_{j} c_j X_j) = (Y - \sum_{j} c_j X_j) \cdot (X - \sum_{j} c_j X_j)$$
$$-(Y - X) \cdot (X - \sum_{j} c_j X_j)$$
$$= 0 - 0 = 0,$$

so that  $(X - \sum_i c_i X_i) = 0$  or equivalently  $X = \sum_i c_i X_i$ .

Definitions and notations

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We conclude that there exists a unique matrix Z in  $\mathcal{U}$  such that  $(Y-Z) \perp \mathcal{U}$ , namely,  $Z = \sum_i c_i X_i$ . To complete the proof, observe that, if Y = Z, then obviously,  $Y \in \mathcal{U}$ , and conversely, if  $Y \in \mathcal{U}$ , then, since Y - Y is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{U}, Y = Z$ .

### Definition 6

Suppose that  $\mathcal U$  is a subspace of a linear space  $\mathcal V$ . Then, it follows from Theorem 5 that, corresponding to each matrix Y in  $\mathcal V$ , there exists a unique matrix Z in  $\mathcal U$  such that Y-Z is orthogonal to  $\mathcal U$ . The matrix Z is called the *orthogonal projection* of Y on  $\mathcal U$  or simply the *projection* of Y on  $\mathcal U$ .

#### Theorem 7

Let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_p$  represent matrices in a linear space  $\mathcal{V}$ , let  $\mathcal{U}$ represent a subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ , and let  $Z_1, \ldots, Z_p$  represent the projections of  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_p$ , respectively, on  $\mathcal{U}$ . Then, for any scalars  $k_1, \ldots, k_n$ , the projection of the linear combination  $k_1 Y_1 + \cdots + k_p Y_p$  (on  $\mathcal{U}$  ) is the corresponding linear combination  $k_1Z_1 + \cdots + k_nZ_n$  of  $Z_1, \ldots, Z_n$ .

**Proof:** By definition,  $Z_i \in \mathcal{U}$  and  $(Y_i - Z_i) \perp \mathcal{U}$  (i = 1, ..., p). Thus,  $(k_1Z_1 + \cdots + k_pZ_p) \in \mathcal{U}$ . Moreover, for every matrix X in  $\mathcal{U}$ ,

$$[k_1Y_1 + \dots + k_pY_p - (k_1Z_1 + \dots + k_pZ_p)] \cdot X$$

$$= [k_1(Y_1 - Z_1) + \dots + k_p(Y_p - Z_p)] \cdot X$$

$$= k_1[(Y_1 - Z_1) \cdot X] + \dots + k_p[(Y_p - Z_p) \cdot X]$$

$$= k_10 + \dots + k_p0 = 0.$$

**Proof:** So that  $[k_1Y_1 + \cdots + k_pY_p - (k_1Z_1 + \cdots + k_pZ_p)] \perp \mathcal{U}$ . We conclude that  $k_1Z_1 + \cdots + k_pZ_p$  is the projection of  $k_1 Y_1 + \cdots + k_p Y_p$  on  $\mathcal{U}$ .

### Theorem 8

Let z represent the projection (with respect to the usual inner product) of an n-dimensional column vector  $\mathbf{v}$  on a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let X represent any  $n \times p$  matrix whose columns span  $\mathcal{U}$ . Then.

$$z = Xb^*$$

for any solution b\* to the linear system

$$X'Xb = X'y$$
 (in b).

**Proof:** Suppose that  $b^*$  is a solution to the linear system X'Xb = X'y. Then  $X'(y - Xb^*) = 0$ , implying that  $y - Xb^*$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  and hence [since  $\mathcal{C}(X) = \mathcal{U}$ ] to  $\mathcal{U}$ . Since  $Xb^* \in \mathcal{U}$ , we conclude that  $Xb^*$  is the projection of y on  $\mathcal{U}$  and hence, by definition, that  $z = Xb^*$ .

### Corollary 9

Let z represent the projection (with respect to the usual inner product) of an n-dimensional column vector  $\mathbf{y}$  on a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let X represent any  $n \times p$  matrix whose columns span  $\mathcal{U}$ . Then.

$$z = X(X'X)^{-}X'y.$$

### Corollary 10

Let y represent an n-dimensional column vector, X an  $n \times p$ matrix, and W any  $n \times q$  matrix such that C(W) = C(X). Then,

$$Wa^* = Xb^*$$

for any solution  $\mathbf{a}^*$  to the linear system  $W'W\mathbf{a} = W'y$  (in  $\mathbf{a}$ ) and any solution  $b^*$  to the linear system X'Xb = X'y (in b).

### Projection **Projection**

### Corollary 11

Let y represent an n-dimensional column vector, and X an  $n \times p$ matrix. Then,  $Xb_1 = Xb_2$  for any two solutions  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  to the linear system X'Xb = X'y (in b).

### Projection Projection

The following theorem gives a converse of Theorem 8.

### Theorem 12

Let z represent the projection (with respect to the usual inner product) of an n-dimensional column vector  $\mathbf{y}$  on a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let X represent any  $n \times p$  matrix whose columns span  $\mathcal{U}$ . Then any  $p \times 1$  vector  $b^*$  such that  $z = Xb^*$  is a solution to the linear system X'Xb = Xy (in b).

**Proof:** In light of Theorem 8, X'Xb = X'y has a solution, say a, and z = Xa. Thus,

$$X'Xb^* = X'z = X'Xa = X'y.$$
 (2)

Let us find the projection (with respect to the usual inner product) of an *n*-dimensional column vector y on a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  in the special case where n=2, y=(4,8)', and  $\mathcal{U}=\operatorname{sp}\{x\}$ , where x = (3, 1)'.

Upon taking X to be the  $2 \times 1$  matrix whose only column is x, the linear system X'Xb = X'y becomes (10)b = (20), which has the unique solution  $\mathbf{b} = (2)$ .

Thus, the projection of y on  $\mathcal{U}$  is

$$z = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (2) = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

## Example

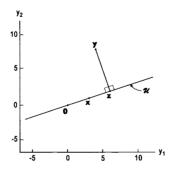


FIGURE 12.1. The projection z of a two-dimensional column vector y on a one-dimensional subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $\mathcal{R}^2$ .

Let us find the projection of an n-dimensional column vector y on a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  in the special case where n=3,  $\mathbf{v} = (3, -38/5, 74/5)'$  and  $\mathcal{U} = \text{sp}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3\}$ , where

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}, \ \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, \ \mathbf{x}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Clearly,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are linearly independent, and  $x_3 = x_2 - (1/3)x_3$ . Thus  $dim(\mathcal{U}) = 2$ .

### Example

Upon taking X to be  $3 \times 3$  matrix whose columns are  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ , and  $x_3$ , respectively, the normal equations X'Xb = X'y become

$$\begin{pmatrix} 54 & 30 & 15 \\ 30 & 24 & 14 \\ 15 & 14 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 66 \\ 38 \\ 16 \end{pmatrix}.$$

### Example

One solution to these equations is the vector (32/15, -1/2, -1)'. Thus, the projection of y on  $\mathcal{U}$  is

$$z = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & -2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 32/15 \\ -1/2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 22/5 \\ 44/5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

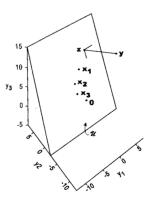


FIGURE 12.2. The projection z of a three-dimensional column vector y on a two-dimensional subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

### Theorem 13

Let  $\mathcal{U}$  represent any subspace of the linear space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of all n-dimensional column vectors. Then, there exists a unique matrix A of dimension  $n \times n$  such that Ay is the projection of y on  $\mathcal{U}$  for every column vector y in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Moreover,  $A = P_X = X(X'X)^{-}X$  for any matrix X such that  $C(X) = \mathcal{U}$ .

**Proof:** Let X represent any matrix such that  $\mathcal{C}(X) = \mathcal{U}$ . Then it follows from Corollary 9 that for every  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $P_X\mathbf{y}$  is the projection of  $\mathbf{y}$  on  $\mathcal{U}$ . Moreover, if a matrix A is such that  $A\mathbf{y}$  is the projection then by Theorem 8  $A\mathbf{y} = P_X\mathbf{y}$  for every  $\mathbf{y}$ , implying that  $A = P_X$ . We conclude that there exists a unique matrix A such that  $A\mathbf{y}$  is the projection of  $\mathbf{y}$  on  $\mathcal{U}$  for every  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and that  $A = P_X$ .

### Corollary 14

Let A represents the projection matrix for a subspace  $\mathcal{U}$  of a linear space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of all n-dimensional column vectors. Then,  $A = P_X$  for any matrix X such that  $C(X) = \mathcal{U}$ .

### Corollary 15

A matrix A is a projection matrix if and only if  $A = P_X$  for some matrix X.

### Theorem 16

Let X represent any  $n \times p$  matrix. Then,

- (1)  $P_XX = X$ , that is,  $X(X'X)^-X'X = X$ , that is,  $(X'X)^-X'$  is a generalized inverse of X;
- (2)  $P_X = XB^*$  for any solution  $B^*$  to the (consistent) linear system X'XB = X' (in B);
- (3)  $P'_{X} = P_{X}$ ;

### Theorem 16

Let X represent any  $n \times p$  matrix. Then,

- (4)  $X[(X'X)^-]'X'X = X$ ; that is,  $[(X'X)^-]'X'$  is a generalized inverse of X;
- (5)  $X'P_X = X'P'_X = X'$ ; that is,  $X'X(X'X)^-X' = X'X[(X'X)^-]'X' = X'$ ; that is  $X(X'X)^-$  and  $X[(X'X)^-]'$  are generalized inverses of X'.
- (6)  $P_X^2 = P_X$ , that is  $P_X$  is idempotent;

# Projection Matrix

### Theorem 16

Let X represent any  $n \times p$  matrix. Then,

(7) 
$$C(P_X) = C(X)$$
 and  $R(P_X) = R(X')$ ;

- (8)  $rank(P_X) = rank(X)$ ;
- (9)  $rank(I P_X) = n rank(X)$ .

#### Proof:

(1) By definition nof generalized inverse we have

$$X'X(X'X)^{-}X'X = X'X.$$

Projection matrices 00000

Now consider

$$(X(X'X)^{-}X'X - X)'(X(X'X)^{-}X'X - X)$$
=  $((X'X)^{-}X'X - I)'(X'X(X'X)^{-}X'X - X'X)$ 
=  $0.$ 

This proves the claim.

## Projection matrices

### Proof:

(2) In order to prove this result we need the following result:

### Theorem 17

A matrix  $X^*$  is a solution to a consistent linear system AX = B (in X) if and only if

$$X^* = A^-B + (I - A^-A)Y$$

for some matrix Y.

#### Proof:

(2) If  $B^*$  is a solution to the linear system X'XB = X' then by Theorem ??.

$$B^* = (X'X)^-X' + [I - (X'X)^-X'X]Y$$

Projection matrices 00000

for some matrix Y. Now from Part (1) we get

$$XB^* = P_X + (X - P_XX)Y = P_X.$$

#### Proof:

(3) First we shall show that  $[(X'X)^{-}]'$  is a g-inverse of X'X. Observe that

$$X'X[(X'X)^{-}]'X'X = [X'X(X'X)^{-}X'X]'$$
$$= [X'X]'$$
$$= X'X.$$

Now, since  $[(X'X)^{-}]'$  is g-inverse of X'X, therefore  $[(X'X)^{-}]'X'$  is a solution to the linear system X'XB = X'. Thus applying Part (2) we find that

$$X(X'X)^{-}X' = P_X = X[(X'X)^{-}]'X'$$

### Proof:

(4) It follows from Parts (1) and (3) that

$$X[(X'X)^{-}]'X'X = P'_{X} = P_{X} = X$$

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### Proof:

(5) Making use of Parts (3) and (1) we get

$$X'P_X = X'P_X' = [P_XX]' = X'.$$

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### Proof:

(6) Making use of Part (1), we find that

$$P_X^2 = P_X X(X'X)^- X' = X(X'X)^- X' = P_X.$$

Projection matrices 00000

#### Proof:

(7) To prove this result we need the following Theorem:

#### Theorem 17

For any  $m \times n$  matrix A and  $n \times p$  matrix F,  $\mathcal{C}(AF) \subset \mathcal{C}(A)$ . Similarly, for any  $m \times n$  matrix A and  $q \times m$  matrix L,  $\mathcal{R}(LA) \subset \mathcal{R}(A)$ .

In light of above Theorem and by definition of  $P_X$  we have  $\mathcal{C}(P_X) \subset \mathcal{C}(X)$ . From Part (1), we have  $\mathcal{C}(X) \subset \mathcal{C}(P_X)$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{C}(P_X) = \mathcal{C}(X)$ . Next, note that  $\mathcal{C}(P_X) = \mathcal{C}(X)$  if and only if  $\mathcal{R}(P_X') = \mathcal{R}(X')$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{R}(P_X) = \mathcal{R}(X')$ .

### Proof:

(8) Directly follows from Part (7).

## Projection matrices

#### Proof:

(9) To prove this result, following Theorem is needed:

### Theorem 17

For any square matrix A such that  $A^2 = kA$  for some scalar k, trace(A) = krank(A).

Now,

$$rank(I - P_X) = trace(I - P_X) = n - trace(P_X)$$
  
=  $n - rank(P_X)$ .

### Least Squares

#### Theorem 18

Let Y represent a matrix in a linear space V, and let U represent a subspace of V. Then, for  $W \in \mathcal{U}$ , the distance ||Y - W|| between Y and W is minimized uniquely by taking W to be the projection Z of Y on 11 Moreover

$$||\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Z}||^2 = \mathbf{Y} \cdot (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Z}).$$

## Least Squares

**Proof:** For any matrix W in  $\mathcal{U}$ ,

$$||Y - W||^2 = ||(Y - Z) - (W - Z)||^2$$
  
=  $(Y - Z) \cdot (Y - Z) - 2(Y - Z) \cdot (W - Z)$   
+  $(W - Z) \cdot (W - Z)$ .

### Least Squares

Further, W – Z is in  $\mathcal{U}$  and, by definition, Y – Z is Proof: orthogonal to every matrix in  $\mathcal{U}$ . Thus,  $(Y - Z) \cdot (W - Z) = 0$ , and hence

$$||Y - W||^2 = (Y - Z) \cdot (Y - Z) + (W - Z) \cdot (W - Z)$$
  
=  $||Y - Z||^2 + ||W - Z||^2$   
\geq ||Y - Z||^2,

with equality holding if and only if W = Z. It follows that, for  $W \in \mathcal{U}$ ,  $||Y - W||^2$  and, consequently, ||Y - W|| are minimized uniquely by taking W = Z.

That  $||Y - Z||^2 = Y \cdot (Y - Z)$  is clear upon observing Proof: that  $Z \in \mathcal{U}$  and hence that  $Z \cdot (Y - Z) = 0$ .