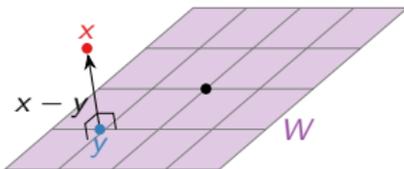


Section 6.2/6.3

Orthogonal Projections

Best Approximation

Suppose you measure a data point x which you know for theoretical reasons must lie on a subspace W .



Due to measurement error, though, the measured x is not actually in W . Best approximation: y is the *closest* point to x on W .

How do you know that y is the closest point? The vector from y to x is orthogonal to W : it is in the *orthogonal complement* W^\perp .

Orthogonal Decomposition

Recall:

- ▶ If W is a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n , its **orthogonal complement** is

$$W^\perp = \{v \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^n \mid v \text{ is perpendicular to every vector in } W\}$$

- ▶ $\dim(W) + \dim(W^\perp) = n$.

Theorem

Every vector x in \mathbf{R}^n can be written as

$$x = x_W + x_{W^\perp}$$

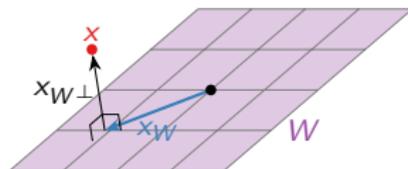
for unique vectors x_W in W and x_{W^\perp} in W^\perp .

The equation $x = x_W + x_{W^\perp}$ is called the **orthogonal decomposition** of x (with respect to W).

The vector x_W is the closest vector to x on W .

[interactive 1]

[interactive 2]



Orthogonal Decomposition

Justification

Theorem

Every vector x in \mathbf{R}^n can be written as

$$x = x_W + x_{W^\perp}$$

for unique vectors x_W in W and x_{W^\perp} in W^\perp .

Why?

Uniqueness: suppose $x = x_W + x_{W^\perp} = x'_W + x'_{W^\perp}$ for x_W, x'_W in W and $x_{W^\perp}, x'_{W^\perp}$ in W^\perp . Rewrite:

$$x_W - x'_W = x'_{W^\perp} - x_{W^\perp}.$$

The left side is in W , and the right side is in W^\perp , so they are both in $W \cap W^\perp$. But the only vector that is perpendicular to itself is the zero vector! Hence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= x_W - x'_W \implies x_W = x'_W \\ 0 &= x_{W^\perp} - x'_{W^\perp} \implies x_{W^\perp} = x'_{W^\perp} \end{aligned}$$

Existence: We will compute the orthogonal decomposition later using orthogonal projections.

Orthogonal Decomposition

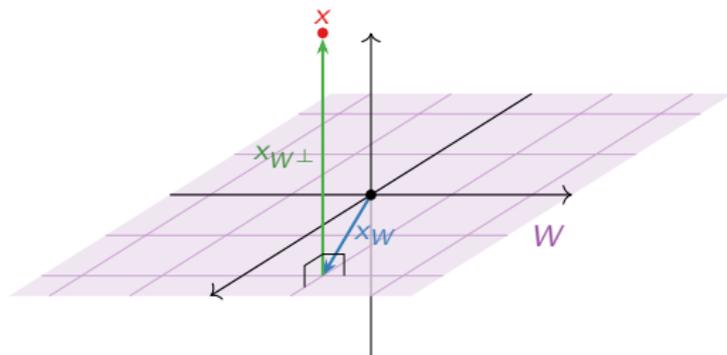
Example

Let W be the xy -plane in \mathbf{R}^3 . Then W^\perp is the z -axis.

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \implies x_W = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad x_{W^\perp} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \implies x_W = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad x_{W^\perp} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ c \end{pmatrix}.$$

This is just decomposing a vector into a “horizontal” component (in the xy -plane) and a “vertical” component (on the z -axis).



[interactive]

Orthogonal Decomposition

Computation?

Problem: Given x and W , how do you compute the decomposition $x = x_W + x_{W^\perp}$?

Observation: It is enough to compute x_W , because $x_{W^\perp} = x - x_W$.

First we need to discuss orthogonal sets.

Definition

A set of *nonzero* vectors is **orthogonal** if each pair of vectors is orthogonal. It is **orthonormal** if, in addition, each vector is a unit vector.

Lemma

An orthogonal set of vectors is linearly independent. Hence it is a basis for its span.

Suppose $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\}$ is orthogonal. We need to show that the equation

$$c_1 u_1 + c_2 u_2 + \dots + c_m u_m = 0$$

has only the trivial solution $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_m = 0$.

$$0 = u_1 \cdot (c_1 u_1 + c_2 u_2 + \dots + c_m u_m) = c_1 (u_1 \cdot u_1) + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0.$$

Hence $c_1 = 0$. Similarly for the other c_i .

Orthogonal Sets

Examples

Example: $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an orthogonal set. Check:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

Example: $\mathcal{B} = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ is an orthogonal set. Check:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

Example: Let $x = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ be a nonzero vector, and let $y = \begin{pmatrix} -b \\ a \end{pmatrix}$. Then $\{x, y\}$ is an orthogonal set:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -b \\ a \end{pmatrix} = -ab + ab = 0.$$

Orthogonal Projections

Definition

Let W be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n , and let $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\}$ be an *orthogonal* basis for W . The **orthogonal projection** of a vector x onto W is

$$\text{proj}_W(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{x \cdot u_i}{u_i \cdot u_i} u_i = \frac{x \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} u_1 + \frac{x \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2} u_2 + \dots + \frac{x \cdot u_n}{u_n \cdot u_n} u_n.$$

This is a vector in W because it is in $\text{Span}\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\}$.

Theorem

Let W be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n , and let x be a vector in \mathbf{R}^n . Then

$$x_W = \text{proj}_W(x) \quad \text{and} \quad x_{W^\perp} = x - \text{proj}_W(x).$$

In particular, $\text{proj}_W(x)$ is the closest point to x in W .

Why? Let $y = \text{proj}_W(x)$. We need to show that $x - y$ is in W^\perp . In other words, $u_i \cdot (x - y) = 0$ for each i . Let's do u_1 :

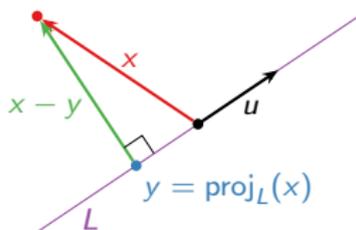
$$u_1 \cdot (x - y) = u_1 \cdot \left(x - \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{x \cdot u_i}{u_i \cdot u_i} u_i \right) = u_1 \cdot x - \frac{x \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} (u_1 \cdot u_1) - 0 - \dots = 0.$$

Orthogonal Projection onto a Line

The formula for orthogonal projections is simple when W is a *line*.

Let $L = \text{Span}\{u\}$ be a line in \mathbf{R}^n , and let x be in \mathbf{R}^n . The orthogonal projection of x onto L is the point

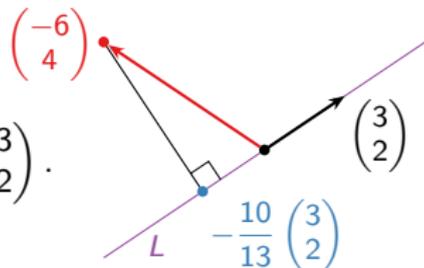
$$\text{proj}_L(x) = \frac{x \cdot u}{u \cdot u} u.$$



[interactive]

Example: Compute the orthogonal projection of $x = \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ onto the line L spanned by $u = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$y = \text{proj}_L(x) = \frac{x \cdot u}{u \cdot u} u = \frac{-18 + 8}{9 + 4} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{10}{13} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$



Orthogonal Projection onto a Plane

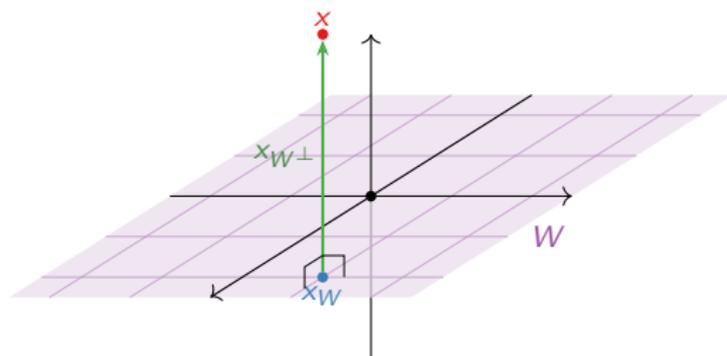
Easy example

What is the projection of $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ onto the xy -plane?

Answer: The xy -plane is $W = \text{Span}\{e_1, e_2\}$, and $\{e_1, e_2\}$ is an orthogonal basis.

$$x_W = \text{proj}_W \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{x \cdot e_1}{e_1 \cdot e_1} e_1 + \frac{x \cdot e_2}{e_2 \cdot e_2} e_2 = \frac{1 \cdot 1}{1^2} e_1 + \frac{1 \cdot 2}{1^2} e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So this is the same projection as before.



[interactive]

Orthogonal Projections

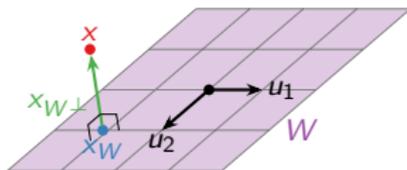
More complicated example

What is the projection of $x = \begin{pmatrix} -1.1 \\ 1.4 \\ 1.45 \end{pmatrix}$ onto $W = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1.1 \\ -0.2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$?

Answer: The basis is orthogonal, so

$$\begin{aligned} x_W &= \text{proj}_W \begin{pmatrix} -1.1 \\ 1.4 \\ 1.45 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{x \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} u_1 + \frac{x \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2} u_2 \\ &= \frac{(-1.1)(1)}{1^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{(1.4)(1.1) + (1.45)(-0.2)}{1.1^2 + (-0.2)^2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1.1 \\ -0.2 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

This turns out to be equal to $u_2 - 1.1u_1$.



[interactive]

Orthogonal Projections

Properties

First we restate the property we've been using all along.

Best Approximation Theorem

Let W be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n , and let x be a vector in \mathbf{R}^n . Then $y = \text{proj}_W(x)$ is the closest point in W to x , in the sense that

$$\text{dist}(x, y') \geq \text{dist}(x, y) \quad \text{for all } y' \text{ in } W.$$

We can think of orthogonal projection as a *transformation*:

$$\text{proj}_W: \mathbf{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^n \quad x \mapsto \text{proj}_W(x).$$

Theorem

Let W be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n .

1. proj_W is a *linear* transformation.
2. For every x in W , we have $\text{proj}_W(x) = x$.
3. For every x in W^\perp , we have $\text{proj}_W(x) = 0$.
4. The range of proj_W is W and the null space of proj_W is W^\perp .

Let W be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n , and assume W is not the zero subspace.

Poll

Let A be the matrix for proj_W . What is/are the possible eigenvalue(s) of A ? Circle all that apply.

A. 0 B. 1 C. -1 D. 2 E. -2

The 1-eigenspace is W .

The 0-eigenspace is W^\perp . (as long as $W \neq \mathbf{R}^n$).

Therefore, the correct answer is: A and B.

Orthogonal Projections

Matrices

What is the matrix for $\text{proj}_W: \mathbf{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$, where

$$W = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}?$$

Answer: Recall how to compute the matrix for a linear transformation:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \text{proj}_W(e_1) & \text{proj}_W(e_2) & \text{proj}_W(e_3) \end{pmatrix}.$$

We compute:

$$\text{proj}_W(e_1) = \frac{e_1 \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} u_1 + \frac{e_1 \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2} u_2 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5/6 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{proj}_W(e_2) = \frac{e_2 \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} u_1 + \frac{e_2 \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2} u_2 = 0 + \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{proj}_W(e_3) = \frac{e_3 \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} u_1 + \frac{e_3 \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2} u_2 = -\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/6 \\ 1/3 \\ 5/6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Therefore } A = \begin{pmatrix} 5/6 & 1/3 & -1/6 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ -1/6 & 1/3 & 5/6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Coordinates with respect to Orthogonal Bases

Let W be a subspace with orthogonal basis $\mathcal{B} = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\}$.

For x in W we have $\text{proj}_W(x) = x$, so

$$x = \text{proj}_W(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{x \cdot u_i}{u_i \cdot u_i} u_i = \frac{x \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} u_1 + \frac{x \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2} u_2 + \cdots + \frac{x \cdot u_n}{u_n \cdot u_n} u_n.$$

This makes it easy to compute the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of x .

Corollary

Let W be a subspace with orthogonal basis $\mathcal{B} = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\}$. Then

$$[x]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left(\frac{x \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1}, \frac{x \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2}, \dots, \frac{x \cdot u_m}{u_m \cdot u_m} \right).$$

[interactive]

Coordinates with respect to Orthogonal Bases

Example

Problem: Find the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of $x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$, where

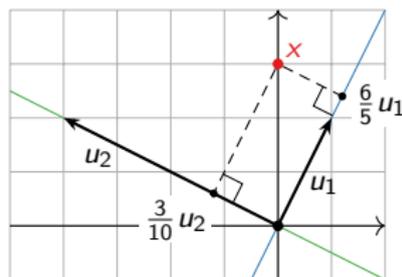
$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

Old way:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -4 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & 6/5 \\ 0 & 1 & 6/20 \end{array} \right) \implies [x]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 6/5 \\ 6/20 \end{pmatrix}.$$

New way: note \mathcal{B} is an *orthogonal* basis.

$$[x]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left(\frac{x \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1}, \frac{x \cdot u_2}{u_2 \cdot u_2} \right) = \left(\frac{3 \cdot 2}{1^2 + 2^2}, \frac{3 \cdot 2}{(-4)^2 + 2^2} \right) = \left(\frac{6}{5}, \frac{3}{10} \right).$$



[interactive]

Orthogonal Projections

Matrix facts

Let W be an m -dimensional subspace ($1 \leq m < n$) of \mathbf{R}^n , let $\text{proj}_W: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow W$ be the projection, and let A be the matrix for proj_W .

Fact 1: A is diagonalizable with eigenvalues 0 and 1; it is similar to the diagonal matrix with m ones and $n - m$ zeros on the diagonal.

Why? Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m be a basis for W , and let $v_{m+1}, v_{m+2}, \dots, v_n$ be a basis for W^\perp . These are (linearly independent) eigenvectors with eigenvalues 1 and 0, respectively, and they form a basis for \mathbf{R}^n because there are n of them.

Example: If W is a plane in \mathbf{R}^3 , then A is similar to projection onto the xy -plane:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Fact 2: $A^2 = A$.

Why? Projecting twice is the same as projecting once:

$$\text{proj}_W \circ \text{proj}_W = \text{proj}_W \implies A \cdot A = A.$$

Orthogonal Projections

Minimum distance

What is the distance from e_1 to $W = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$?

Answer: The closest point on W to e_1 is $\text{proj}_W(e_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 5/6 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/6 \end{pmatrix}$.

The distance from e_1 to this point is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dist}(e_1, \text{proj}_W(e_1)) &= \|(e_1)_{W^\perp}\| \\ &= \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 5/6 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/6 \end{pmatrix} \right\| \\ &= \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1/6 \\ -1/3 \\ 1/6 \end{pmatrix} \right\| \\ &= \sqrt{(1/6)^2 + (-1/3)^2 + (1/6)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}. \end{aligned}$$

