



# 18.06.21: Last bit on projections

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Friday, April Fool's Day 2016



Let's remember our story. We have a vector  $\vec{b} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ . We have a  $k$ -dimensional subspace  $W \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$  with basis  $\{\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_k\}$ . We are trying to compute the projection  $\pi_W(\vec{b})$  of  $\vec{b}$  onto  $W$ .

The first method we discussed was to apply Gram–Schmidt to  $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_k$  to get an orthogonal basis  $\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_k$ , and then write

$$\pi_W(\vec{b}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \pi_{\vec{u}_i}(\vec{b}).$$



The second method was a simple formula: one forms the  $n \times k$  matrix

$$A = \left( \vec{a}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \vec{a}_k \right),$$

and we write

$$\pi_W(\vec{b}) = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{b}.$$

To deduce this formula, we only used two facts about the projection  $\pi_W(\vec{b})$ :

- (1)  $\vec{b} - \pi_W(\vec{b})$  is perpendicular to  $W$ , and
- (2)  $\pi_W(\vec{b}) \in W$ .



As always, we should test out the extreme cases. When  $k = n$ , we're "projecting"  $\vec{b}$  onto the whole damn  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . In other words, we're not doing anything. And the formula above matches that, because  $(A^T A)^{-1} = A^{-1}(A^T)^{-1}$ .

On the other hand, when  $k = 1$ , our matrix  $A$  is just the column vector  $\vec{a}_1$  itself. Then we get

$$\pi_W(\vec{b}) = \vec{a}_1 (\vec{a}_1^T \vec{a}_1)^{-1} \vec{a}_1^T \vec{b} = \vec{a}_1 \frac{\vec{a}_1 \cdot \vec{b}}{\vec{a}_1 \cdot \vec{a}_1} = \pi_{\vec{a}_1}(\vec{b}).$$

Good.



So let's appreciate how good this is: let's project any vector  $\vec{b} \in \mathbf{R}^3$  onto the plane  $W$  given by the equation  $x - y + z = 0$ . Here's what I have to do:

- (1) Find a basis  $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$  for that plane. That's the kernel of the  $1 \times 3$  matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .
- (2) Now we put that basis into a matrix  $A$ , and we compute  $A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ .



Suppose  $A$  is an  $n \times k$  matrix with  $\ker(A) = 0$ . Now set

$$\Pi_A := A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T.$$

This is our *orthogonal projection matrix onto the image of  $A$* .

**Question.** What is  $\Pi_A^2$ ? Explain why first computationally, and then geometrically.



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There's one thing we need to double-check with this formula before we stop. I claimed that  $A^T A$  is invertible when  $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_k$  are linearly independent. To prove that, it suffices to show that  $\ker(A^T A) = \ker(A)$ . (Why??)

Clearly if  $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ , then  $A^T A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ , so  $\ker(A) \subseteq \ker(A^T A)$ .

Let's prove the other inclusion. If  $A^T A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ , then

$$\|A\vec{x}\|^2 = (A\vec{x}) \cdot (A\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T A^T A\vec{x} = 0.$$

So  $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ . This proves that  $\ker(A) \supseteq \ker(A^T A)$ . □

(Note that I didn't really use that  $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_k$  are linearly independent in that proof. It's *always* the case that  $\ker(A^T A) = \ker(A)$ .)



# EXAM III COVERS EVERYTHING UP TO HERE

*(except for the fun stuff on special relativity)*

*That's Lectures 1–21, excluding 17 and 18. It's also the first 4 chapters of Strang, excluding 4.3.*





OK ... sigh ... *determinants*.

There are two serious pedagogical problems with introducing determinants:

- (1) They're extremely useful, but generally extremely annoying to compute.
- (2) They have beautiful formal properties, but to show you why, I'd need to introduce a whole pack of auxiliary, abstract, notions that you won't see again until a much later math course.

No matter what, it's hard to make people happy when talking about determinants.