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1. What is the *vector projection* of u on w?

Answer: It is the scalar multiple of w that is as close as possible to u.

So what does this mean? Well, draw the line through w and the origin, lets call that line W. If u is on that line, then the vector projection of u on w is u itself. If u is not on that line, then pick the point on that line that is as close as possible to u, and then that point is the vector projection of u on w.

2. How do you compute the vector projection of vector u on vector w? Answer: Compute these two numbers:  $u \cdot w$  and  $w \cdot w$ . Then take the quotient. Multiply that by w and you get the vector projection of u on w:

$$\operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } w) = \frac{u \cdot w}{w \cdot w} w$$

Since this is a scalar (the quotient of those two dot-products) times w, we see that the projection of u on w is always on the line W = SPAN(w)

3. Let W be some subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let u be some element of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . What is the *vector projection* of u on W?

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Answer: It is the element of W that is as close as possible to u. So if u is in W then the projection of u on W is just u itself. If u is not in W, then pick the point in W that is the closest to u, and then that point is the vector projection of u on W.

4. How do you compute the vector projection of vector u on W? Answer: First you need an *orthogonal basis* of W. Suppose that  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$  is an orthogonal basis of W (how to find an orthogonal basis of W is the subject of items 18,19). Then

$$\operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } W) = \operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } w_1) + \operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } w_2) + \cdots + \operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } w_k)$$

in other words, the projection of u on W is

$$\operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } W) = \frac{u \cdot w_1}{w_1 \cdot w_1} w_1 + \frac{u \cdot w_2}{w_2 \cdot w_2} w_2 + \dots + \frac{u \cdot w_k}{w_k \cdot w_k} w_k$$

This only works if  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$  is an orthogonal basis of W.

5. What does  $u \perp v$  mean? Answer:  $u \perp v$  means that u is orthogonal to v, which in turn means that the dot-product (the inner product) of u and v is zero, so  $u \cdot v = 0$ . This happens when u = 0, or when v = 0, or when u, v are perpendicular (the angle between them is  $90^{\circ}$ ).

- 6. If W is some subspace of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  then what does  $W^{\perp}$  mean? Answer: It's the set of those vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  that are orthogonal to every element of W.
- 7. If u is some vector of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  and if W is some subspace of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  then we can write

$$u = \operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } W) + (u - \operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } W))$$

Now  $\operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } W)$  is in W, while  $u - \operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } W)$  is in  $W^{\perp}$ . So we just wrote:

$$u = \text{something in } W + \text{something in } W^{\perp}$$

Since vector u was an arbitrary vector, we see that every vector of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  can be written as the sum of something in W plus something in  $W^{\perp}$ . A mathematician would formulate this fact in a very compact way, namely as follows:  $\mathbf{R}^n = W + W^{\perp}$ 

- 8. If I know some basis (or a spanning set)  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$  of W, then how do I get a basis of  $W^{\perp}$ ?
  - Answer: Since  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$  is a basis (or a spanning set) of W, it means that W is the column space of matrix  $A = (w_1 \ w_2 \ \cdots \ w_k)$ . Now take the *transpose* of that matrix, and then take the *Nullspace* of that. So  $W^{\perp} = \text{Nul}(A^T)$ .
- 9. An example, let  $e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5$  be the standard basis of  $\mathbf{R}^5$  and suppose that  $e_3, e_4$  is a basis of W. Give a basis of  $W^{\perp}$ .

Answer: The general method is to take  $A = (e_3 \ e_4)$ , then take the transpose, and then the Nullspace, and a basis of that. Then we'll find the basis  $e_1, e_2, e_5$  of  $W^{\perp}$  (verify this example for yourself!). This example is easy because the matrix  $A^T$  is already in reduced row echelon form so we don't have to row-reduce in this example.

This example is also easy for another reason, you see, for some vector u to be in  $W^{\perp}$  it must be orthogonal to all elements in the basis of W. So u must be orthogonal to  $e_3$ , so  $e_3 \cdot u = 0$ , but that simply means that the third entry of u is zero. And u must be orthogonal to  $e_4$  but that just means the 4'th entry is zero. So u can be any vector whose 3'rd and 4'th entries are zero, and it is clear that  $e_1, e_2, e_5$  is a basis of such vectors, so  $e_1, e_2, e_5$  must be a basis of  $W^{\perp}$ .

- 10. If W is a subspace of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  then  $n = \dim(W) + \dim(W^{\perp})$ . So the dimension of  $W^{\perp}$  is n minus  $\dim(W)$ . If we take n = 3 then this means that if W is a line then  $W^{\perp}$  is a plane and if W is a plane then  $W^{\perp}$  is a line.
- 11. Suppose I don't have a basis (or spanning set) of W, but instead, I have a system of equations for W. Say that the coefficient matrix of that system is A, in other words, say that W is the Nullspace of A. Now how do I find

 $W^{\perp}$  in this situation?

Answer: We could of course compute a basis of W (because we know how to compute a basis of Nul(A) and then do as in item 8, but there is an easier way. Let  $R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_l$  be the rows of A. Now if  $w \in W$  then Aw = 0 so then  $R_1w = 0$ ,  $R_2w = 0$ , etc. Now let  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_l$  be the transposes of  $R_1, \ldots, R_l$ . Then  $R_1 w$  is just  $v_1 \cdot w$ . So we get  $v_1 \cdot w = 0$ ,  $v_2 \cdot w = 0$ , etc., and this is true for every  $w \in W$ . Therefore,  $v_1 \in W^{\perp}$ , and  $v_2 \in W^{\perp}$ , etc.

Conclusion is the following: If W is the Nullspace of some matrix A, then the transposes of the rows of A will form a spanning set for  $W^{\perp}$  (they'll form a basis if they're independent).

One-line summary: If W = Nul(A) then  $W^{\perp} = \text{RowSpace}(A)$ .

12. As an example, take  $W=\{\left(\begin{array}{c}x\\y\\z\end{array}\right)\mid x+2y+3z=0\}.$  This is a 2-

dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ). This W is given by a system of linear equations (just 1 equation but that's OK). The matrix of that

system is (1 2 3). Following item 11 we see that  $\begin{pmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{pmatrix}$  is a basis of  $W^{\perp}$ .

13. Another example, what if V is a vector space with basis  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$  then how

to get a basis of  $V^{\perp}$ ?

Answer: put the basis vector(s) in a matrix, then take the transpose (that's (1 2 3) in this example) and then the Nullspace. We have a pivot in Column 1, so  $x_1$  is basic, and  $x_2, x_3$  are free. We get  $x_1 = -2x_2 - 3x_3$ ,

in Column 1, so 
$$x_1$$
 is basic, and  $x_2, x_3$  are free. We get  $x_1 = -2x_2 - 3x_3$ ,  $x_2 = x_2, x_3 = x_3$  so the solutions of matrix (1 2 3) are  $\begin{pmatrix} -2x_2 - 3x_3 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$  and writing this as  $x_2$  times a vector plus  $x_3$  times a vector we get the following two vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . These two vectors form a basis of the Nullspace of (1 2 3), and hence a basis of  $V^{\perp}$ .

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of the Nullspace of (1 2 3), and hence a basis of  $V^{\perp}$ .

Note that the vector space V in this example is the same as the vector space  $W^{\perp}$  from the previous example. But then  $V^{\perp}$  must be  $(W^{\perp})^{\perp}$ which is the same as W. So our basis for  $V^{\perp}$  is also a basis for the space W from the previous example.

14. If W is a subspace of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  then  $(W^{\perp})^{\perp} = W$ .

15. What's an orthogonal set?

Answer: It's a set where every element is orthogonal to every other element.

How do I check if  $\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k\}$  is an orthogonal set?

Answer: You check that each of them is orthogonal to all the previous ones, so you check that  $w_2 \cdot w_1 = 0$ , then check that  $w_3 \cdot w_1 = 0$  and  $w_3 \cdot w_2 = 0$ , then check that  $w_4 \cdot w_1 = 0$ ,  $w_4 \cdot w_2 = 0$ ,  $w_4 \cdot w_3 = 0$ , etc.

- 16. What's an orthogonal basis of a vector space W?

  Answer: a basis where every element is orthogonal to every other element.
- 17. If  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$  are some vectors, what's the quickest way to see if they form an orthogonal basis of W?

Answer: First of all, they must all be in W. Second, the zero-vector must not be among  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$ . Furthermore, k, the number of vectors in your set, must be equal to the dimension of V. Finally, check that they form an orthogonal set (see item 15).

Don't I have to check that  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$  are linearly independent to make sure that I have a basis of W?

Answer: an orthogonal set without zero-vectors is automatically linearly independent.

18. How do I get an orthogonal basis of W?

Answer: first, you need a basis (or a spanning set, that's OK too) for W. Say that  $u_1, \ldots, u_k$  is a spanning set of W. Now you follow the following process, called the Gram-Schmidt process:

Take  $v_1 = u_1$ .

Take  $v_2$  to be  $u_2$  MINUS the vector projection of  $u_2$  on all previous v's. Take  $v_3$  to be  $u_3$  MINUS the vector projection of  $u_3$  on all previous v's. Take  $v_4$  to be  $u_4$  MINUS the vector projection of  $u_4$  on all previous v's.

If any of these v's are zero, then just throw that one away (this only happens if the u's were linearly dependent).

The remaining v's (the non-zero v's) will be an orthogonal basis of W.

19. Can you spell that out in some more detail, how to get an orthogonal basis of W if I have some spanning set  $u_1, \ldots, u_k$  of W?

Answer: Follow the previous item, and just plug in the these vector projections. So you get:

 $v_1 = u_1$ 

 $v_2 = u_2 - \operatorname{proj}(u_2 \text{ on } v_1)$ 

 $v_3 = u_3 - \operatorname{proj}(u_3 \text{ on SPAN}\{v_1, v_2\})$ 

 $v_4 = u_4 - \text{proj}(u_4 \text{ on SPAN}\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}), \text{ etc.}$ 

If we spell this out with the formula for the vector projection (see items 2)

and 4) then we get:

$$v_1 = u_1$$

$$v_2 = u_2 - \frac{u_2 \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} v_1$$

$$v_3 = u_3 - \left(\frac{u_3 \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} v_1 + \frac{u_3 \cdot v_2}{v_2 \cdot v_2} v_2\right)$$

$$v_4 = u_4 - \left(\frac{u_4 \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} v_1 + \frac{u_4 \cdot v_2}{v_2 \cdot v_2} v_2 + \frac{u_4 \cdot v_3}{v_3 \cdot v_3} v_3\right), \text{ etc.}$$

In step 3, make sure that you use  $u_3$  and the previous v's (not the previous u's). In step 4, use  $u_4$  and the previous v's (not the previous u's).

20. Example, let 
$$u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $u_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $u_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 4 \\ 9 \\ 16 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Let  $W = SPAN(u_1, u_2, u_3)$ . Find the vector projection of u on W, i.e. find the vector in W that is as close as possible to u.

Answer: if  $u_1, u_2, u_3$  were an orthogonal set, we could use the formula in item 4 (the w's in item 4 would then be the u's here). But,  $u_1, u_2, u_3$ are not orthogonal, for example  $u_1 \cdot u_2 \neq 0$ . We'll have to fix that with Gram-Schmidt. We take:

Gram-Schmidt. We take: 
$$v_1 = u_1$$

$$v_2 = u_2 - \frac{0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1}{1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$v_3 = u_3 - \left(\frac{0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 + 9 \cdot 1 + 16 \cdot 1}{1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} u_1 + \frac{(-2) \cdot 0 + (-1) \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 9 + 2 \cdot 16}{(-2)^2 + (-1)^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 + 2^2} u_2 \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 + 9 \cdot 1 + 16 \cdot 1 \\ 1 - 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$v_{3} = u_{3} - \left(\frac{0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 + 9 \cdot 1 + 16 \cdot 1}{1^{2} + 1^{2} + 1^{2} + 1^{2} + 1^{2}} u_{1} + \frac{(-2) \cdot 0 + (-1) \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 9 + 2 \cdot 16}{(-2)^{2} + (-1)^{2} + 0^{2} + 1^{2} + 2^{2}} u_{2}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now that we have an *orthogonal basis*  $v_1, v_2, v_3$  of the vector space  $\dot{W}$ , we are ready to compute the vector projection of u on W with the formula from item 4 (the w's in item 4 are the v's here).

 $\operatorname{proj}(u \text{ on } W) = \frac{5}{5}v_1 + \frac{5}{10}v_2 + \frac{7}{14}v_3$ . If we compute that, we get u itself (this means that u was actually in W, so the vector in W closest to u is then of course u itself). Let's compute proj(u on W) for another u, say

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} -2\\0\\3\\2\\2 \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Then proj}(u \text{ on } W) = \frac{5}{5}v_1 + \frac{10}{10}v_2 + \frac{-8}{14}v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -15/7\\4/7\\15/7\\18/7\\13/7 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Application: if f(x) is a function that takes values -2, 0, 3, 2, 2 (the entries of u) at x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 then the quadratic function that best approximates this takes as values "the entries of proj(u on W)" at x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4.