

**Introduction** Our first projection formula started with an orthonormal set  $\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_m\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . We defined  $Y := \text{span}\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_m\}$  and defined, for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\text{proj}_Y x := (x \bullet q_1)q_1 + \dots + (x \bullet q_m)q_m = \sum_{j=1}^m q_m q_m^T x = QQ^T x,$$

where  $Q$  is the  $n \times m$  matrix with columns  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_m$ :  $Q = (q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_m)$ . We observed that  $\text{proj}_Y x$  is in  $Y$  and we have abused notation by writing  $\text{proj}_Q x$  instead of  $\text{proj}_Y x$ , because it is easier to write and follow than the “correct”  $\text{proj}_{\text{span } Q} x$ . We also showed that  $x - \text{proj}_Y x \perp Y$  which means  $(x - \text{proj}_Y x) \bullet y = 0$  for all  $y \in Y$ . We also wrote this as  $x - \text{proj}_Y x \in Y^\perp$ . We noticed that  $Q^T Q = I_m$ , while  $QQ^T$  is the projection-matrix and its size is  $n \times n$ .

This note will give a list of similar formulas for projection matrices when we do not begin with an orthonormal set of vectors.

**Starting with a basis** Suppose we are given (or find) a basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$  of a subspace  $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . We saw how to begin with the  $n \times m$  matrix  $V = (v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_m)$  whose columns  $v_j$ , in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , are linearly independent (so  $m \leq n$ ) and construct a matrix  $Q = (q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_m)$  whose columns form an orthonormal set having the same span as the columns of  $V$ : we used the Gram–Schmidt–2573H method to get a matrix  $W = (w_1 \ w_2 \ \dots \ w_m)$  whose columns form an orthogonal, not necessarily orthonormal, set having the same span as the columns of  $V$ . We then solved for the  $v_k$  in terms of the  $w_k$ , and noticed that the formulas

$$v_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j, \quad k = 1, \dots, m$$

could be rewritten

$$v_k = \sum_{j=1}^k (v_k \bullet q_j) q_j, \quad k = 1, \dots, m, \quad \text{where each } q_j := w_j/|w_j|.$$

and this finally gave us the  $QR$  decomposition:  $V = QR$ , where  $R = (r_{ij})$  is upper triangular and invertible, the columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal set and  $\text{Im } Q = \text{Im } V$  ( $r_{ij} = v_j \bullet q_i$  if  $i \leq j$  and  $r_{ij} = 0$  if  $i > j$ ).

This gives us the same formula as our first one, if we write  $Y = \text{Im } V$  because  $Y = \text{Im } Q$  is also true. We can then write  $\text{proj}_Y x = QQ^T x$  for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . **Remark:** To form  $Q$  we have to divide by some “square-root” quantities. If all we want is  $QQ^T$  we can avoid square roots. We recall that  $QQ^T = \sum_{j=1}^m q_j q_j^T$ , so

$$(*) \quad QQ^T = \sum_{j=1}^m q_j q_j^T = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{w_j w_j^T}{|w_j|^2}.$$

This formula shows that the projection-matrix has rational-number entries if the original matrix did.

We would like to write the projection in terms of  $V$  instead of  $Q$ . We will use the  $QR$  decomposition. Thus  $V = QR$  and so  $V^T = R^T Q^T$ . But then we notice that  $V^T V = R^T Q^T Q R = R^T R$  because  $Q^T Q = I_m$ . Since  $R$  is invertible, so is  $R^T$  (we have  $R^{-1} R = R R^{-1} = I_m$  so  $(R^{-1})^T R^T = (R R^{-1})^T = I_m^T = I_m$  and thus  $(R^T)^{-1} = (R^{-1})^T$ ). The product of invertible matrices is invertible (we have  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$ ) so  $V^T V (= R^T R)$  is invertible. This does not mean that  $V$  is invertible!

We have  $V = QR$ , so  $Q = VR^{-1}$  and  $Q^T = (R^T)^{-1} V^T$ . Hence

$$QQ^T = VR^{-1} (R^T)^{-1} V^T = V (R^T R)^{-1} V^T = V (V^T V)^{-1} V^T.$$

This gives the formula we want:

$$\text{proj}_Y x = \text{proj}_V x = QQ^T x = V (V^T V)^{-1} V^T x \quad (\text{this is Bretscher's Fact 5.4.8}).$$

**Starting with a matrix** Suppose we are given an  $n \times p$  matrix  $A$  and we want an  $n \times n$  matrix  $P$  such that  $Px = \text{proj}_{\text{Im } A} x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We recall that  $\text{Im } A$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , so its dimension is at most  $n$ . We also know that the dimension of  $\text{Im } A$  is the rank of  $A$ , which is the number of linearly independent columns of  $A$  and hence is also at most  $p$ . We will let  $m$  denote the rank of  $A$ , so  $m \leq \min\{n, p\}$ .

There are two approaches we can take. The first is easiest to follow. The second may be faster.

**first approach** We carry out Gauss–Jordan elimination on  $A: (A | I) \rightarrow (R | M)$ , and extract from  $A$  the columns  $v_1 := Ae_{j_1}, \dots, v_m := Ae_{j_m}$  that correspond to the columns of  $R$  with leading ones. We then define  $V := (v_1 \cdots v_m)$  and follow the “Starting with a basis” steps. We have two choices: (1) use Gram–Schmidt–2573H to find  $W$  and then  $QQ^T$ , or (2) we can compute  $V(V^T V)^{-1} V^T$ .

**second approach** We can apply the Gram–Schmidt–2573H process to the columns of  $A$  directly, even if we do not know that the columns are linearly independent. There is an important difference, though! If some column of  $A$ , say column  $k$ , is a linear combination of preceding columns, then  $w_k$  will be zero! We just ignore that column and keep going. We will find exactly  $m = \text{rank } A$  orthogonal columns (we have to go thru all the columns of  $A$  tho [unless we accumulate  $\min\{n, p\}$   $w_k$ 's] because we do not know  $m$  in advance). We use the non-zero columns  $w_j$ , and compute  $QQ^T$  as in (\*).

**Review of the Gram–Schmidt–2573H method** Given vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$  that form a linearly independent set we constructed vectors  $\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m\}$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &:= c_1 v_1, \quad \text{where } c_1 \neq 0; \\ (\dagger) \quad w_k &:= c_k \left( v_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j \right), \quad \text{where } 1 < k \leq m \text{ and } c_k \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

The  $c_k$  will usually be used when  $V = (v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_m)$  has integer entries. Then  $c_k$  will be chosen to be the least common multiple of the denominators  $|w_j|^2$  which results in vectors  $w_k$  with integer entries. The same approach can be used when  $V$  has rational entries.

As a matter of form, let's calculate  $w_i \bullet w_k$  (when  $i < k$ ). We assume that when  $j < k$  and  $i < k$  and  $j \neq i$  then  $w_j \bullet w_i = 0$ . This is certainly true when  $k = 2$ ! At any rate,

$$\begin{aligned} w_k \bullet w_i &= c_k \left( v_k \bullet w_i - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j \bullet w_i \right) \\ &= c_k \left( v_k \bullet w_i - \frac{v_k \bullet w_i}{|w_i|^2} w_i \bullet w_i \right) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

The summation disappears because  $w_j \bullet w_i = 0$  except when  $j = i$ . Thus “true for  $k = 2$ ” becomes “true for  $k = 3$ ” and so on, as long as the  $k$ 's last. We have shown that the  $w_k$  are mutually orthogonal.

When we carry out the work of finding the  $w_k$  it is a good idea to keep a list of the values of  $|w_k|^2$  along with the  $w_k$ . The  $c_k$  do not have to be kept, except for theoretical purposes.

After finding the matrix  $W = (w_1 \ w_2 \ \cdots \ w_m)$  we can form an orthonormal matrix by dividing each column of  $W$  by its length:  $Q := (w_1/|w_1| \ w_2/|w_2| \ \cdots \ w_m/|w_m|) =: WD = (q_1 \ q_2 \ \cdots \ q_m)$ . Then  $Q^T Q = I_m$ . Here  $D$  is a “diagonal” matrix, having entries  $D_{ii} = 1/|w_i| > 0$  and all other entries zero, so  $D$  is invertible.

**The QR decomposition** The  $w_k$  were defined in the equations ( $\dagger$ ). We can solve those equations for the  $v_k$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (\dagger\dagger) \quad v_1 &= \frac{1}{c_1} w_1, \\ v_k &= \frac{1}{c_k} w_k + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j, \quad \text{where } 1 < k \leq m. \end{aligned}$$

If we put  $k = 1$  in the second formula, we get a sum from 1 to zero, which is an empty sum. If we regard empty sums as zero, which is a standard convention, we can (and shall) use the second formula for  $1 \leq k \leq m$ .

Then

$$v_k \bullet w_k = \left( \frac{1}{c_k} w_k + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j \right) \bullet w_k = \frac{1}{c_k} w_k \bullet w_k + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j \bullet w_k = \frac{1}{c_k} w_k \bullet w_k = \frac{1}{c_k} |w_k|^2$$

since  $w_j \bullet w_k = 0$  if  $j < k$ . Hence  $\frac{1}{c_k} w_k = \frac{v_k \bullet w_k}{|w_k|^2} w_k$  and therefore we can redo the formulas (††) because the term  $\frac{1}{c_k} w_k = \frac{v_k \bullet w_k}{|w_k|^2} w_k$  fits the format of the sum in (††) for  $j = k$ :

$$v_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j, \text{ for } 1 \leq k \leq m.$$

Let us notice that  $\frac{v_k \bullet w_j}{|w_j|^2} w_j = \left( v_k \bullet \frac{w_j}{|w_j|} \right) \frac{w_j}{|w_j|}$  and recall that  $\frac{w_j}{|w_j|} = q_j$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq m$ . Then we can re–redo the formulas (††):

$$\begin{aligned} (\dagger \dagger \dagger) \quad v_k &= \sum_{j=1}^k \left( v_k \bullet \frac{w_j}{|w_j|} \right) \frac{w_j}{|w_j|} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^k (v_k \bullet q_j) q_j, \text{ for } 1 \leq k \leq m. \end{aligned}$$

These equations tell us that each  $v_k$  is a linear combination of columns  $q_j$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq k$ , of the  $n \times m$  matrix  $Q$ . If we let the column vector  $r_k = (r_{1k}, r_{2k}, \dots, r_{mk})$ , where  $r_{ik} = \begin{cases} v_k \bullet q_i & \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq k \\ 0 & \text{for } i > k \end{cases}$ , then  $v_k = Qr_k$  for  $1 \leq k \leq m$ . Finally, when we let  $R$  be the  $m \times m$  matrix with columns  $r_k$ , we see that

$$V = QR.$$

We note that  $r_{kk} = q_k \bullet v_k = \frac{|w_k|}{c_k} \neq 0$ , so  $R$  is invertible (since  $R$  is upper triangular).

We could have taken an alternate approach. Since  $v_k = \sum_{j=1}^k (v_k \bullet q_j) q_j$ ,  $q_i \bullet v_k = 0$  if  $i > k$ . Therefore  $R = (q_i \bullet v_j) = (q_i^T v_j) = Q^T V$  (column  $i$  of  $Q$ , transposed, is row  $i$  of  $Q^T$ ).

**Examples** Here are three matrices  $V$ :  $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & -4 \\ -2 & 3 & 6 \\ 1 & -1 & -4 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . Here are

two matrices  $W$ :  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -12 & 51 \\ -2 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & -97 \\ 1 & 16 & 50 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ . Match them with their  $V$ 's.

Here are three matrices  $QQ^T$ :  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2/3 & -1/3 & -1/3 \\ 0 & -1/3 & 2/3 & -1/3 \\ 0 & -1/3 & -1/3 & 2/3 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} 55/82 & -15/41 & -21/82 & -6/41 \\ -15/41 & 73/123 & -35/123 & -20/123 \\ -21/82 & -35/123 & 197/246 & -14/123 \\ -6/41 & -20/123 & -14/123 & 115/123 \end{pmatrix}$  and

$\begin{pmatrix} 3/4 & -1/4 & -1/4 & -1/4 \\ -1/4 & 3/4 & -1/4 & -1/4 \\ -1/4 & -1/4 & 3/4 & -1/4 \\ -1/4 & -1/4 & -1/4 & 3/4 \end{pmatrix}$ . Match them with their  $V$ 's. Find the matrices  $R$  such that  $V = QR$ . It is easier to find  $D^{-1}R = D^{-1}Q^T V = D^{-1}DW^T V = W^T V$  (see page 2, fourth and fifth lines from the bottom).