

MATH 312
LECTURE 12

: Projections and Least-Squares.

Last day: orthogonal complements, FTLA.

• Exercise: Let $V = \left\{ \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0 \right\}$.

Find a basis for V and $V^\perp$.

Solution:

A basis for V can be found by solving the equation

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0 :$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \begin{matrix} x_2 = \alpha \\ x_3 = \beta \\ x_1 = -\alpha - \beta \end{matrix} \left\{ \Rightarrow \vec{x} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right.$$

↑ ↑
free
variables

So, basis for $V = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

Remark: V was a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \dim V = 2$

• $V^\perp$? By definition, $\vec{y} \in V^\perp$ if $\vec{y} \cdot \vec{x} = 0$ for all $\vec{x} \in V$.

Let's impose this condition:

$$\vec{x} \in V \rightarrow \vec{x} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$\vec{y} \in V^\perp \Leftrightarrow \vec{y} \cdot \left(\alpha \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = 0 \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \alpha \vec{y} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \vec{y} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} -y_1 + y_2 = 0 \\ -y_1 + y_3 = 0 \end{cases} \quad (*)$$

Remark (*) We have just seen that ~~for~~ for a vector $\vec{y}$ to be $\in V^\perp$, it is enough that $\vec{y}$ is perpendicular to all the basis vectors of V . ⌋

$$\text{Thus, } \vec{y} \in V^\perp \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} -y_1 + y_2 = 0 \\ -y_1 + y_3 = 0 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

↑ free variable.

$$\text{Let's } y_3 = \alpha \rightarrow \begin{matrix} y_1 = \alpha \\ y_2 = \alpha \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{So } \vec{y} \in V^\perp \text{ if } \vec{y} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{basis}_{V^\perp} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Remark: V is a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$, so we knew $V^\perp$ is a line orthogonal to that plane.

We could obtain the basis $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ immediately:

$$\vec{x} \in V : x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0 \sim [1 \ 1 \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \sim$$

$\sim$ That is, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is perpendicular to any $\vec{x} \in V$!

Since we knew that $\dim V = 2$, then $\dim V^\perp = 3 - 2 = 1$,

so $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis for $V^\perp$!

• Exercise: Find a matrix with the following properties, or explain why it is not possible.

a) $A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ has a solution and $A^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

b) $A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ has a solution and $A^T \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

c) $A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ has a solution and the rows of A add up to a row of zeros.

Solution:

a) $A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ has a solution $\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \in C(A)$

Let's try with

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & d \\ 1 & b & e \\ 1 & c & f \end{bmatrix}; \quad [1 \ 0 \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & d \\ 1 & b & e \\ 1 & c & f \end{bmatrix} = [0 \ a \ d] = [0 \ 0 \ 0] \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow a = d = 0.$$

So, for example,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ satisfies the conditions.}$$

b) We can try as in a):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & d \\ 1 & b & e \\ 1 & c & f \end{bmatrix}; \quad [0 \ 1 \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & d \\ 1 & b & e \\ 1 & c & f \end{bmatrix} = [1 \ b \ e] = [0 \ 0 \ 0]!$$

$\uparrow$
impossible.

Indeed, we could see this from the start:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \in C(A), \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in N(A^T) \quad \text{but} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \neq 0 !!$$

(recall that $C(A) \perp N(A^T)$).

c) Notice that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \in C(A), \text{ but also } [1 \ 1 \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & \dots & a_{3n} \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{(*)}{=} [0 \ 0 \ 0]$$

$\downarrow$ (rows add up to zero)

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (a_{11} + a_{21} + a_{31}) & \dots & (a_{1n} + a_{2n} + a_{3n}) \end{bmatrix}$$

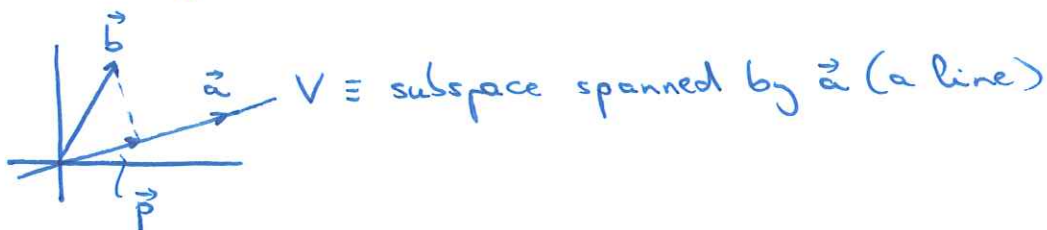
Thus, we need $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \in C(A)$ and $\in N(A^T)$, which is impossible since $C(A) \perp N(A^T)$.

Indeed, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \in C(A) \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha_1 \vec{a}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{a}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{a}_n$, where $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n$ are the columns of A .

But $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \vec{a}_i = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$! $\perp$.

II.1 Projections.

II.1) Projection onto a line:

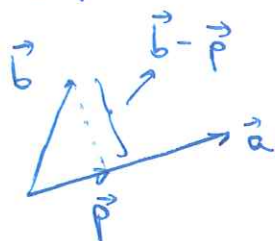


• Given $\vec{b}$ and $\vec{a}$, how to find $\vec{p} \equiv$ projection of $\vec{b}$ onto $\vec{a}$?

Remark: we will also use the notation $\vec{p} \equiv P_V \vec{b}$ //

Answer: Well, $\vec{p}$ is on the line, so it has to be some multiple of $\vec{a}$: $\vec{p} = \lambda \vec{a}$, where we need to find $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

• How?



We need to use that $\vec{b} - \vec{p}$ is perpendicular to $\vec{a}$:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} - \vec{p}) &= 0 \\ \vec{p} &= \lambda \vec{a} \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} - \lambda \vec{a}) = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \lambda \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}}.$$

• In summary,

$$\left\| P_V \vec{b} \equiv \vec{p} = \left(\frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}} \right) \vec{a} = \left(\frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{\|\vec{a}\|^2} \right) \vec{a} \right\|$$

• Remark: Using matrix notation, we can write it as follows:

$$\vec{p} = \vec{a} \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{\|\vec{a}\|^2} = \vec{a} \frac{\vec{a}^T \vec{b}}{\|\vec{a}\|^2} = \frac{\vec{a} \vec{a}^T}{\|\vec{a}\|^2} \vec{b} = P \vec{b}, \text{ where}$$

$$\left\| P = \frac{\vec{a} \vec{a}^T}{\|\vec{a}\|^2} = \frac{\vec{a} \vec{a}^T}{\vec{a}^T \vec{a}} \right\| \text{ is the Projection matrix (onto } \vec{a} \text{).}$$

→ So the projection of vectors onto a line is a linear transformation.

- Example: Find the projection of $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ onto the line given by

$$\begin{cases} x - y = 0 \\ x - z = 0 \end{cases}.$$

Sol:

We first need a basis for the line (our vector $\vec{a}$).

$$\begin{cases} x - y = 0 \\ x - z = 0 \end{cases} \leadsto \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}. \text{ Therefore,}$$

$$\vec{p} = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{\|\vec{a}\|^2} \vec{a} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Q: What is the projection matrix?

$$P = \frac{\vec{a} \vec{a}^T}{\vec{a}^T \vec{a}} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Check: $\vec{p} = P \vec{b} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$

- Q: What is $N(P)$? $C(P)$? P^2 ?

$C(P) \rightarrow$ The line! (of course, all vectors get projected onto that line when multiplied by P).

$N(P) \rightarrow$ The orthogonal complement of the line!

↓

Indeed, everything that is perpendicular to the line is projected to zero.

We can check it in the example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{cases} y = \alpha \\ z = \beta \\ x = -\alpha - \beta \end{cases}$$

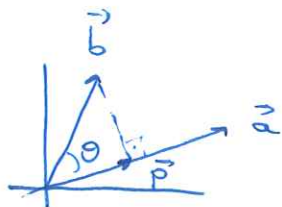
$$N(P) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \equiv \text{plane orthogonal to the line } \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} //$$

• Finally, $P^2 = P$!

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{1}{3^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3^2} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is true for all projections matrices: of course, because $P\vec{b}$ is already on the line, so $P(P\vec{b})$ is the same as $P\vec{b}$.

• Exercise (Home): Find projection of $\vec{b}$ onto $\vec{a}$ using trigonometry:

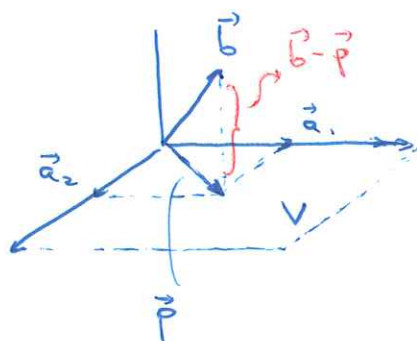


$$\left. \begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= \frac{\|\vec{p}\|}{\|\vec{b}\|} \\ \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} &= \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \theta \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \|\vec{p}\|, \vec{p} ?$$

II. 2) Projection onto a subspace.

Consider first a plane. Choose a basis for the plane,

$\{\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2\}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$,



• Once we know $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2$, given $\vec{b}$, what is its projection onto V ?

↳ I.e., find $\vec{p} \equiv P_V \vec{b}$.

→ Since $\vec{p} \in V$, it has to be a linear combination of

$\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2$:

$$\vec{p} = \alpha_1 \vec{a}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{a}_2 = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{\alpha}} \equiv A \vec{\alpha}.$$

→ Let's use that $\vec{b} - \vec{p}$ is orthogonal to the plane:

(so in particular $\perp$ to $\vec{a}_1$ and $\vec{a}_2$)

$$\vec{a}_1 \cdot (\vec{b} - \vec{p}) = 0 \rightarrow \vec{a}_1^T (\vec{b} - A \vec{\alpha}) = 0 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b} - A \vec{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\vec{a}_2 \cdot (\vec{b} - \vec{p}) = 0 \rightarrow \vec{a}_2^T (\vec{b} - A \vec{\alpha}) = 0 \rightsquigarrow \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_2^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b} - A \vec{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1^T \\ \vec{a}_2^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b} - A \vec{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow A^T (\vec{b} - A \vec{\alpha}) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

→ $\| A^T A \vec{a} = A^T \vec{b}$ (we need to solve for $\vec{a}$).

• Assuming $A^T A$ has an inverse (*), we have that

$$\vec{a} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{b}, \text{ therefore } \vec{p} = A \vec{a} = A (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{b}.$$

• In summary, given a plane V in $\mathbb{R}^3$, with basis $\{\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2\}$, and a vector $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, the projection of $\vec{b}$ onto V is

$$\| \vec{p} = P_V \vec{b} = \underbrace{A (A^T A)^{-1} A^T}_{\text{Projection matrix}} \vec{b} \|$$

$$P = A (A^T A)^{-1} A^T, \text{ with } A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

'''
Projection matrix onto V .

(*) $A^T A$ is always square and symmetric.

↳ It has an inverse if and only if the columns of A are l.i.

Remark: For these problems, since ~~A has~~ the columns of A are the vectors in a basis of V , $A^T A$ is invertible.

Example: 1) Find the projection matrix P onto the plane $x + y + z = 0$, and the projection of $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ onto the plane.

2) Find $N(P)$.

3) Let V be the plane in a). Using the basis

$$\mathcal{V} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, \text{ find the matrix of the}$$

following linear transformation: $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow V$
 $\vec{b} \mapsto T(\vec{b})|_{\mathcal{V}} = P_V \vec{b}|_{\mathcal{V}} \Big\}.$

Solution:

1) We need a basis for $V \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$
 $\quad \quad \quad \vec{a}_1 \quad \quad \vec{a}_2$

We construct A :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Finally, } P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T, \quad A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$(A^T A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Thus,}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet P_V \vec{b} = P \vec{b} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

2) $N(P)$: all vectors $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ such that $P\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.

Since P is the matrix that projects onto the plane V , we see that $N(P) = V^\perp$, that is, the vectors on the line perpendicular to the plane V :

$$N(P) = V^\perp = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

3) Let $\mathcal{E}$ be the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$: $\mathcal{E} = \{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3\}$.

We want to find

$$M_{\mathcal{E}}^V = \begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{e}_1)|_V & T(\vec{e}_2)|_V & T(\vec{e}_3)|_V \end{bmatrix}.$$

Using 2),

$$T(\vec{e}_1)|_{\mathcal{E}} = P\vec{e}_1 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(\vec{e}_2)|_{\mathcal{E}} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(\vec{e}_3)|_{\mathcal{E}} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Finally, we need to find the coordinates of these vectors

in V :

$$M_V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M_V T(\vec{e}_1)|_V = T(\vec{e}_1)|_{\mathcal{E}},$$

$$M_V T(\vec{e}_2)|_V = T(\vec{e}_2)|_{\mathcal{E}},$$

$$M_V T(\vec{e}_3)|_V = T(\vec{e}_3)|_{\mathcal{E}}.$$

We solve the three systems at once using Gauss-Jordan:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|ccc} 1 & 1 & 2/3 & -1/3 & -1/3 \\ -1 & 0 & -1/3 & 2/3 & -1/3 \\ 0 & -1 & -1/3 & -1/3 & 2/3 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|ccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1/3 & -2/3 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/3 & 1/3 & -2/3 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow T(\vec{e}_1)|_V = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(\vec{e}_2)|_V = \begin{bmatrix} -2/3 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(\vec{e}_3)|_V = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ -2/3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$M_E^V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3}.$$

Check: $M_E^V \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{//}, \quad M_E^V \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$