Problem 1. Special Matrices. For any angle θ we define the following matrices:

$$R_{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}, \quad F_{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & -\cos \theta \end{pmatrix}, \quad P_{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & \cos \theta \sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \sin \theta & \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}.$$

- (a) Describe what each matrix does geometrically.
- (b) Compute the determinant of each matrix.
- (c) For each matrix that is invertible, compute the inverse.

(a): The matrix R_{θ} rotates counterclockwise by angle θ . The matrix F_{θ} reflects across the line with angle $\theta/2$. [See the lecture notes for discussion.] The matrix P_{θ} projects onto the line with angle θ . Indeed, the matrix that projects onto the line $t\mathbf{a} = t(\cos\theta, \sin\theta)$ is

$$P = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T = \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{pmatrix} (\cos \theta - \sin \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta - \cos \theta \sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \sin \theta - \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}.$$

(b): To save space we will write $c = \cos \theta$ and $s = \sin \theta$. Then the determinants are

$$\det(R_{\theta}) = c^{2} + s^{2} = 1,$$

$$\det(F_{\theta}) = -c^{2} - s^{2} = -1,$$

$$\det(P_{\theta}) = c^{2}s^{2} - cscs = 0.$$

Note that these determinants do not depend on the angle θ . [Remark: It is a general phenomenon that rotations have determinant 1, reflections have determinant -1 and projections have determinant 0.]

(c): Recall that a matrix is invertible if and only if its determinant is not zero. Thus P_{θ} is not invertible. The inverses of R_{θ} and F_{θ} are given by

$$R_{\theta}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(R_{\theta})} \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$F_{\theta}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(R_{\theta})} \begin{pmatrix} -c & -s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ s & -c \end{pmatrix}.$$

[Remark: We observe that $R_{\theta}^{-1} = R_{-\theta}$ because rotating by $-\theta$ is the opposite of rotating by θ . And we observe that $F_{\theta}^{-1} = F_{\theta}$ because reflecting twice is the same as doing nothing.]

Problem 2. Projections in General. We call P a projection if $P^T = P$ and $P^2 = P$.

- (a) If P is a projection, show that Q = I P is also a projection.
- (b) Show that the projections P and Q from part (a) satisfy PQ = 0.
- (c) Let A be any matrix (possibly non-square), so that $A^T A$ is a square matrix. Assuming that $(A^T A)^{-1}$ exists, show that $P = A(A^T A)^{-1}A^T$ is a projection. [We saw in class that this matrix projects orthogonally onto the **column space** of A.]
- (d) In the special case that A is invertible, show that $P = A(A^TA)^{-1}A^T = I$. What does this mean? [Hint: The column space of an invertible matrix is the whole space.]

¹Technically, these matrices are called *orthogonal projections* because they project at right angles.

(a): Let P be a projection so that $P^T = P$ and $P^2 = P$. Then we have

$$Q^{T} = (I - P)^{T} = I^{T} - P^{T} = I - P = Q$$

and

$$Q^{2} = (I - P)(I - P) = I^{2} - IP - PI + P^{2} = I - P - P + P = I - P = Q,$$

so that Q is also a projection.

(b): We have $PQ = P(I-P) = PI-P^2 = P-P = 0$. [Similarly, we have QP = 0.] Geometric Meaning of (a) and (b): P and Q are projections onto a pair of orthogonal subspaces. See the lecture notes for discussion.

(c): To show that $P = A(A^TA)^{-1}A^T$ is a projection we first observe that $P^2 = P$:

$$P^{2} = [A(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}][A(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}]$$

$$= A(A^{T}A)^{-1}(A^{T}A)(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$= AI(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$= (A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$= P.$$

To show that $P^T = P$ we will use the matrix identities $(ABC)^T = C^T B^T A^T$, $(A^T)^T = A$ and $(B^{-1})^T = (B^T)^{-1}$:

$$P^{T} = [A(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}]^{T}$$

$$= (A^{T})^{T}[(A^{T}A)^{-1}]^{T}A^{T}$$

$$= A[(A^{T}A)^{-1}]^{T}A^{T}$$

$$= A[(A^{T}A)^{T}]^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$= A[A^{T}(A^{T})^{T}]^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$= A[A^{T}A]^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$=$$

(d): If A^{-1} exists then we use the identity $(BA)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$ to observe that

$$P = A(A^TA)^{-1}A^T = AA^{-1}(A^T)^{-1}A^T = II = I.$$

Geometric Meaning: The matrix P is the projection onto the column space of A. If A is invertible then the columns of A are independent, hence the column space of A is **the whole space**. To project a point into the whole space we **do nothing** because the point is already in the whole space. Geometrically we would never consider this case; we only do it to check that the algebra makes sense.

Problem 3. Specific Projections. Consider the following matrices:

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- (a) Compute the 3×3 matrix $P = \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a})^{-1} \mathbf{a}^T$ that projects onto the column space of \mathbf{a} , i.e., the matrix that projects onto the line t(1, 1, -1).
- (b) Compute the 3×3 matrix $Q = A(A^TA)^{-1}A^T$ that projects onto the column space of A, i.e., the matrix that projects onto the plane s(1,2,3) + t(1,1,2).

- (c) Check that P + Q = I and PQ = 0. Why does this happen? [Hint: How are the line from part (a) and the plane from part (b) related to each other?]
- (a): The matrix that projects onto the line $t\mathbf{a} = t(1, 1, -1)$ is

$$P = \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{a}^{T}\mathbf{a})^{-1}\mathbf{a}^{T}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (1 & 1 & -1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} (1 & 1 & -1)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} (3)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(b): The matrix that projects onto the plane C(A) = s(1,2,3) + t(1,1,2) is

$$Q = A(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 14 & 9 \\ 9 & 6 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -9 \\ -9 & 14 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 5 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(c): We have

$$P + Q = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = I$$

and

$$PQ = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

This happens because the line in part (a) and the plane in part (b) are orthogonal complements. [I deliberately chose them that way. First I picked the columns of A and then I let a be their cross product. Projections onto some random line and plane would not satisfy this.]

Problem 4. Least Squares Approximation. Consider the following two lines in \mathbb{R}^3 :

$$L_1: (x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0) + s(1, 1, 1), \quad L_2: (x, y, z) = (1, 0, 0) + t(-1, 1, 0).$$

- (a) Write down the system of three linear equations in s,t that expresses the intersection of the two lines. [This system has no solution because the lines do **not** intersect.]
- (b) Find the OLS approximations \hat{s} and \hat{t} for the system in part (a).
- (c) Use your answer from (b) to compute the minimum distance between the two lines.
- (a): A general point of L_1 has the form (x, y, z) = (s, s, s) and a general point of L_2 has the form (x, y, z) = (1 t, t, 0). If the two lines intersect them we will have (s, s, s) = (1 t, t, 0), which gives a system of 3 linear equations in the 2 unknowns s, t:

$$\begin{cases} s = 1 - t, \\ s = t, \\ s = 0. \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} s + t = 1, \\ s - t = 0, \\ s + 0 = 0. \end{cases}$$

(b): To find approximate solutions \hat{s}, \hat{t} we consider the normal equation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s \\ t \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{s} \\ \hat{t} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{s} \\ \hat{t} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{s} \\ \hat{t} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(c): The points on L_1 and L_2 that come closest to each other are $(\hat{s}, \hat{s}, \hat{s}) = (1/3, 1/3, 1/3)$ and $(1 - \hat{t}, \hat{t}, 0) = (1/2, 1/2, 0)$. The distance between these points is

$$\left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{(1/3 - 1/2)^3 + (1/3 - 1/2)^2 + (1/3 - 0)^2} = \sqrt{1/6}.$$

See the lecture notes for a picture.

Problem 5. Least Squares Regression. Consider four data points:

$$(x,y) = (1,1), (2,1), (3,3), (4,5).$$

- (a) Find the OLS best fit line y = mx + b for these points. Draw your answer.
- (b) Find the OLS best fit parabola $y = ax^2 + bx + c$ for the same points. Draw your answer.

[I recommend using a computer algebra system to solve the normal equations.]

(a): Each data point gives a linear equation in m and b. This system of 4 linear equations in 2 unknowns has no solution, so we solve the normal equation:

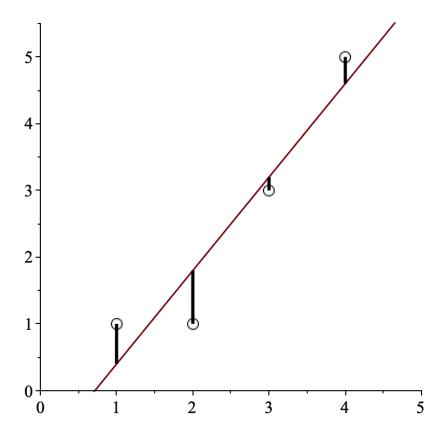
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{m} \\ \hat{b} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 30 & 10 \\ 10 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{m} \\ \hat{b} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 32 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{m} \\ \hat{b} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7/5 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The best fit line is $y = \hat{m}x + \hat{b} = (7/5)x - 1$. Here is a picture:



(b): Each data point gives a linear equation in a, b, c. This system of 4 linear equations in 3 unknowns has no solution, so we solve the normal equation:

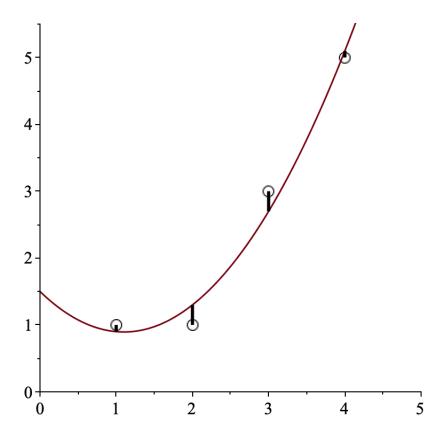
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 9 & 3 & 1 \\ 16 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 9 & 16 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 9 & 3 & 1 \\ 16 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{a} \\ \hat{b} \\ \hat{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 9 & 16 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 354 & 100 & 30 \\ 100 & 30 & 10 \\ 30 & 10 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{a} \\ \hat{b} \\ \hat{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 112 \\ 32 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{a} \\ \hat{b} \\ \hat{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ -11/10 \\ 3/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The best fit parabola is $y = \hat{a}x^2 + \hat{b}x + \hat{c} = (1/2)x^2 - (11/10)x + (3/2)$. Here is a picture:



Observe that this parabola is a "better fit" than the best fit line. That is, the sum of the squares of the vertical errors is smaller. In fact, one can check that these sums are 6/5 in (a) and 1/5 in (b). So I guess (b) is six times "better" than (a).