

## Homework 5

4.1.24: Suppose  $A^{-1}$  exists. Let  $\vec{a}_1^T, \dots, \vec{a}_n^T$  be the rows of  $A$  and let  $\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n$  be the columns of  $A^{-1}$ . We have

$$AA^{-1} = I.$$

By looking at the  $(i, j)$  entry on each side we get

$$(\text{ith row } A)(\text{jth col } A^{-1}) = (\text{ij entry } I)$$

$$\vec{a}_i \circ \vec{b}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

In particular we see that  $\vec{a}_i \circ \vec{b}_1 = 0$  for  $i=2, 3, \dots, n$ . This means that the 1st column of  $A^{-1}$  (i.e.  $\vec{b}_1$ ) is perpendicular to the 2nd, 3rd,  $\dots$ ,  $n$ th rows of  $A$ .

4.1.25. Suppose  $A$  has columns

$$\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_n$$

such that  $\vec{a}_i \circ \vec{a}_j = 0$  for  $i \neq j$   
and  $\vec{a}_i \circ \vec{a}_i = \|\vec{a}_i\|^2 = 1$  for all  $i$ .

The  $i$ th row of  $A^T$  is  $\vec{a}_i^T$  by definition.  
Then the  $i, j$  entry of  $A^T A$  is

$$\begin{aligned} (i, j)\text{-entry } A^T A &= (\textit{i}th \textit{row } A^T) (\textit{j}th \textit{col } A) \\ &= \vec{a}_i^T \vec{a}_j \\ &= \vec{a}_i \cdot \vec{a}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

In other words,  $A^T A = I$ .

4.1.26. For example, consider the matrix

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

One can check that the columns of  $A$  are mutually perpendicular. It follows from 2.4.25 that  $A^T A$  is a "diagonal" matrix. In fact we have

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = 9I.$$

4.2.1. Project  $\vec{b}$  onto the line  $t\vec{a}$ :

(a)  $\vec{b} = (1, 2, 2)$  &  $\vec{a} = (1, 1, 1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{p} &= \left( \frac{\vec{a}^T \vec{b}}{\vec{a}^T \vec{a}} \right) \vec{a} = \frac{(1 \ 1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}}{(1 \ 1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{5}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.\end{aligned}$$

(b)  $\vec{b} = (1, 3, 1)$  &  $\vec{a} = (-1, -3, -1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{p} &= \left( \frac{\vec{a}^T \vec{b}}{\vec{a}^T \vec{a}} \right) \vec{a} = \frac{(-1 \ -3 \ -1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}}{(1 \ 3 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{-11}{11} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.\end{aligned}$$

We got  $\vec{p} = \vec{b}$ . Why did that happen?

Answer: Because the point  $\vec{b}$  was already on the line  $t\vec{a}$ .

Projecting twice does nothing.

4.2.5.  $\vec{a}_1 = (-1, 2, 2)$  &  $\vec{a}_2 = (2, 2, -1)$ .

Projection matrices:

$$P_1 = \frac{\vec{a}_1 \vec{a}_1^T}{\vec{a}_1^T \vec{a}_1} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -2 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

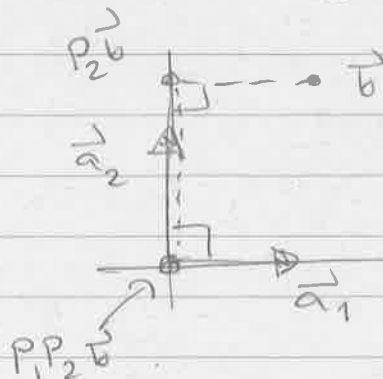
$$P_2 = \frac{\vec{a}_2 \vec{a}_2^T}{\vec{a}_2^T \vec{a}_2} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 4 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Product:  $P_1 P_2 = \frac{1}{81} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -2 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 4 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Why did this happen?

Because the lines  $t\vec{a}_1$  &  $t\vec{a}_2$  are  $\perp$ :



We also have  $P_2 P_1 = 0$ .

4.2.10. We usually don't have  $P_1 P_2 = P_2 P_1$ .

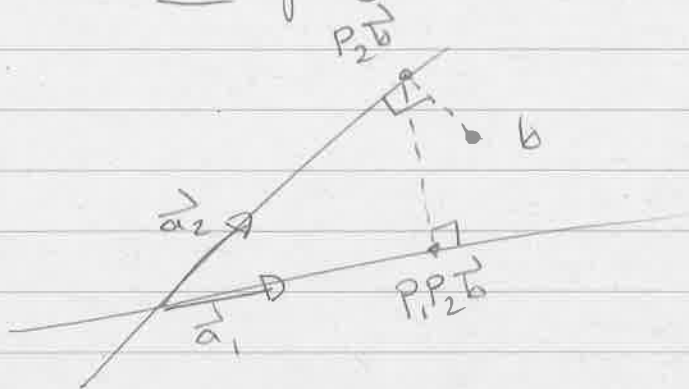
Example:  $\vec{a}_1 = (1, 0)$  &  $\vec{a}_2 = (1, 2)$ .

$$P_1 = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_2 = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}} = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Product: } P_1 P_2 = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This matrix first projects onto  $\vec{a}_2$   
and then projects onto  $\vec{a}_1$ :



Is  $P_1 P_2$  a projection? I would say NO  
because

$$(P_1 P_2)^2 = \frac{1}{25} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{5} P_1 P_2 \neq P_1 P_2$$

[It's a projection followed by a  
"contraction" by  $1/5$ .]

4.2.16. Which linear combination of  $(1, 2, -1)$  &  $(1, 0, 1)$  is closest to  $(2, 1, 1)$ ?

Project  $\vec{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  onto col space of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ :

$$\text{proj} = A\vec{x} \quad \text{where}$$

$$A^T A \vec{x} = A^T \vec{b}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 3/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then proj} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 3/2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We projected  $(2, 1, 1)$  and nothing happened because it was already in the plane!

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.2.17 : Suppose that  $P^2 = P$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} (I-P)^2 &= (I-P)(I-P) \\ &= I^2 - PI - IP + P^2 \\ &= I - P - P + P \\ &= I - P. \end{aligned}$$

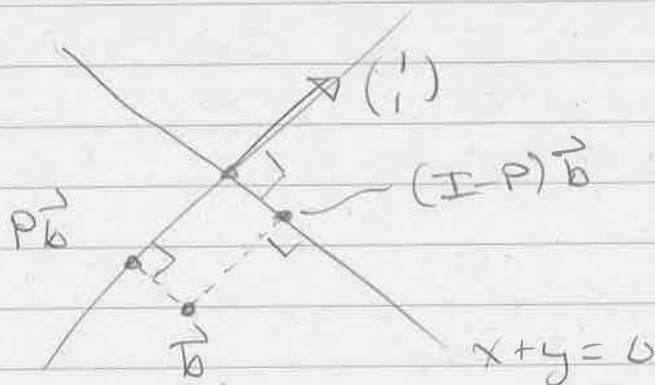
If  $P$  projects onto the column space of  $A$  then  $I-P$  projects onto the space that is orthogonal to the column space of  $A$ .

[Remark: This is the space of vectors  $\vec{x}$  that satisfy  $A^T \vec{x} = \vec{0}$ .]

4.2.18. Examples: If  $P$  projects onto the line  $t(1,1)$

$$\text{[i.e. if } P = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}]$$

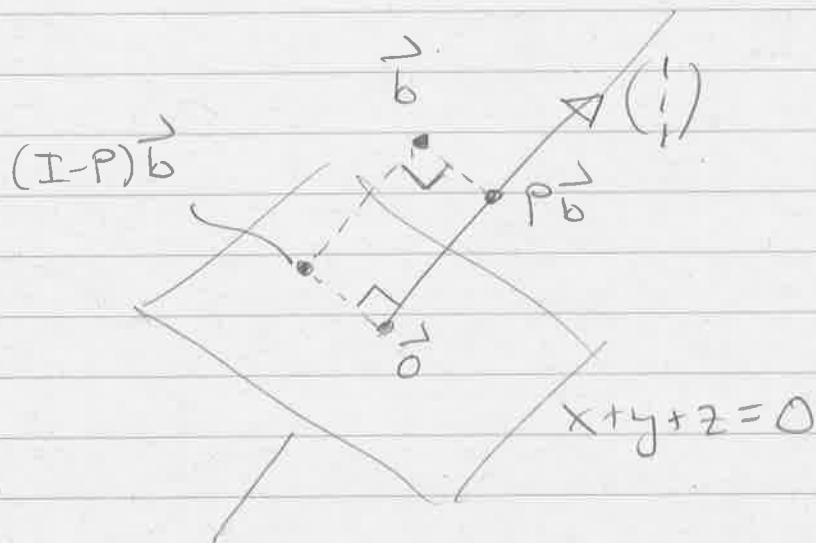
then  $I-P$  projects onto the perpendicular line  $x+y=0$ .



If  $P$  projects onto the line  $t(1, 1, 1)$

$$\left[ \text{i.e. if } P = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]$$

then  $I-P$  projects onto the plane  $x+y+z=0$ .



4.2.19. To find two vectors in the plane  $x-y-2z=0$ , let  $y$  &  $z$  be free. Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y+2z \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = y \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + z \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

By setting  $y=1, z=0$  &  $y=0, z=1$  we find that

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  &  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  are two vectors in the plane.



So we define  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Then the matrix that projects onto the plane is

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

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Is this correct? The next problem will provide a check.

4.2.20. The plane  $x - y - 2z = 0$  has perpendicular line  $t(1, -1, -2)$ . The projection onto this line is

$$Q = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore the projection onto the plane is

$$\begin{aligned} I - Q &= \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 6 & & \\ & 6 & \\ & & 6 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

4.3.5, we have 4 data points

$$\begin{pmatrix} t \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} t_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} t_2 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} t_3 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} t_4 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix}$$

[Note: The times won't matter so Strang didn't even tell us what they are.]

Fit these points to a horizontal line of the form  $C = b$ .

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{The equations} \\ C = 0 \\ C = 8 \\ C = 8 \\ C = 20 \end{array} \Leftrightarrow \begin{array}{l} A \vec{x} = \vec{b} \\ \left( \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & (C) \end{array} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 8 \\ 8 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

obviously have no solution, so we try the normal equation  $A^T A \hat{x} = A^T \vec{b}$ :

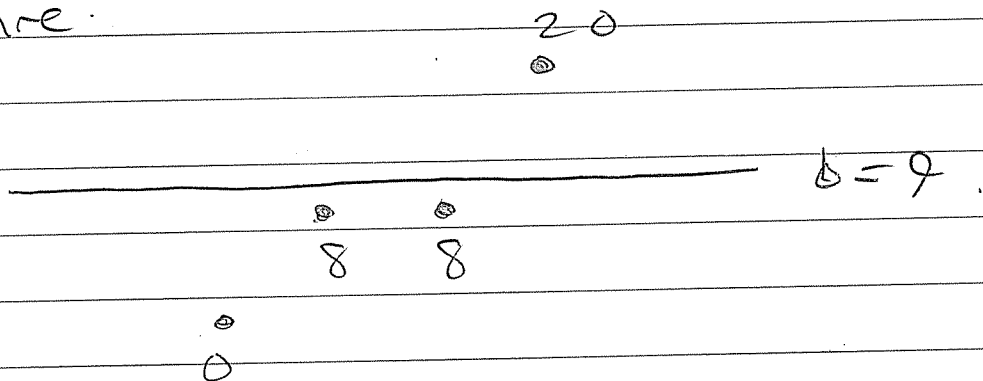
$$(1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (C) = (1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 8 \\ 8 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$4C = 0 + 8 + 8 + 20$$

$$C = \frac{(0 + 8 + 8 + 20)}{4} = 9$$

This  $C=9$  is just the average of the  $b$  values!

Picture:



4.3.7. Find the line  $Dt = b$  through the origin closest to

$$\begin{pmatrix} t \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix}$$

[Now Strang tells us the  $t$  values]

The silly equations are

$$\begin{array}{l} 0D = 0 \\ 1D = 8 \\ 3D = 8 \\ 4D = 20 \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} (D) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 8 \\ 8 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$"A \vec{x} = \vec{b}"$$

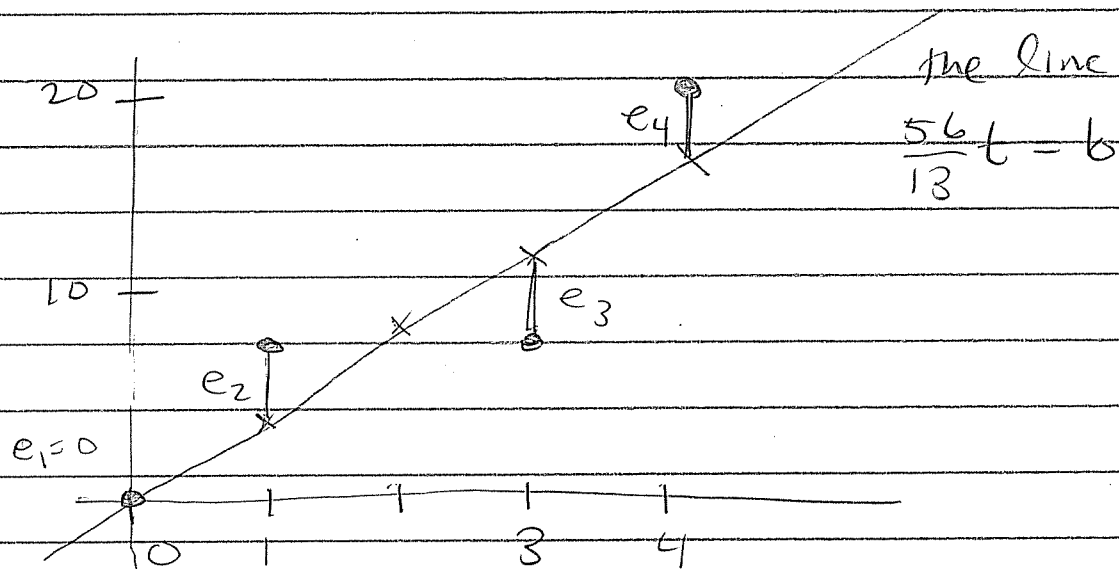
There is no solution, so we solve the normal equation  $A^T A \hat{x} = A^T \vec{b}$

$$(0 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} (D) = (0 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 8 \\ 8 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix}$$

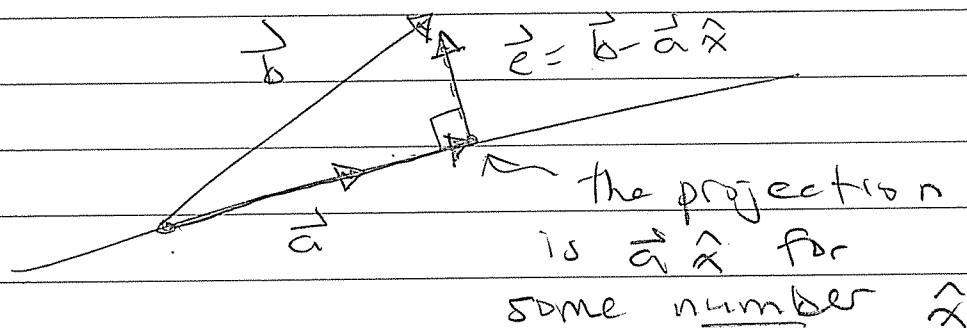
$$26D = 112$$

$$D = 112/26 = 56/13$$

Picture:



4.3.12. Project the data  $\vec{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$  onto the line through  $\vec{a} = (1, 1, \dots, 1)$ .



By orthogonality, we must have

$$\vec{a}^T \vec{e} = \vec{a}^T (\vec{b} - \vec{a} \hat{x}) = 0$$

$$\vec{a}^T \vec{b} - \vec{a}^T \vec{a} \hat{x} = 0$$

$$\vec{a}^T \vec{b} = \vec{a}^T \vec{a} \hat{x}$$

(a) Solve this.  $\vec{a}^T \vec{a} \hat{x} = \vec{a}^T \vec{b}$  is

$$(1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \hat{x} = (1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}$$

$$m \hat{x} = b_1 + \dots + b_m$$

$$\hat{x} = \frac{b_1 + \dots + b_m}{m}$$

= the average / mean  
of the  $b$  values.

(b) The error vector is

$$\vec{e} = \vec{b} - \vec{a} \hat{x} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix} - \hat{x} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 - \hat{x} \\ \vdots \\ b_m - \hat{x} \end{pmatrix}$$

Its squared length is the variance

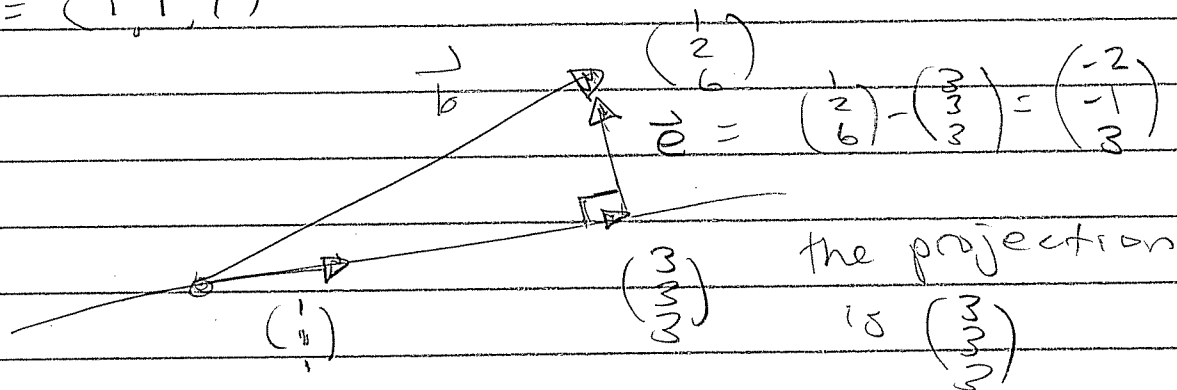
$$\|\vec{e}\|^2 = (b_1 - \hat{x})^2 + (b_2 - \hat{x})^2 + \dots + (b_m - \hat{x})^2$$

Its length is the standard deviation

$$\|\vec{e}\| = \sqrt{(b_1 - \hat{x})^2 + \dots + (b_m - \hat{x})^2}$$

(c) Example:  $\vec{b} = (1, 2, 6)$

To find the best horizontal line (which is just the mean of the  $b$ 's) we project  $\vec{b}$  onto the line through  $\vec{a} = (1, 1, 1)$



The error is  $\perp$  to the projection

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

The matrix that performs the projection onto  $\overline{\vec{a}} = (1, 1, 1)$  is

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

Check:

$$P\vec{b} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

It works.



4.3.17. Find the line  $C + Dt = b$  closest to the data points

$$\begin{pmatrix} t \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 21 \end{pmatrix}$$

Plug in:

$$C + D(-1) = 7$$

$$C + D(1) = 7$$

$$C + D(2) = 21$$

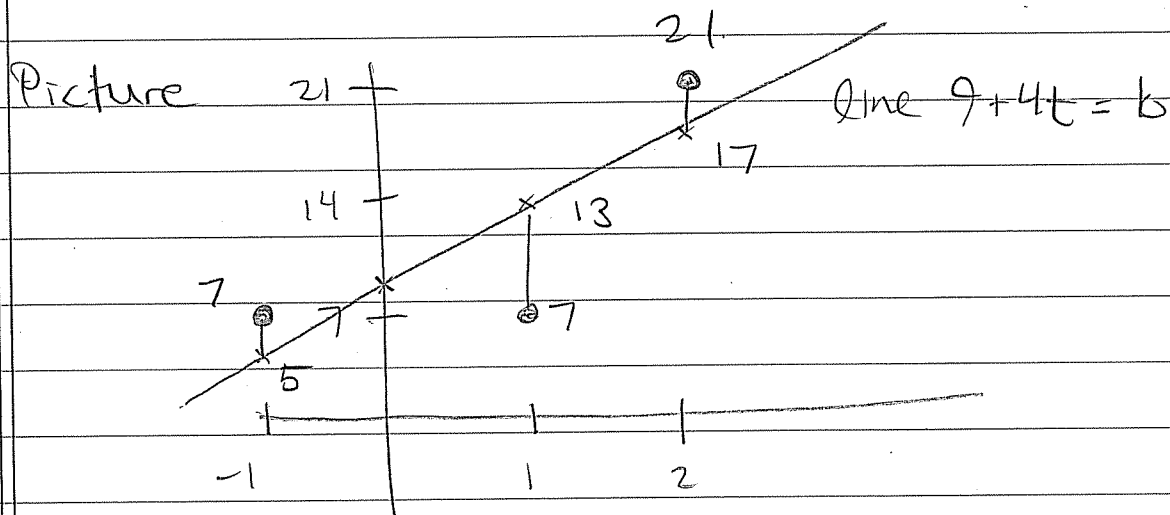
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 21 \end{pmatrix}$$

Least Squares:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 21 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 35 \\ 42 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\implies \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 9 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$



4.3.22. Find the line  $C+Dt=b$  closest to the points  $\begin{pmatrix} t \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Normal Equation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The line is  
 $1-t=b$

## Additional Problems (not assigned)

We say that  $P$  is a "projection matrix" if  $P^T = P$  and  $P^2 = P$ .

A.1. Show  $P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  is a projection matrix.

$$P^2 = P ?$$

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

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

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

$$= A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T = P \quad \checkmark$$

$$P^T = P ?$$

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

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

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

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

$$= A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T = P \quad \checkmark$$

A.2. If  $A$  is square and invertible, then

$$\begin{aligned}(A^T A)^{-1} &= (A)^{-1} (A^T)^{-1} \\ &= A^{-1} (A^T)^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}P &= A (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \\ &= \cancel{A} A^{-1} (\cancel{A^T})^{-1} A^T \\ &= I \cdot I = I.\end{aligned}$$

In this case we are projecting onto the full space. How do we project onto the full space? Do nothing! i.e. the identity function.

A.3. If  $P^T = P$  and  $P^2 = P$ , then

$$(I - P)^T = I^T - P^T = I - P \quad \checkmark \text{ and}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(I - P)^2 &= (I - P)(I - P) \\ &= II - PI - IP + PP \\ &= I - P - P + P^2 \\ &= I - P - \cancel{P} + \cancel{P} \\ &= I - P \quad \checkmark\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $I - P$  is also a projection.

A.4. The projections  $P$  and  $I - P$  satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} P(I - P) &= PI - P^2 \\ &= P - P = 0 \quad (\text{the matrix of all zeros}) \end{aligned}$$

We say that the projection functions  $P$  and  $I - P$  are "orthogonal" to each other. What does this mean?

Example:

