Solution Set 5, 18.06 Fall '12

1. Do problem 5 from 4.1

Solution. (a) Ax = b is saying that b is in the column space of A, $A^Ty = 0$ is saying that y is in the nullspace of A^T , we know that the column space of A is orthogonal to the null space of A^T , so we have $y^Tb = 0$ (note that y and x don't necessarily have the same dimension so the second option doesn't really make sense).

(b) From the information given, we know that $(1, 1, 1)^T$ is in the column space of A^T and x is in the null space of A. This implies that x is orthogonal to (1, 1, 1).

2. Do problem 29 from 4.1

Solution. If we write $AA^{-1} = I$ in terms of rows of A and columns of A^{-1} , we see that the first column of A^{-1} is orthogonal to all the rows of A except the first. Indeed the inner product of the first column of A^{-1} with the first row of A is 1.

3. Do problem 29 from 4.1

Solution. For the first question we can take :

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

Clearly, v is in the row space and column space.

For the second quesion we can take

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0\\ -4 & 2 & 0\\ -6 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is easy to check that v is in the column space and in the null space.

Clearly v is not orthogonal to itself (the only vector that is orthogonal to itself is 0) therefore v can't be both in the null space of A and the row space or both in the null space of A^T and in the column space. \Box

4. Do problem 13 from 4.2

Solution. The column space of A is easily described as the space of 4-dimensional vectors whose last coordinate is 0. The projection of b is the vector p(b) = (1, 2, 3, 0), indeed p(b) must be in the column space of A and be such that b - p(b) is orthogonal to the column space of A. Clearly (1, 2, 3, 0) satisfies these two conditions.

Using the same reasoning, it is not hard to check that projecting any vector to the column space of A is the same thing as setting the last coordinate equal to 0.

If we believe that, the projection matrix is
$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
. Indeed

when this P is multiplied with a vector, it has exactly the effect of leaving the first three coordinates the same and setting the last one to 0.

One could also use the formula $P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$.

If we use this, we find that $A^T A$ is the 3 by 3 identity matrix. So $P = AI^{-1}A^T = AA^T$ and then it is a straightforward computation to check that P is what is written above.

5. Do problem 22 from 4.2

Solution. We just compute. The key points to have in mind is that $(M^{-1})^T = (M^T)^{-1}, (MN)^T = N^T M^T$ and $(M^T)^T = M$:

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

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

6. Do problem 24 from 4.2

Solution. The nullspace of A^T is orthogonal to the column space of A. So if $A^T b = 0$, the projection of b onto C(A) should be p = 0. Indeed the projection of a vector onto a space it is orthogonal to is 0.

If we take $P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$, it is obvious that we indeed have Pb = 0.

7. Do problem 30 from 4.2

Solution. (a) We see that the column space of A is the line generated by $a = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$. The projection matrix is then $P_C = aa^T/a^Ta$. We find : $P_{C} = \frac{1}{2}\begin{pmatrix} 9 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$

$$P_C = \frac{1}{25} \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 12\\ 12 & 16 \end{pmatrix}$$

(b) The row space of A is the line generated by $\begin{pmatrix} 3\\6\\6 \end{pmatrix}$ which is the

same as the line generated by $\begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 2\\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$. We use the same formula that we used in the first question :

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

If we do the computation $P_C A P_R$ we find A. Let's try to explain that.

First let's try to understand what $P_C A$ is. The column of the matrix $P_C A$ are P_C times the columns of A. But P_C is the projection onto the column space and the columns of A are in the column space by definition. Hence we see that P_C does nothing to the columns of A and $P_C A = A$.

Now we are reduced to understand AP_R . It is easier to try to understand its transpose $P_R^T A^T$. We know that $P_R^T = P_R$, so we need to understand $P_R A^T$. The columns of this matrix are P_R times the columns of A^T but the columns of A^T are the rows of A. Hence they are in the row space and multiplying them by P_R leaves them unchanged. This is precisely saying that $P_R A^T = A^T$. However we were really interested in AP_R which is the transpose of what we have just computed. Thus $AP_R = A$.

This explains why $P_C A P_R = A$.

8. Do problem 5 from 4.3

Solution. A horiszontal line of height ${\cal C}$ fitting these 4 points would satisfy :

$$C = 0$$
$$C = 8$$
$$C = 8$$
$$C = 20$$

In matrix form, we want to solve :

. .

$$AC = b$$
 with $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Of course there are no exact solutions but

the best approximation is given by solving the equation:

$$A^T A C = A^T b$$

This equation becomes 4C = 0 + 8 + 8 + 20 = 36. The best *C* is 9. I didn't draw the picture but the errors are the difference between the actual value and 9 i.e. 9, 1, 1, 11.

9. Do problem 17 from 4.3

Solution. The equations we need to solve if there was an exact solution is :

$$C - D = 7$$
$$C + D = 7$$
$$C + 2D = 21$$

Of course this system is unsolvable. We know that the best approximation to a solution is given by the solution to $A^T A \begin{pmatrix} C \\ D \end{pmatrix} = A^T \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 21 \end{pmatrix}$ with $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

We have $A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ and $A^T \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 21 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 35 \\ 42 \end{pmatrix}$. Therefore we want to solve :

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

We find C = 9 and D = 4. Hence the best approximation is the line y = 9 + 4t.