

Recap: Linear models: one way anova, two way anova

Date: Tuesday 4/10
 $\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{e}$ where \underline{y} is an $n \times 1$ vector

\underline{X} : $n \times p$ matrix, $\underline{\beta}$: $p \times 1$ vector and \underline{e} : $n \times 1$ vector.

LSE of $\underline{\beta}$ is a solution to the normal equations

$$\underline{X}^T \underline{X} \underline{\beta} = \underline{X}^T \underline{y} \quad (\text{NES})$$

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X} \underline{\beta} + \underline{e}, \quad \underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n & \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \dots & \underline{0}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \dots & \dots & \underline{1}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{X}^T \underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \dots & \underline{1}_n^T \\ \underline{1}_n^T & \underline{0}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \underline{0}_n^T \\ \underline{0}_n^T & \underline{1}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \underline{0}_n^T \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \underline{0}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \underline{0}_n^T & \underline{1}_n^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n & \underline{1}_n & \dots & \dots & \underline{0}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \dots & \dots & \underline{1}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} na & n & \dots & \dots & n \\ n & n & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ n & 0 & n & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ n & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{X}^T \underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \dots & \underline{1}_n^T \\ \underline{1}_n^T & \underline{0}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \underline{0}_n^T \\ \underline{0}_n^T & \underline{1}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \underline{0}_n^T \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \underline{0}_n^T & \dots & \dots & \underline{0}_n^T & \underline{1}_n^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_{11} \\ \vdots \\ y_{n1} \\ y_{12} \\ \vdots \\ y_{n2} \\ \vdots \\ y_{1a} \\ \vdots \\ y_{na} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^a y_{ij} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n y_{i1} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n y_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^n y_{ia} \end{bmatrix}$$

NES in

$$\underline{x}^T \underline{x} \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} = \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$$

Questions: ① $\underline{x}^T \underline{x} \beta = \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$ does it have a solution, and why?

② If there is a solution, is it unique? If yes, when?

③ If it is not unique, can we characterize the class of all possible solutions?

vector space: $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a set of vectors such that if $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in S$ then $\alpha \underline{x} + \beta \underline{y} \in S$ for α, β scalars and $\underline{0} \in S$.

subspace: A subspace of a vector space S is a subset of S that is also a vector space.

example: $\mathbb{R}^3 = \{ (x, y, z) \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{R} \}$
 $(x_1, y_1, z_1) \in \mathbb{R}^3, (x_2, y_2, z_2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$

Does $\alpha (x_1, y_1, z_1) + \beta (x_2, y_2, z_2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$?

$$(\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2, \alpha y_1 + \beta y_2, \alpha z_1 + \beta z_2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

$\underline{0} = (0, 0, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \Rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is a vector space.

$\mathcal{M} = \{ (x, y, 0) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R} \}$. Is it a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 ?

take any $(x, y, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \Rightarrow \mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.

$(x_1, y_1, 0), (x_2, y_2, 0) \in \mathcal{M}$

$$\alpha(x_1, y_1, 0) + \beta(x_2, y_2, 0) = (\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2, \alpha y_1 + \beta y_2, 0) \in \mathcal{M}$$

\mathcal{M} is a subspace. $\bullet \underline{0} = (0, 0, 0) \in \mathcal{M}$

If we take $\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_k \in S$, Define,

$$\mathcal{M} = \left\{ \underline{y} : \underline{y} = \sum_{j=1}^k c_j \underline{x}_j, c_1, \dots, c_k \text{ are coefficients} \right\}$$

then \mathcal{M} is called the space spanned by $\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_k$.

check: \mathcal{M} is a subspace of S .

column space of a matrix:

Let \underline{A} be a matrix of dimension $m \times n$.

The column space of \underline{A} , denoted by $C(\underline{A})$

is the vector space spanned by all columns of \underline{A} . Let,

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C(\underline{A}) = \left\{ \underline{c} : \underline{c} = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$C(\underline{A})$ consists of all possible linear combinations of the columns of \underline{A} .

$$\sum_{j=1}^n x_j \begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \underline{A} \underline{x} \quad \underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C(\underline{A}) = \left\{ \underline{c} : \underline{c} = \underline{A} \underline{x} \text{ for some } \underline{x} \right\}$$

Example: $\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ claim: $C(\underline{A}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

take any vector from the $C(\underline{A})$. By definition that vector has to be a linear combination of the two columns of \underline{A} . So it must be having the form

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow C(\underline{A}) \subset \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

Now we will show $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \subset C(\underline{A})$

take any $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$; $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

if $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is a linear combination of the columns then

it has to be of the form

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

thus we solve the system of equations

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = a, \quad x_1 + 2x_2 = b \Rightarrow x_2 = \frac{b-a}{2}$$

$$\text{thus, } a \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right) \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in C(\underline{A}) \Rightarrow C(\underline{A}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

Qn: does $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \notin C(\underline{A})$.

Note that $\underline{x} \in C(\underline{x})$.

• Qn: when does a system of equations of the form $A\underline{x} = \underline{c}$ has a solution?

when $\underline{c} \in C(\underline{A})$

If a system of equations has a solution then that system is called consistent.

Recall the normal equations

$$\underline{X}^T \underline{X} \underline{\beta} = \underline{X}^T \underline{y} \quad \text{Is this system consistent?}$$

In other words does $\underline{X}^T \underline{y} \in C(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})$

$$\underline{X}^T \underline{y} \in C(\underline{X}^T) = C(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) \quad (\text{we will prove it later})$$

$\Rightarrow \underline{X}^T \underline{y} \in C(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) \Rightarrow$ this system is consistent.

Linear dependence:

Let $\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_n$ be vectors in S . If there exists scalars $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ not all zero such that $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \underline{x}_i = \underline{0}$, then $\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_n$ are known as

linearly dependent.

$$\alpha_n \underline{x}_n = - \sum_{i \neq n} \alpha_i \underline{x}_i$$

Look at $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Are they linearly dependent? $\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_3$

$$\sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i \underline{x}_i = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow If there are some $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ which satisfies the equations then all of them have to be zero.

these vectors are not linearly dependent. We call them linearly independent.

Ex! $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i \underline{x}_i = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 = 0, \alpha_2 = 0, -\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_3 = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_3$ are linearly independent.

Ex! $\underline{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \underline{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \underline{x}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2 = \underline{x}_3 \Rightarrow \underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2 - \underline{x}_3 = \underline{0}$$

there exists $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ ($\alpha_1 = 1, \alpha_2 = 1, \alpha_3 = -1$)

s.t. $\sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i \underline{x}_i = \underline{0}$

$\Rightarrow \underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_3$ are linearly dependent.

Basis: If \mathcal{M} is a subspace of S and if $\{\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_n\}$ is a ^{set of} linearly independent vectors which span \mathcal{M} then $\{\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_n\}$ is called a basis for \mathcal{M} .

Ex: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. They are linearly independent.

What is the span of $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$?

$\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3 \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

\Rightarrow ~~Basis~~ A basis of \mathbb{R}^3 is $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

Basis is not unique.

check: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is also a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

Def: For any $m \times n$ matrix \underline{A} , rank of the matrix \underline{A} , denoted by $r(\underline{A})$, is the number of linearly independent rows or columns of \underline{A} .

If \underline{A} is an $m \times n$ matrix and $r(\underline{A}) = m$, then we say that \underline{A} has the full row rank.

If $r(\underline{A}) = n$ then we say that \underline{A} has full column rank.

If \underline{A} is an $n \times n$ matrix, we call \underline{A} nonsingular if there exists a matrix \underline{A}^{-1} s.t. $\underline{A}\underline{A}^{-1} = \underline{A}^{-1}\underline{A} = \underline{I}$.

If no such matrix exists then we call \underline{A} a singular matrix.

\underline{A}^{-1} is called the inverse of \underline{A} .

For an $n \times n$ matrix, \underline{A} is nonsingular iff $\kappa(\underline{A}) = n$. If \underline{A} is singular $\Rightarrow \kappa(\underline{A}) < n$.

Ex: $\underline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 5 & 5 \\ -2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

1st column + 3rd column = 2nd column.

$$\kappa(\underline{A}) < 3$$

$$\alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow 5\alpha_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_2 = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 = 0$$

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ are linearly independent

$\Rightarrow \kappa(\underline{A}) = 2 \Rightarrow \underline{A}$ is singular.

$$\underline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ 3 & 4 \cdot 5 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \kappa(\underline{A}) = 2 \Rightarrow \underline{A} \text{ has an inverse}$$

Recall that the linear regression model

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X} \underline{\beta} + \underline{e} \quad \text{which leads to NEs.}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{X}^T \underline{X} \underline{\beta} = \underline{X}^T \underline{y} \\ p \times n & n \times p & p \times 1 \quad p \times n \quad n \times 1 \end{array}$$

$\underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ is a $p \times p$ matrix.

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) &= \text{number of linearly independent columns of } \underline{X}^T \underline{X} \\ &= \text{number of linearly independent columns of } \underline{X}^T \quad (\kappa(\underline{X}^T) = \kappa(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})) \\ &= \kappa(\underline{X}^T) = \kappa(\underline{X}). \end{aligned}$$

Typically in linear regressions $n \gg p$
If all columns of \underline{X} are linearly independent

$$\Rightarrow \kappa(\underline{X}) = p \Rightarrow \kappa(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) = p$$

Note that $\underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ is a $p \times p$ matrix.

$\Rightarrow \underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ is a full rank matrix

$\Rightarrow \underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ has an inverse.

$$\text{in that case } \hat{\underline{\beta}} = (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}^T \underline{y}$$

If all columns of \underline{X} are not linearly independent then $\kappa(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) < p \Rightarrow \underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ is not invertible. In this case there is no unique solution

Example: $y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + e_{ij}$, $i=1, \dots, n$, $j=1, \dots, a$

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X} \underline{\beta} + \underline{e}$$

$$\underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n & \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \dots & \underline{0}_n \\ \vdots & \underline{0}_n & \underline{1}_n & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \underline{0}_n & & \underline{0}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{0}_n & \dots & \underline{1}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

1st column = sum of other columns

$$r(\underline{X}) < a+1$$

$$\alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} \underline{1}_n \\ \underline{0}_n \\ \vdots \\ \underline{0}_n \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{pmatrix} \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{1}_n \\ \vdots \\ \underline{0}_n \end{pmatrix} + \dots + \alpha_a \begin{pmatrix} \underline{0}_n \\ \vdots \\ \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{1}_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{0}_n \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \underline{0}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 = 0, \alpha_2 = 0, \dots, \alpha_a = 0$$

from 2nd to $(a+1)$ columns are linearly independent.

$$\Rightarrow r(\underline{X}) = a$$

The Normal equations in the case of one way ANOVA do not have a unique solution

Recap: $\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{e}$

① Does NEs have any solution?

② When is the solution unique?

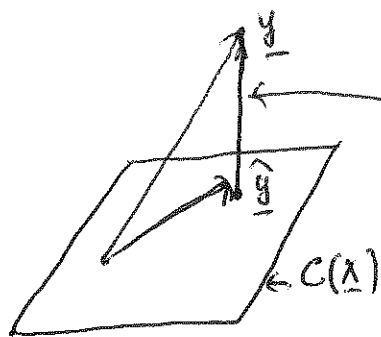
⊗ We saw the solution is unique if $\kappa(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) = p$.

③ When $\kappa(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) < p$, what are the class of all solutions to NEs.

Instead of finding $\underline{\beta}$, we will start looking at $\hat{\underline{y}} \in C(\underline{X})$. $\hat{\underline{y}}$ will be such that it is closest to \underline{y} in the column space of \underline{X} .

Once we find $\hat{\underline{y}}$, we will characterize the class of all $\hat{\underline{\beta}}$ s.t. $\hat{\underline{y}} = \underline{X}\hat{\underline{\beta}}$.

Let $n=3$, $\underline{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}$, let there be two predictors x_1 and x_2



$$\underline{y} - \hat{\underline{y}} = \hat{\underline{e}}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{21} \\ x_{12} & x_{22} \\ x_{13} & x_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

We know, that $\underline{X}^T \underline{X} \hat{\underline{\beta}} = \underline{X}^T \underline{y}$ for any solution $\hat{\underline{\beta}}$ of the Normal equations.

$$\Rightarrow \underline{X}^T (\underline{y} - \underline{X}\hat{\underline{\beta}}) = \underline{0} \quad \hat{\underline{y}} = \underline{X}\hat{\underline{\beta}}, \quad \hat{\underline{e}} = \underline{y} - \underline{X}\hat{\underline{\beta}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{X}^T \hat{\underline{e}} = \underline{0} \quad (*)$$

Null space of a matrix

If \underline{A} is an $m \times n$ matrix, The null space $\mathcal{N}(\underline{A})$ of \underline{A} is given by $\mathcal{N}(\underline{A}) = \{ \underline{y} : \underline{A}\underline{y} = \underline{0} \}$

EX: $\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{4 \times 3}$

$$\underline{A}\underline{y} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow y_1 + y_2 + y_3 &= 0 && \text{--- ①} \\ 2y_1 + 2y_2 + 2y_3 &= 0 && \text{--- ②} \\ -y_1 + y_2 - 3y_3 &= 0 && \text{--- ③} \\ y_1 + 2y_2 &= 0 && \text{--- ④} \end{aligned}$$

From ④ $\Rightarrow y_1 = -2y_2$

Use this in ③, to obtain

$$3y_3 = 3y_2 \Rightarrow y_2 = y_3$$

$$y_1 = -2y_2, \quad y_3 = y_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2y_2 \\ y_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = y_2 \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Any vector $\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{A})$ has to have the form

$$y_2 \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\underline{A}) = \left\{ c \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} : c \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

$\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the only basis of $\mathcal{N}(\underline{A})$.

Now go back to (*) which said $\underline{x}^T \hat{\underline{e}} = \underline{0}$

using definition, $\hat{\underline{e}} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}^T)$.

$$\hat{\underline{y}} = \underline{x} \hat{\underline{\beta}} \in C(\underline{x}).$$

Def: Two vectors $\underline{x}, \underline{y}$ are said to be orthogonal if $\underline{x}^T \underline{y} = \underline{0}$.

Def: (Orthogonal spaces)

Two subspaces \mathcal{M}_1 & \mathcal{M}_2 are orthogonal spaces if $\underline{x} \in \mathcal{M}_1$ and $\underline{y} \in \mathcal{M}_2$ means $\underline{x}^T \underline{y} = \underline{0}$.

Notation: Let S be a vector space and let \mathcal{M} be a subspace of S . $\mathcal{M}_S^\perp = \{ \underline{y} \in S \mid \underline{y} \text{ is orthogonal to any vector in } \mathcal{M} \}$.

\perp is used to denote the orthogonal space of \mathcal{M} .

\perp is used to denote orthogonality.

Thm: For any matrix $\underline{A}_{m \times n}$, $C(\underline{A})$ and $\mathcal{N}(\underline{A}^T)$ are orthogonal spaces.

Prf: $\underline{v} \in C(\underline{A})$ and $\underline{w} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{A}^T)$

Since $\underline{v} \in C(\underline{A})$, there exists some \underline{h} s.t.

$$\underline{v} = \underline{A} \underline{h} \Rightarrow \underline{v}^T \underline{w} = (\underline{A} \underline{h})^T \underline{w} = \underline{h}^T \underline{A}^T \underline{w}$$

$$\text{Now } \underline{A}^T \underline{w} = \underline{0} \text{ as } \underline{w} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{A}^T) \quad \parallel \underline{0}$$

Result: $C(\underline{A}) \cap N(\underline{A}^T) = \{ \underline{0} \}$

Pf: $\underline{v} \in C(\underline{A}) \cap N(\underline{A}^T)$ $\left[\begin{array}{l} \underline{w} \in C(\underline{A}), \underline{z} \in N(\underline{A}^T) \\ \Rightarrow \underline{w}^T \underline{z} = \underline{0} \end{array} \right]$

$\underline{v} \in C(\underline{A})$ and $\underline{v} \in N(\underline{A}^T)$

$$\underline{v}^T \underline{v} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \|\underline{v}\|^2 = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \underline{v} = \underline{0}$$

\Rightarrow that $C(\underline{x})$ and $N(\underline{x}^T)$ are orthogonal spaces and they have no vector in common other than $\underline{0}$.

Thm: Let S be a vector space. Let \mathcal{M} be a subspace of \underline{x} . \mathcal{M}_S^\perp denotes the orthogonal complement of \mathcal{M} in S .

If $\underline{x} \in S$ then \underline{x} can be written uniquely as $\underline{x} = \underline{x}_0 + \underline{x}_1$ with $\underline{x}_0 \in \mathcal{M}$ and $\underline{x}_1 \in \mathcal{M}_S^\perp$.

Ex: $\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ $C(\underline{A})$ and $N(\underline{A}^T)$.

$$C(\underline{A}): \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} y_1 + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} y_2 + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} y_3$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} y_1 + y_2 + 2y_3 \\ y_1 + 3y_3 \\ y_1 + 3y_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C(\underline{A}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ b \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \quad \textcircled{4}$$

$$\text{If } \underline{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{A}^T) \Rightarrow \underline{A}^T \underline{y} = \underline{0}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} y_1 + y_2 + y_3 &= 0 \quad \dots \textcircled{1} \\ y_1 &= 0 \quad \dots \textcircled{2} \\ 2y_1 + 3y_2 + 3y_3 &= 0 \quad \dots \textcircled{3} \end{aligned}$$

If we use $\textcircled{2}$ then both $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{3}$ will give rise to

$$y_2 + y_3 = 0 \Rightarrow \cancel{y_3 = 0} \quad y_2 = -y_3$$

$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{A}^T)$ has to have the form $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -y_3 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\mathcal{N}(\underline{A}^T) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -b \\ b \end{pmatrix} : b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

If you take $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \frac{y+z}{2} \\ \frac{y+z}{2} \end{pmatrix} \in C(\underline{A}) + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{y-z}{2} \\ -\frac{y+z}{2} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{A}^T)$$

$$b = -\frac{(y-z)}{2}$$

Messages so far: Suppose $\hat{\beta}$ is a solution to

NES $\underline{X}^T \underline{X} \hat{\beta} = \underline{X}^T \underline{y}$ and $\underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, \underline{X} $n \times p$ matrix

$$\textcircled{1} \underline{\hat{y}} = \underline{X} \hat{\beta} \in C(\underline{X}) \quad \textcircled{2} \underline{X}^T \underline{\hat{e}} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \underline{\hat{e}} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{X}^T)$$

$$\textcircled{3} \underline{\hat{y}} \text{ and } \underline{\hat{e}} \text{ are orthogonal} \quad \textcircled{4} \underline{y} = \underline{\hat{y}} + \underline{\hat{e}}$$

$$\underline{y} = \underline{\hat{y}} + \underline{\hat{e}} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\hat{y}}^T \underline{\hat{e}} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\underline{y}\|^2 &= \|\underline{\hat{y}} + \underline{\hat{e}}\|^2 = (\underline{\hat{y}} + \underline{\hat{e}})^T (\underline{\hat{y}} + \underline{\hat{e}}) \\ &= \underline{\hat{y}}^T \underline{\hat{y}} + \underline{\hat{e}}^T \underline{\hat{e}} + \underbrace{\underline{\hat{y}}^T \underline{\hat{e}}}_0 + \underbrace{\underline{\hat{e}}^T \underline{\hat{y}}}_0 = \|\underline{\hat{y}}\|^2 + \|\underline{\hat{e}}\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\|\underline{\hat{y}}\|^2 = \|\underline{X} \underline{\hat{\beta}}\|^2, \quad \|\underline{\hat{e}}\|^2 = \|\underline{y} - \underline{X} \underline{\hat{\beta}}\|^2$$

$\|\underline{\hat{y}}\|^2 = \|\underline{X} \underline{\hat{\beta}}\|^2$: the regression sum of squares (SSR)

$\|\underline{\hat{e}}\|^2 = \|\underline{y} - \underline{X} \underline{\hat{\beta}}\|^2$: The error sum of squares (SSE)

Qn: Is there any mechanical way to find $\underline{\hat{y}}$ from \underline{y} . In other words, is there a matrix \underline{M} s.t. $\underline{\hat{y}} = \underline{M} \underline{y}$

\underline{M} matrix projects any vector $\underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ onto the column space of \underline{X} . These type of matrices are called projection matrices.

Definition:

A square matrix \underline{M} is a perpendicular projection matrix onto $C(\underline{X})$ if and only if

$$(i) \quad \underline{v} \in C(\underline{X}) \Rightarrow \underline{M} \underline{v} = \underline{v}$$

$$(ii) \quad \underline{w} \perp C(\underline{X}) \Rightarrow \underline{M} \underline{w} = \underline{0}$$

Thm: $C(\underline{M}) = C(\underline{X})$

Thm: \underline{M} is a projection matrix if and only if

$$(i) \quad \underline{M}^2 = \underline{M} \cdot \underline{M} = \underline{M} \quad (\text{idempotent}) \quad (ii) \quad \underline{M}^T = \underline{M} \quad (\text{symmetric})$$

Thm: Projection matrix \underline{M} is unique.

Ex! $\underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\kappa(\underline{X}) = 1$

Consider $\underline{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$

~~⊗~~ $\underline{M}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} = \underline{M}$

$\underline{M}^T = \underline{M}$

⊙ $C(\underline{X}) = \left\{ a \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} : a \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$.

any vector $\begin{pmatrix} 2a \\ a \end{pmatrix}$ in the column space of \underline{X}

$\underline{M} \begin{pmatrix} 2a \\ a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2a \\ a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2a \\ a \end{pmatrix}$

$\mathcal{N}(\underline{X}^T) : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{X}^T) \Rightarrow \underline{X}^T \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} 2x_1 + x_2 = 0 \quad \dots \textcircled{1} \\ 4x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \quad \dots \textcircled{2} \end{array}$

$\Rightarrow x_2 = -2x_1$ $\mathcal{N}(\underline{X}^T) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ -2a \end{pmatrix} : a \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$.

$\underline{M} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ -2a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ -2a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

\underline{M} is clearly the projection matrix onto the column ~~⊗~~ ~~⊗~~ space of \underline{X} .
(7)

Is $C(\underline{M}) = C(\underline{X})$?

$$\underline{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C(\underline{M}) = \left\{ a \begin{pmatrix} 0.4 \\ 0.2 \end{pmatrix} : a \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \left\{ c \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} : c \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \\ = C(\underline{X})$$

$$\underline{X}^T \underline{X} \hat{\underline{\beta}} = \underline{X}^T \underline{y}$$

$$\hat{\underline{y}} \in C(\underline{X}) = \underline{X} \hat{\underline{\beta}}$$

$$\hat{\underline{e}} = \underline{y} - \underline{X} \hat{\underline{\beta}} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \hat{\underline{y}} \perp \hat{\underline{e}} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{y} = \hat{\underline{y}} + \hat{\underline{e}}$$

we defined SSR, SSE.

unique decomposition

some matrix \underline{M} s.t. $\hat{\underline{y}} = \underline{M} \underline{y}$.

① Some properties of \underline{M} .

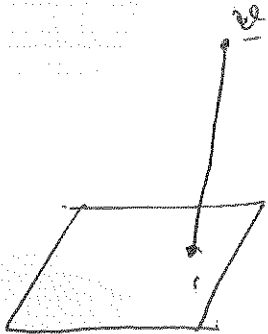
② Find the explicit formula for the projection matrix

\Downarrow
class of all solutions to the NLS.

Thm: If \underline{M} be a projection matrix to a space \mathcal{M}_1 and \underline{M}_0 be a projection matrix to a space \mathcal{M}_2 s.t. $C(\underline{M}_0) \subset C(\underline{M})$ then $\underline{M} - \underline{M}_0$ is also a projection matrix.

\underline{M}_1 and \underline{M}_2 are the two projection matrices

$$(\underline{M}_1 - \underline{M}_2) \underline{v} = \underline{0} \quad \text{For all } \underline{v}.$$



$$\underline{M}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & \dots & m_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ m_{n1} & \dots & m_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{M}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} m'_{11} & \dots & m'_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ m'_{n1} & \dots & m'_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\underline{M}_1 - \underline{M}_2) \underline{v} = \underline{0} \text{ for all } \underline{v}$$

$$\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{M}_1 \underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} m_{11} \\ \vdots \\ m_{n1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{M}_2 \underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} m'_{11} \\ \vdots \\ m'_{n1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{M}_1 \underline{v} = \underline{M}_2 \underline{v} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} m_{11} \\ \vdots \\ m_{n1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m'_{11} \\ \vdots \\ m'_{n1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$