- 1. (a) True: the orthogonal complement of the xy-plane is the subspace orthogonal to this plane, which is the z-axis.
	- (b) False: the orthogonal complement of the row space is the nullspace, not the column space.
	- (c) True: in general, $\dim(W) + \dim(W^{\perp}) = \dim(V)$, so here $\dim(W^{\perp}) = 9 4 = 5$.
	- (d) True: as discussed in class, if we extend an orthonormal basis of W to an orthonormal basis of V , then the additional vectors form an orthonormal basis of W^{\perp} .
	- (e) False: The vector $2\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2$ is not in W^{\perp} , since the inner product of $2\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2$ with $2\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2$ is $(2)(2) +$ $(-1)(1) = 3$ rather than 0. (In fact, W^{\perp} is spanned by $\mathbf{e}_1 - 2\mathbf{e}_2$.)
	- (f) True: since v is orthogonal to the basis vectors of W, it is orthogonal to every vector in W, so it is in W^{\perp} .
	- (g) False: the projection of $\langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$ is $a_1 \langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle$ where $a_1 = \langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle \cdot \langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle / \langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle \cdot \langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle = 3/2$, which yields $\langle 3/2, 3/2, 0 \rangle$.
	- (h) True: this is the Pythagorean theorem. Explicitly, $||v||^2 = \langle w + w^{\perp}, w + w^{\perp} \rangle = \langle w, w \rangle + 2 \langle w, w^{\perp} \rangle +$ $\langle \mathbf{w}^{\perp}, \mathbf{w}^{\perp} \rangle = ||\mathbf{w}||^2 + ||\mathbf{w}^{\perp}||$ 2 .
	- (i) True: the closest vector is the orthogonal projection of $\langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$ into $x + y + z = 0$. The plane is spanned by $(1, 0, -1)$ and $(0, 1, -1)$ so via the formula $M = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ the projection matrix is 1 3 \lceil $\overline{}$ 2 -1 -1 -1 2 -1 -1 -1 2 1 and the projection is this matrix times $\langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$, which is $\langle -1, 0, 1 \rangle$.
	- (j) False: the correct equation to solve is the normal equation $(A^T A)\hat{\mathbf{x}} = A^T \mathbf{c}$.
	- (k) False: the orthogonal projection of a vector \mathbf{w}^{\perp} in W^{\perp} onto W is zero. (The orthogonal projection of a vector in W will be itself.)
	- (l) True: as mentioned in class, projection matrices always have $P^2 = P$.
	- (m) True: this set of vectors is the λ -eigenspace, and is a subspace.

(n) False: for example, the real matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ has nonreal eigenvalues.

- (o) False: we have seen many examples of matrices with repeated eigenvalues, such as the identity matrix.
- (p) True: since $\lambda = 0$ is a root of the characteristic polynomial, it is an eigenvalue.
- (q) False: since $\lambda = 1$ is a double root of the characteristic polynomial, the dimension of the eigenspace is at most 2, but it could be equal to 1.
- (r) False: we have $T(\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) = T(\mathbf{v}_1) + T(\mathbf{v}_2) = \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2$ which is usually not a multiple of $\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2$.
- (s) True: as shown in class, eigenvectors with distinct eigenvalues are always linearly independent.
- (t) True: this is the diagonalizability criterion.
- (u) False: there are invertible matrices which are not diagonalizable, like $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.
- (v) True: as mentioned in class, if there are n distinct eigenvalues, then each eigenvalue is a single root of the characteristic polynomial and all of the eigenspaces have dimension 1, so the matrix is diagonalizable.
- (w) False: matrices with repeated eigenvalues can still be diagonalizable, such as the identity matrix.
- (x) True: by the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, if we plug a matrix into its characteristic polynomial, the result is always the zero matrix.
- (y) True: this is part of the content of the spectral theorem (real symmetric matrices are orthogonally diagonalizable).
- (z) True: as discussed in class, $M^T M = I_n$ is equivalent to saying that M is an orthogonal matrix (whose columns are an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n).
- 2. For subspaces W of \mathbb{R}^n , we can find a basis of W^{\perp} by finding the nullspace of the matrix whose rows are a basis for W.
	- (a) For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ row-reducing gives $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ so the nullspace (giving W^{\perp}) has basis $(1, -2, 1)$.
	- (b) For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 1 1 −1 −1 row-reducing gives $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ so the nullspace (giving W^{\perp}) has basis $(1, -1, 0, 0), (0, 0, 1, -1)$
	- (c) The plane is the set of vectors (x, y, z) such that $2x + y + 3z = 0$ which is the nullspace of the matrix $[2\ 1\ 3]$. Therefore the orthogonal complement is the rowspace, which has basis $(2, 1, 3)$.
	- (d) The orthogonal complement is 1-dimensional and contains e_3 , so $\{e_3\}$ is a basis.
- 3. This is the orthogonal complement of the vector $(1, 2, 3, 4)$, which is the nullspace of the matrix $[1 2 3 4]$. The nullspace has basis $(-2, 1, 0, 0)$, $(-3, 0, 1, 0)$, $(-4, 0, 0, 1)$.
- 4. (a) Note that $\mathbf{w} = a_1 \mathbf{w}_1$ where $a_1 = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}_1 \rangle / \langle \mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_1 \rangle = (6, 6, 6, 6) \cdot (1, 0, 1, 2) / (1, 0, 1, 2) \cdot (1, 0, 1, 2) =$ $24/6 = 4$, so $\mathbf{w} = (4, 0, 4, 8)$ and $\mathbf{w}^{\perp} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} = (2, 6, 2, -2)$.
	- (b) The orthogonal projection is $a_1w_1+a_2w_2$ where $a_1 = \langle v, w_1 \rangle / \langle w_1, w_1 \rangle = 4$ and $a_2 = \langle v, w_2 \rangle / \langle w_2, w_2 \rangle =$ $12/6 = 2$, yielding $4(1, 0, 1, 2) + 2(0, 1, 2, -1) = (4, 2, 8, 6)$.
	- (c) This is the orthogonal projection of **v** into W_3 which is $a_1\mathbf{w}_1+a_2\mathbf{w}_2+a_3\mathbf{w}_3$ where $a_1 = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}_1 \rangle / \langle \mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_1 \rangle =$ $4, a_2 = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}_2 \rangle / \langle \mathbf{w}_2, \mathbf{w}_2 \rangle = 12/6 = 2$, and $a_3 = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}_3 \rangle / \langle \mathbf{w}_3, \mathbf{w}_3 \rangle = 0$ yielding $4(1, 0, 1, 2) + 2(0, 1, 2, -1) =$ $(4, 2, 8, 6).$

(d) This is
$$
A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T
$$
 where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \ 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The matrix product evaluates to $\frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 1 & 0 \ -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \ 0 & 1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$.
\n(e) This is the nullspace of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 \ -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ which row-reduces to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 \ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 \ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. The nullspace has basis $(1,1,0,1)$, $(1,2,-1,0)$.

5. To find the least-squares solution to a system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$, we solve the normal equation $(A^T A)\mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{c}$ to get $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{c}.$

(a) With
$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \ 0 & 2 \ 2 & 1 \ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 and $\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \ 0 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ we get $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 \ 5 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \ 1/5 \end{bmatrix}$.
\n(b) With $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} m \ b \end{bmatrix}$ we have $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \ -1 & 1 \ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \ -4 \ -6 \end{bmatrix}$ so $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -1 \ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \ -2 \end{bmatrix}$,
\ncorresponding to the line $y = 2x - 2$.
\n(c) With $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} m \ b \end{bmatrix}$ we have $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \ 1 & 1 \ 2 & 1 \ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 4 \end{bmatrix}$ so $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 6 \ 6 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 11/10 \ 11/10 \end{bmatrix}$,
\ncorresponding to the line $y = 1.1x + 1.1$.
\n(d) With $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a \ b \ c \end{bmatrix}$ we have $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 1 \ 1 & -1 & 1 \ 4 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \ 0 \ 2 \ 4 \end{bmatrix}$ so $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 34 & 0 & 10 \ 0 & 10 & 0 \ 10 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \ 4/5 \end{bmatrix}$, corresponding to the parabola $y = 0.5x^2 +$

 $1/2$

6. The matrix of orthogonal projection onto the column space of A is $P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$.

(a) We have
$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 so with $A^T A = [14]$ we get $P = \frac{1}{14} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ -2 & 4 & -6 \\ 3 & -6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$.
\n(b) We have $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ so with $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 6 \\ 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$ we get $P = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

(c) The plane is the nullspace of $[1 \ 2 \ -1]$, and the nullspace has basis $(1,0,1)$, $(-2,1,0)$. With $A =$ \lceil $\overline{}$ $1 -2$ 0 1 1 0 1 we get $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ and $P = \frac{1}{6}$ 6 \lceil $\overline{1}$ $5 -2 1$ -2 2 2 1 2 5 1 $\vert \cdot$

7. The eigenvalues are the roots of the characteristic polynomial $p(t) = \deg(tI_n - A)$, and the λ -eigenspace is the nullspace of $\lambda I_n - A$. Then A is diagonalizable when each eigenspace's dimension equals the multiplicity of the eigenvalue as a root of $p(t)$, and the diagonalizing matrix Q has columns equal to eigenvectors of A.

- 8. (a) Since the characteristic polynomial has degree 7, A is a 7×7 matrix.
	- (b) The eigenvalues are 0 (multiplicity 4), 2 (multiplicity 2), and −4 (multiplicity 1).
	- (c) The determinant is the product of the eigenvalues, which is $0^42^2(-4)^1=0$, and the trace is the sum of the eigenvalues, which is $4 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot (-4) = 0$.
	- (d) The 0-eigenspace has dimension 1, 2, 3, or 4, the 2-eigenspace has dimension 1 or 2, and the (−4) eigenspace has dimension 1. A is diagonalizable precisely when the 0-eigenspace has dimension 4 and the 2-eigenspace has dimension 2.

(e) A diagonalization would be\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n0 & & & \\
0 & 0 & & \\
& & 2 & \\
& & & -4\n\end{bmatrix}
$$
\n(all other entries not shown are zero).

9. By the spectral theorem, to find an orthogonal diagonalization, we just compute an orthonormal basis for each eigenspace using Gram-Schmidt. (Note that for eigenspaces of dimension > 1, there are many possible choices of orthonormal basis.)

(a)
$$
p(t) = (t+3)(t+1)
$$
, $\lambda = -3, -1$, orthonormal basis of (-3) -eigenspace $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, orthonormal basis
\nof (-1) -eigenspace $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Orthogonal matrix $Q = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $D = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.
\n(b) $p(t) = (t-1)(t-6)$, $\lambda = 1, 6$, orthonormal basis of 1-eigenspace $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, orthonormal basis of 6-eigenspace $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, orthonormal basis of 6-eigenspace $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, orthonormal basis of 0-eigenspace $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.
\n(c) $p(t) = t^2(t-3)$, $\lambda = 0, 0, 3$, orthonormal basis of 0-eigenspace $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, orthonormal basis of 3-eigenspace $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Orthogonal matrix $Q = \begin{bmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 0 & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}$, $D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.
\n(d) $p(t) = (t+4)(t+1)(t-2)$, $\lambda = -4, -1, 2$, orthonormal basis of (-4) -eigenspace $\frac{1}{3} \begin$

10. (a) We have $A\mathbf{v}_1 = 2\mathbf{v}_1$, $A(\mathbf{v}_2 + \mathbf{v}_3) = 3\mathbf{v}_2 + 5\mathbf{v}_3$, and $A(2\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2 + 3\mathbf{v}_3) = 4\mathbf{v}_1 - 3\mathbf{v}_2 + 15\mathbf{v}_3$. (b) Since A is 3×3 and the eigenvalues for $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ are distinct, $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is a linearly independent set of 3 vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 , so it is a basis. In terms of this basis we have the diagonalization $Q^{-1}AQ =$ \lceil 2 0 0

vectors in
$$
\mathbb{R}^3
$$
, so it is a basis. In terms of this basis we have the diagonalization $Q^{-1}AQ = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$.
\n(c) For these vectors we have the change-of-basis matrix $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (the columns are the given

1

vectors), in which case
$$
A = QDQ^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \ 1 & 4 & 1 \ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 3 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \ 1 & 4 & 1 \ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 8 & -14 \ 3 & 9 & -10 \ 3 & 6 & -7 \end{bmatrix}
$$
.