Lecture 9: MATH 342W: Introduction to Data Science and Machine Learning

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Recap

Last time, we saw that $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is the projection of \mathbf{y} onto the column space of X (see Figure 1). We can express this as

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \underset{co\ell[X]}{\text{proj}}(\mathbf{y})$$
$$= X(X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}\mathbf{y}$$
$$= H\mathbf{y}$$

where H is the Hat matrix. What is $\operatorname{proj}(\hat{\mathbf{y}})$? That is, what happens if we project $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ onto the column space of X? Intuitively, it should be $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, because $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is what we get from projecting \mathbf{y} onto the column space of X, so $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is already in $\operatorname{col}[X]$. If this is the case, then we expect the following equalities to hold:

Therefore, we conjecture that $H \cdot H = H$. Before we explore this idea, let's consider the null model again.

The Null Model in Multivariate Regression

In the null model g_0 , we do not take any features into account, so p = 0. In this case, we expect g_0 to predict \bar{y} for all inputs, as we saw when we first tackled OLS. Since p = 0 and there are n responses, the matrix X is of dimension $n \times (p+1)$ or $n \times 1$, where the

^{*}Based on lectures of Dr. Adam Kapelner at Queens College. See also the course GitHub page.

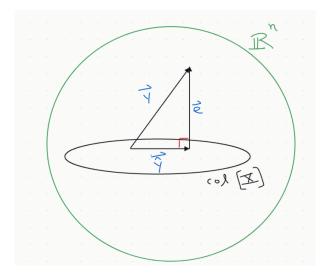


Figure 1: The prediction $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ viewed as an orthogonal projection of the response vector \mathbf{y} onto the column space of X.

first (and only) column has all 1's, like so:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n$$

Now let's compute H:

$$H = X(X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}$$

$$= \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n(\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n)^{-1}\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}$$

$$= \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n(n)^{-1}\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}$$

$$(\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n = n)$$

Notice that since $\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n$ is $n \times 1$ and $\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}$ is $1 \times n$, the result of $\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}$ is an $n \times n$ matrix. The product $\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}$ is known as an *outer product*. It's easy to verify that the resulting matrix will have all 1's, so

$$H = \frac{1}{n} \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n^{\top}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (The matrix is n by n .)
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

In particular, since every column is a scalar multiple of the first, the rank of this matrix is 1, i.e., rank(H) = 1, which is the number of columns in X (indeed, we saw last time

that rank(H) = p + 1). Now we can compute the prediction:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = H\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \\ \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \end{bmatrix} = \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n$$

Hence, all n responses are predicted to be \overline{y} .

Properties of Orthogonal Projections

We have mentioned that H is an orthogonal projection. We will formally define what orthogonal projections are, and prove some useful properties that they satisfy.

Definition. A matrix P is an **orthogonal projection matrix** if and only if $\forall_{\mathbf{v},\mathbf{w}\in\mathbf{R}^n}$, we have

$$(\mathbf{v} - P\mathbf{v})^{\top}(P\mathbf{w}) = 0$$

That definition says that $P\mathbf{w}$ and $(\mathbf{v} - P\mathbf{v})$ are orthogonal for every $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Theorem 1. A matrix P is an orthogonal projection if and only if the following two are both satisfied:

- (i) Symmetric: $P^{\top} = P$.
- (ii) **Idempotent**: $P^2 = P$ (it squares to itself).

Proof. We will prove the if direction (\iff), and leave \implies as an exercise. Thus, we are assuming that $P^{\top} = P$ and $P^2 = P$. We have to show that it satisfies the definition of an orthogonal projection. Let $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$(\mathbf{v} - P\mathbf{v})^{\top} P\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{v}^{\top} - \mathbf{v}^{\top} P^{\top}) P\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \mathbf{v}^{\top} P\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v}^{\top} P^{\top} \cdot P\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \mathbf{v}^{\top} P\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v}^{\top} P \cdot P\mathbf{w} \qquad (Symmetry: P^{\top} = P)$$

$$= \mathbf{v}^{\top} P\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v}^{\top} P^{2}\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \mathbf{v}^{\top} P\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v}^{\top} P\mathbf{w} \qquad (Idempotency: P^{2} = P)$$

$$= 0$$

Let's verify H satisfies the conditions of Theorem 1. First, we will check that $H^{\top} = H$:

$$H^{\top} = \left(X(X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}\right)^{\top}$$

$$= (X^{\top})^{\top}[(X^{\top}X)^{-1}]^{\top}X^{\top}$$

$$= X[(X^{\top}X)^{\top}]^{-1}X^{\top}$$

$$= X[X^{\top}X]^{-1}X^{\top}$$

$$= H$$
(by $(AB)^{\top} = B^{\top}A^{\top}$)
(by $(A^{-1})^{\top} = (A^{\top})^{-1}$)
$$= (X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}$$

$$= H$$

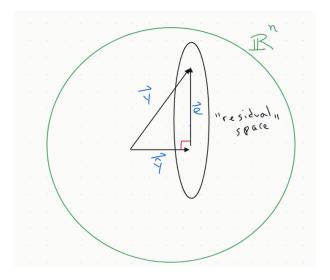


Figure 2: The residual \mathbf{e} viewed as an orthogonal projection of the response vector \mathbf{y} onto the "residual space".

Next, let's check that $H^2 = H$:

$$H^{2} = H \cdot H$$

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

$$= X(X^{T}X)^{-1}\underbrace{[(X^{T}X)(X^{T}X)^{-1}]}_{I_{p+1}}X^{T}$$

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

$$= H$$

Thus, H is indeed an orthogonal projection matrix.

Orthogonal Projection onto Residual Space

Now let's revisit an idea we mentioned last time, in which we said that $I_n - H$ is also an orthogonal projection matrix. This time, however, it is a projection onto the residual space (see Figure 2). To justify this, we must argue as in the case for H, by showing $I_n - H$ satisfies both conditions of Theorem 1. We will leverage the idempotency and symmetry of H:

(i) **Symmetric**: We must show $(I_n - H)^{\top} = (I_n - H)$:

$$(I_n - H)^{\top} = I_n^{\top} - H^{\top} = I_n - H$$

Note that the identify matrix is indeed symmetric, and we've used the fact that H is, too.

(ii) **Idempotent**: We must show $(I_n - H)^2 = (I_n - H)$:

$$(I_n - H)^2 = (I_n - H)(I_n - H)$$

$$= I_n \cdot I_n - I_n \cdot H - H \cdot I_n + H^2$$

$$= I_n - H - H + H \qquad (H \text{ is idempotent})$$

$$= I_n - H$$

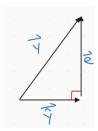


Figure 3: Orthogonal decomposition of response \mathbf{y} into prediction $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ and residual error \mathbf{e} .

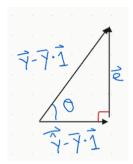


Figure 4: Orthogonal decomposition of mean-control response $\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n$ into $\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n$ and residual error \mathbf{e} .

SSR, R^2 , and Geometric Interpretations

Consider again Figure 1. Since $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ and \mathbf{e} are orthogonal, note that Pythagorean's Theorem says that

$$\|\mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\hat{\mathbf{y}}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{e}\|^2$$

See Figure 3. We will use this geometric intuition in a moment. Let's attempt to come up with a fit for $\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot \mathbf{1}_n$ (referred to as the *mean-control response*) by projecting it onto col[X]:

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{proj}_{co\ell[X]}(\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n) = H(\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n) \\ & = H\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot H\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n \\ & = \hat{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n \end{aligned} \qquad (\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n \in co\ell[X] \implies \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n \in co\ell[H])$$

Now

$$(\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n) - (\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n) = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{e}$$

In particular, the two vectors being subtracted above are orthogonal (see Figure 4). Therefore, by Pythagorean's Theorem

$$\|\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n\|^2 = \|\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n\|^2 + \|\mathbf{e}\|^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

$$SST = SSR + SSE$$
(1)

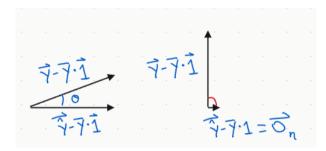


Figure 5: Depictions related to mean-control response in two cases: (i) high R^2 , and (ii) $\theta = 90^{\circ}$, where we do not beat g_0 .

Definition. Given a n real numbers $(y_i)_{i=1}^n$ with mean \bar{y} and associated predictions $(\hat{y}_i)_{i=1}^n$, the SSR is given by

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$$

Using trigonometry, we can see that

$$\cos^{2} \theta = \frac{\|\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_{n}\|^{2}}{\|\mathbf{y} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}_{n}\|^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{SSR}{SST}$$

$$= \frac{SST - SSE}{SST}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

$$= R^{2}$$
(by Equation 1)

Since $\cos^2 \theta \in [0, 1]$, we see that $R^2 \in [0, 1]$. Let's think about what this means. If your projection $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is close to the response vector \mathbf{y} , then the angle between them is small. On the other hand, if $\theta = 90^{\circ}$, then there is no fit. In the latter case, $\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{y} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{1}}$ is the zero vector, so $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \bar{y}\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n$, and hence we did not do better than the null model g_0 .

Reviewing Ignorance Error

Recall that ignorance error comes from the fact that the features (the x's) do not give sufficient information about the true drivers (the z's). We mentioned that a way to address that is by adding more features (increase p).

Let $X' = [X \mid \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}]$, where we append a new column corresponding to a new feature that we measure. Then we expect that the error will decrease, and hence the angle between \mathbf{y} and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ correspondingly decreases (see Figure 6). In the case where p = 1, we have $X = [\vec{1} \mid \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1}]$, so col[X] is a 2-dimensional plane. See Figure 7.

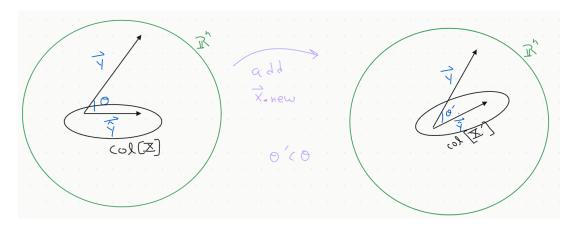


Figure 6: Adding a new feature to X. We expect θ to decrease.

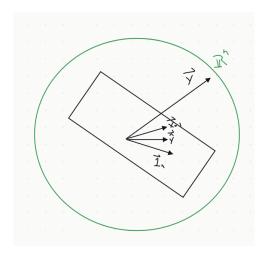


Figure 7: Illustration of least square when using 1 feature.

Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues of H

The following material is outside the scope of this class, in the sense that you are not required to know it. Nevertheless, we will explore the concepts.

Recall that X has a column of 1's and p columns of features:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n & \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1} & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p} \end{bmatrix}$$

In particular, the columns of X are clearly in the column space of X. Recall that H is the orthogonal projection matrix onto the column space of X. This means that

$$H\vec{\mathbf{1}}_n = \vec{\mathbf{1}}_n, \quad H\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1} = \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1}, \quad \cdots, \quad H\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p} = \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p}$$

One simple way to verify this is as follows:

$$HX = (X(X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top})X$$
$$= X[(X^{\top}X)^{-1}(X^{\top}X)]$$
$$= X \cdot I_{p+1}$$
$$= X$$

We conclude that $\lambda = 1$ is an eigenvalue of H, and the eigenspace associated with $\lambda = 1$ is spanned by $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p}$. Since H is symmetric (i.e., self-adjoint), the spectral theorem guarantees that it has an eigendecomposition (diagonalization) (see [Axl23]). Thus, we can write

$$H = P^{-1}DP$$

where

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Here, D is a diagonal matrix consisting of the eigenvalues of H, and P is an invertible matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors of H. We have already argued that

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{1}_n, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1}, \quad \dots, \quad \mathbf{v}_{p+1} = \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p}.$$

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_{p+1} = 1$$

What about the remaining n-(p+1) eigenvectors? Note that if a vector belongs to $co\ell[X]^\perp$ (the orthogonal complement of $co\ell[X]$ or equivalently the residual space), then H maps it to 0. Therefore, the remaining n-(p+1) eigenvalues of H are all zero, and the eigenvectors associated with the 0 eigenvalue span $co\ell[X]^\perp$.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{1} & \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1} & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p} & \mathbf{x}_{\perp,\cdot,1} & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_{\perp,\cdot,n-(p+1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & 1 & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \cdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

One last fact is related to the trace of H. Recall this is the sum of the diagonal entries. We'll leverage the diagonalization:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} h_{i,i} = \operatorname{tr}[H]$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}[P^{-1}DP]$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}[PP^{-1}D] \qquad (\operatorname{tr}[ABC] = \operatorname{tr}[CAB] = \operatorname{tr}[BCA])$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}[D]$$

$$= p+1$$

$$= \operatorname{rank}(X)$$

References

 $[Axl23] \quad \text{Sheldon Axler. } \textit{Linear Algebra Done Right.} \ 4\text{th ed. Springer}, 2023. \ \text{ISBN: } 9783031410253.$