

## MATH 437 Homework 6 (20 points)

1. (2 points) Find the linear least-squares polynomial approximation on  $[-1, 1]$  to

$$f(x) = x^3.$$

*Hint.* Let  $p(a, b; x) = a + bx$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  will be determined so that  $p$  is the linear least-squares approximation to  $f$ . The least-squares approximation minimizes the error

$$e(a, b) := \int_{-1}^1 (f(x) - p(a, b; x))^2 dx.$$

Thus, the partial derivatives of  $e$  with respect to  $a$  and  $b$  should be 0:

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_a e &= 0, \\ \partial_b e &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, requiring the partial derivatives vanish is equivalent to requiring the difference

$$g(a, b; x) := f(x) - p(a, b; x)$$

is orthogonal to the linear basis monomials 1 and  $x$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_a e = 0 &\iff \int_{-1}^1 g(a, b; x) dx = 0, \\ \partial_b e = 0 &\iff \int_{-1}^1 g(a, b; x)x dx = 0.\end{aligned}$$

□

2. (3 points) Use the Gram–Schmidt process to construct an orthogonal basis  $\phi_0(x), \phi_1(x), \phi_2(x)$  for the space of polynomials of degree 2 on the interval  $[0, 2]$ .

*Hint.* For any functions  $f, g$  on  $[0, 2]$ , we let

$$(f, g) := \int_0^2 f(x)g(x) dx.$$

We start with the non-orthogonal monomial basis  $\psi_0(x) = 1, \psi_1(x) = x, \psi_2(x) = x^2$ , and we orthogonalize via Gram–Schmidt. We set  $\phi_0 := \psi_0$ . Then, we project  $\psi_1$  onto  $\text{span}\{\phi_0\}$ :

$$p_1 := \frac{(\psi_1, \phi_0)}{(\phi_0, \phi_0)} \phi_0.$$

By removing  $p_1$  from  $\psi_1$ , we obtain  $\phi_1$ :

$$\phi_1 := \psi_1 - p_1.$$

To construct  $\phi_2$ , we project  $\psi_2$  onto  $\text{span}\{\phi_0, \phi_1\}$ :

$$p_2 := \frac{(\psi_2, \phi_0)}{(\phi_0, \phi_0)} \phi_0 + \frac{(\psi_2, \phi_1)}{(\phi_1, \phi_1)} \phi_1.$$

By removing this from  $\psi_2$ , we obtain  $\phi_2$ :

$$\phi_2 := \psi_2 - p_2.$$

□

3. (3 points) Compute the first three iterations of the power method without normalization (see notes) with the following matrix:

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Start with initial eigenvector  $\mathbf{x}_0 = (1, 1, 1)^T$ . Report the approximate eigenvalue and eigenvector  $(\mu_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$ .

*Hint.* We follow the standard power method without normalization:

$$x_{k+1} = Ax_k, \quad \mu_{k+1} := \frac{x_{k+1,p}}{x_{k,p}},$$

where  $p$  is the smallest index that all  $x_{k,p}$  are (eventually) nonzero. We iterate for  $k = 0, 1, 2$ . □

4. (3 points) Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix with  $n$  distinct eigenvalues ordered such that

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots > |\lambda_n|$$

and with corresponding eigenvectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ . Let  $\beta_2, \dots, \beta_n \in \mathbb{R}$ , where  $\beta_2 \neq 0$ , and set

$$x_0 := \sum_{i=2}^n \beta_i v_i,$$

so that  $x_0$  is in the span of all but the first eigenvectors. Prove that the sequence of approximate eigenvalues  $\mu_k$  obtained from the power method starting from this initial condition converges to the second-largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_2$ .

*Hint.* Show the following steps.

- (a) The power method (without normalization) to construct the approximating sequence of eigenvectors  $x_k$  is

$$x_k := Ax_{k-1}.$$

Show that

$$x_k = \beta_2 \lambda_2^k \left( v_2 + \sum_{i=3}^n \frac{\beta_i}{\beta_2} \left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_2} \right)^k v_i \right).$$

- (b) Let

$$r_k := v_2 + \sum_{i=3}^n \frac{\beta_i}{\beta_2} \left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_2} \right)^k v_i.$$

Show that  $r_k \rightarrow v_2$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

- (c) Show that there is an index  $p$  such that, for  $k$  large enough, all  $r_{k,p} \neq 0$  and all  $x_{k,p} \neq 0$ , where  $r_{k,p}$  is the  $p$ th component of  $r_k$ , and similarly for  $x_{k,p}$ .
- (d) Show that, for some index  $p$  and for  $k$  large enough, the ratios  $x_{k+1,p}/x_{k,p}$  and  $r_{k+1,p}/r_{k,p}$  are well-defined, and

$$\frac{x_{k+1,p}}{x_{k,p}} = \lambda_2 \frac{r_{k+1,p}}{r_{k,p}} \rightarrow \lambda_2$$

as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

(e) The approximate eigenvalues for the power iteration are defined as

$$\mu_{k+1} := \frac{x_{k+1,p}}{x_{k,p}},$$

where  $p$  is from part c. Conclude that  $\mu_k \rightarrow \lambda_2$ .

□

5. (3 points) Use the Gershgorin Circle Theorem to find bounds on the eigenvalues for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

*Hint.* See Theorem 9.1 in the textbook. The eigenvalues lie within the union of the *Gershgorin circles* in the complex plane:

$$R_i := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - A_{i,i}| \leq \sum_{j \neq i} |A_{i,j}|\}.$$

This will tell you that all eigenvalues satisfy an inequality of the form  $|\lambda - z_0| \leq r_0$  for some real numbers  $z_0, r_0$ . Find  $z_0$  and  $r_0$ . Since the matrix is real and symmetric, the eigenvalues are actually all real-valued, so you can deduce from the previous inequality that all eigenvalues lie in some interval  $[a, b]$ . Find  $a$  and  $b$ . □

6. For the following set of vectors:

(a) (1 point) Show that the set is linearly independent.

(b) (2 points) Use the Gram-Schmidt process to orthogonalize the set.

$$v_1 = (1, 1, 1, 1)^T, \quad v_2 = (0, 2, 2, 2)^T, \quad v_3 = (1, 0, 0, 1)^T.$$

*Hint.* (a) Suppose  $c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + c_3 v_3 = 0$ . Then, by looking at components, set up a linear system for the  $c_i$  and conclude that the  $c_i = 0$ .

(b) We let  $(v, w) := \sum_i v_i w_i$  denote the standard dot product of vectors. We let  $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3$  denote the desired orthogonal vectors. We set  $\phi_1 = v_1$ . Then, we project  $v_2$  onto  $\text{span}\{\phi_1\}$ :

$$p_2 := \frac{(v_2, \phi_1)}{(\phi_1, \phi_1)} \phi_1.$$

Then, we remove this from  $v_2$  to get  $\phi_2$ :

$$\phi_2 = v_2 - p_2.$$

Now, we project  $v_3$  onto  $\text{span}\{\phi_1, \phi_2\}$ :

$$p_3 = \frac{(v_3, \phi_1)}{(\phi_1, \phi_1)} \phi_1 + \frac{(v_3, \phi_2)}{(\phi_2, \phi_2)} \phi_2.$$

Then, we subtract from  $v_3$  to obtain  $\phi_3$ :

$$\phi_3 = v_3 - p_3.$$

□

7. (3 points) Construct an orthogonal matrix  $Q$  such that  $Q^T A Q = D$ , where  $D$  is a diagonal matrix and

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Hint.* Since  $A$  is symmetric, the orthogonal matrix  $Q$  that we seek has columns consisting of normalized eigenvectors of  $A$ , and the diagonal matrix has entries consisting of the eigenvalues of  $A$  (see Corollary 9.17 in the textbook). We first find the eigenvalues by solving the polynomial equation

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0.$$

The diagonal matrix  $D$  is

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $\lambda_i$  are the distinct eigenvalues solved for from the previous equation. Let  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3$  be the corresponding normalized eigenvectors, i.e.  $A\mathbf{x}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{x}_i$ , and  $\|\mathbf{x}_i\|_{\ell_2}^2 = \sum_j x_{ij}^2 = 1$ . Using these equations will let you uniquely determine the eigenvectors. The matrix  $Q$  is formed by setting the columns to the normalized eigenvectors:

$$Q = [\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \mathbf{x}_2 \quad \mathbf{x}_3].$$

□