## Problem Set 4

## Problem 1. (10 points) Least Squares Solution

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 1 & 5 & -1 \\ -3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad b = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Putting A in reduced row echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 1 & 5 & -1 \\ -3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-r_1 + r_3 \to r_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{3r_1 + r_4 \to r_4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_4 + r_3 \to r_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 10 & -2 \\ 0 & 7 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 10 & -2 \\ 0 & 7 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{5r_2 + r_3 \to r_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 13 \\ 0 & 7 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_3/13 \to r_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 7 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_3 + r_2 \to r_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2r_3 + r_4 \to r_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-r_2/2 \to r_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-2r_2 + r_1 \to r_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -7r_2 + r_4 \to r_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Because the reduced row echelon form of A has 3 pivots, then the columns of A are linearly independent. Hence, A has full rank. Therefore  $K = A^T A$  is invertible and positive definite.

$$K = A^{T}A = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 4 & -5 \\ 4 & 34 & -12 \\ -5 & -12 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{T}b = \begin{bmatrix} -18 \\ 28 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now solving the system  $Kx^* = A^Tb$  with matlab (refer to code attached). We get that the least square solution is:

$$x^* = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\2\\3 \end{bmatrix}$$

So we have:

$$Ax^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = b \Rightarrow ||Ax - b||^2 = 0$$

Therefore the least squares error is zero.

## Problem 2. (10 points) Interpolation for Integration

#### part (a)

From the question we have that n = 1. Thus we have

$$p_n(x) = f(x_0)L_1(x) + f(x_1)L_2(x)$$

$$p_n(x) = f(x_0) \cdot \left(\frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1}\right) + f(x_1) \cdot \left(\frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}\right)$$

Integrating we have

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) \ dx = \frac{f(x_{0})}{x_{0} - x_{1}} \int_{a}^{b} x \ dx - \frac{f(x_{0})}{x_{0} - x_{1}} \int_{a}^{b} x_{1} \ dx + \frac{f(x_{1})}{x_{1} - x_{0}} \int_{a}^{b} x \ dx - \frac{f(x_{1})}{x_{1} - x_{0}} \int_{a}^{b}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f(x_{0})}{x_{0} - x_{1}} (b^{2} - a^{2}) - \frac{f(x_{0})x_{1}}{x_{0} - x_{1}} (b - a) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{f(x_{1})}{x_{1} - x_{0}} (b^{2} - a^{2}) - \frac{f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0}}{x_{1} - x_{0}} (b - a)$$

Substituting for  $x_0 = a$  and  $x_1 = b$ :

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f(a)}{a - b} (b^{2} - a^{2}) - \frac{f(a)b}{a - b} (b - a) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{f(b)}{b - a} (b^{2} - a^{2}) - \frac{f(b) \cdot a}{b - a} (b - a)$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = -\frac{1}{2} f(a) \cdot (b+a) + f(a) \cdot b + \frac{1}{2} f(b) \cdot (b+a) - f(b) \cdot a$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_n(x) dx = f(a) \left( \frac{-1}{2} (b+a) + b \right) + f(b) \left( \frac{1}{2} (b+a) - a \right) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (b-a) \cdot (f(a) + f(b))$$

#### part (b)

From part a we have:

$$p_n(x) = f(x_0) \cdot \left(\frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1}\right) + f(x_1) \cdot \left(\frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}\right)$$

Also from part A we have:

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f(x_{0})}{x_{0} - x_{1}} (b^{2} - a^{2}) - \frac{f(x_{0})x_{1}}{x_{0} - x_{1}} (b - a) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{f(x_{1})}{x_{1} - x_{0}} (b^{2} - a^{2}) - \frac{f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0}}{x_{1} - x_{0}} (b - a)$$

Since  $x_0 = a + \frac{1}{3}(b-a)$  and  $x_1 = a + \frac{2}{3}(b-a)$ . Then we have  $x_0 - x_1 = -\frac{1}{3}(b-a)$  and  $x_1 - x_0 = \frac{1}{3}(b-a)$ . Substituting for  $x_0 - x_1$  and  $x_1 - x_0$  we have:

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = -\frac{3}{2} \frac{f(x_{0})}{b-a} (b^{2}-a^{2}) + 3 \frac{f(x_{0})x_{1}}{b-a} (b-a) + \frac{3}{2} \frac{f(x_{1})}{b-a} (b^{2}-a^{2}) - 3 \frac{f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0}}{b-a} (b-a)$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = -\frac{3}{2} f(x_{0})(b+a) + 3f(x_{0}) \cdot x_{1} + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) - 3f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0} = f(x_{0}) \left( -\frac{3}{2}(b+a) + 3x_{1} \right) + f(x_{1}) \left( \frac{3}{2}(b+a) - 3x_{0} \right) dx = -\frac{3}{2} f(x_{0})(b+a) + 3f(x_{0}) \cdot x_{1} + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) - 3f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0} = f(x_{0}) \left( -\frac{3}{2}(b+a) + 3x_{1} \right) + f(x_{1}) \left( \frac{3}{2}(b+a) - 3x_{0} \right) dx = -\frac{3}{2} f(x_{0})(b+a) + 3f(x_{0}) \cdot x_{1} + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) - 3f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0} = f(x_{0}) \left( -\frac{3}{2}(b+a) + 3x_{1} \right) + f(x_{1}) \left( \frac{3}{2}(b+a) - 3x_{0} \right) dx = -\frac{3}{2} f(x_{0})(b+a) + 3f(x_{0}) \cdot x_{1} + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) - 3f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0} = f(x_{0}) \left( -\frac{3}{2}(b+a) + 3x_{1} \right) + f(x_{1}) \left( \frac{3}{2}(b+a) - 3x_{0} \right) dx = -\frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) - 3f(x_{1}) \cdot x_{0} = f(x_{0}) \left( -\frac{3}{2}(b+a) + 3x_{1} \right) + f(x_{1}) \left( -\frac{3}{2}(b+a) - 3x_{0} \right) dx = -\frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) - 3f(x_{1})(b+a) + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1})(b+a) + \frac{3}{2} f(x_{1$$

Substituting for  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  we have:

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = f(x_{0}) \left( -\frac{3}{2}(b+a) + 3a + 2(b-a) \right) + f(x_{1}) \left( \frac{3}{2}(b+a) - 3a - (b-a) \right) = \frac{1}{2}(b-a)f(x_{0}) + \frac{1}{2}(b-a)f(x_{1})$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{n}(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}(b-a) \left( f(a + \frac{1}{3}(b-a)) + f(a + \frac{2}{3}(b-a)) \right)$$

### part (c) First integral:

Actual value:

$$\int_0^1 e^x \, dx = e - 1 \approx 1.71828$$

Using the Trapezoid Rule:

$$\int_0^1 e^x \, dx \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1 - 0) \cdot \left( e^0 + e^1 \right) = \frac{1}{2} (e + 1) \approx 1.85914$$

Using the Open Rule:

$$\int_0^1 e^x dx \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1 - 0) \cdot \left( e^{1/3} + e^{2/3} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( e^{1/3} + e^{2/3} \right) \approx 1.67167$$

From the values above we see that the open rule yields a more accurate approximation for  $\int_0^1 e^x dx$  than the trapezoid rule does.

### Second integral:

Actual value:

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin(x) \ dx = 2.0$$

Using the Trapezoid Rule:

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin(x) \, dx \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\pi - 0) \cdot (\sin(0) + \sin(\pi)) = 0$$

Using the Open Rule:

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin(x) \, dx \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\pi - 0) \cdot (\sin(\pi/3) + \sin(2\pi/3)) = \frac{\sqrt{3}\pi}{2} \approx 2.7207$$

From the values above we see that the open rule yields a more accurate approximation for  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin(x) dx$  than the trapezoid rule does.

# Problem 3.(10 points) Application of Least Squares to Data Fitting

### part (a)

Using the equations given in the problem we have:

$$\vec{r} = \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^* 1 & \beta_1^* x_1^{(1)} & \beta_2^* x_2^{(1)} & \beta_3^* x_1^{(1)} x_2^{(1)} \\ \beta_0^* 1 & \beta_1^* x_1^{(2)} & \beta_2^* x_2^{(2)} & \beta_3^* x_1^{(2)} x_2^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \beta_0^* 1 & \beta_1^* x_1^{(m)} & \beta_2^* x_2^{(m)} & \beta_3^* x_1^{(m)} x_2^{(m)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Rewriting we have:

$$\vec{r} = \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1^{(1)} & x_2^{(1)} & x_1^{(1)} x_2^{(1)} \\ 1 & x_1^{(2)} & x_2^{(2)} & x_1^{(2)} x_2^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_1^{(m)} & x_2^{(m)} & x_1^{(m)} x_2^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^* \\ \beta_1^* \\ \beta_2^* \\ \beta_3^* \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1^{(1)} & x_2^{(1)} & x_1^{(1)} x_2^{(1)} \\ 1 & x_1^{(2)} & x_2^{(2)} & x_1^{(2)} x_2^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_1^{(m)} & x_2^{(m)} & x_1^{(m)} x_2^{(m)} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \beta^* = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^* \\ \beta_1^* \\ \beta_2^* \\ \beta_3^* \end{bmatrix}$$

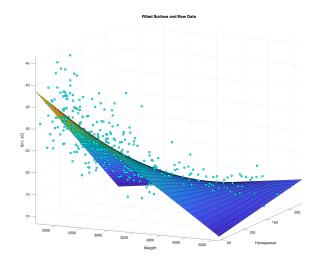
In other words we are trying to solve the system  $A\beta^* = \vec{y}$ . Therefore the system of normal equations on  $\beta^*$  is the following:

$$A^T A \beta^* = A^T \vec{y}$$

where  $\vec{y}, A$ , and  $\beta^*$  are as defined above.

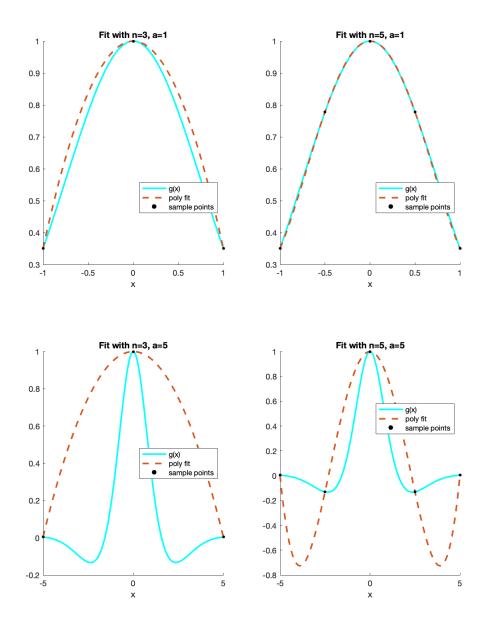
#### part (b)

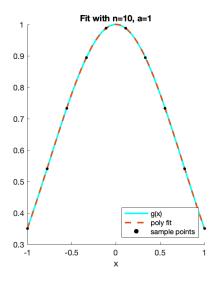
See code attached. Plot is shown below.

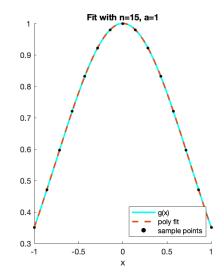


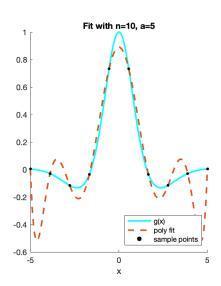
# Problem 4.(10 points) Polynomial Interpolation

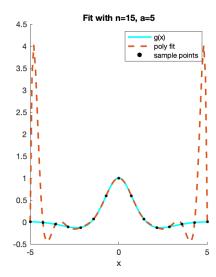
See code attached. Plots are shown below.





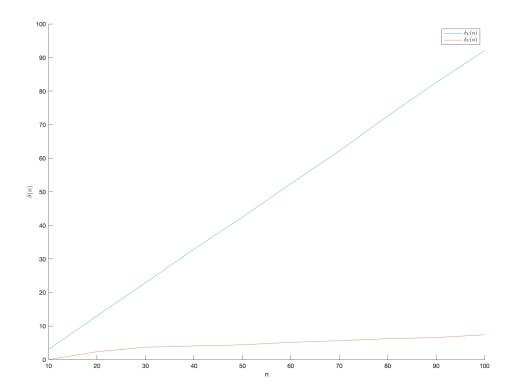






# Problem 5. (10 points) Stability of the Gram-Schmidt Algorithm

See code attached. Plot is shown below.



## $A = [1 \ 2 \ -1; \ 0 \ -2 \ 3; \ 1 \ 5 \ -1; \ -3 \ 1 \ 1]$

$$b = [0; 5; 6; 8]$$

## rref(A)

ans = 
$$4 \times 3$$

1 0 0

0 1 0

0 0 1

0 0 0

$$K = A' * A$$

$$f = A' * b$$

$$x = K \setminus f$$

## ACM/IDS 104 - Problem Set 4 - MATLAB Problems

Before writing your MATLAB code, it is always good practice to get rid of any leftover variables and figures from previous scripts.

```
clc; clear; close all;
```

# Problem 3 (10 points) Application of Least Squares to Data Fitting

The dataset carbig, a built-in MATLAB dataset, contains various characteristics for m = 406 automobiles from the 1970s and 1980s. Let  $x_1, x_2$  and y be the Weight, Horsepower and MPG (Miles Per Gallon) respectively. Let us assume the following theoretical model for the data:

$$y = f(x_1, x_2) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_1 x_2$$
 (\*)

Let  $\beta^* = (\beta_0^*, \beta_1^*, \beta_2^*, \beta_3^*)^T$  denote the best fit to the data, i.e. the vector that minimizes the Euclidean norm of the residual vector  $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_m)^T$ , where:

$$r_i = y^{(i)} - f(x_1^{(i)}, x_2^{(i)})$$

## Part (a) (5 points)

Derive the system of normal equations on  $\beta^*$ . Do this in your written-up solutions.

## Part (b) (5 points)

Find  $\beta^*$  by solving the normal system numerically and plot the scatter plot of the data  $\{(x_1^{(i)}, x_2^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}, i = 1 \cdots m$ , together with the fitted surface  $y = f(x_1, x_2)$  given by  $(\star)$ .

To start, let us load the dataset, define our variables, and perform some necessary cleanup as there exist NaN values. We do this for you :)

```
load carbig;
x1=Weight;
x2=Horsepower;
y=MPG;
clearvars -except x1 x2 y;
% Data cleaning
y=y(x1>0);
x2=x2(x1>0);
x1=x1(x1>0);

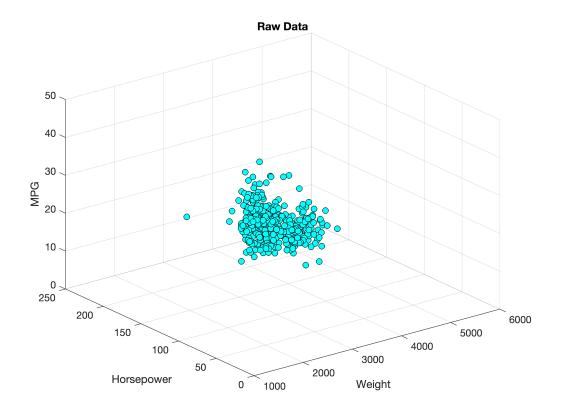
y=y(x2>0);
x1=x1(x2>0);
x2=x2(x2>0);

x1=x1(y>0);
x2=x2(y>0);
```

```
y=y(y>0);
```

Now, the dataset is ready for you to solve the normal system. Let us vizualize it. Drag the 3D plot around to get a better sense of the data.

```
figure;
scatter3(x1,x2,y,'MarkerEdgeColor','k','MarkerFaceColor','c');
xlabel('Weight');
ylabel('Horsepower');
zlabel('MPG');
title('Raw Data');
```



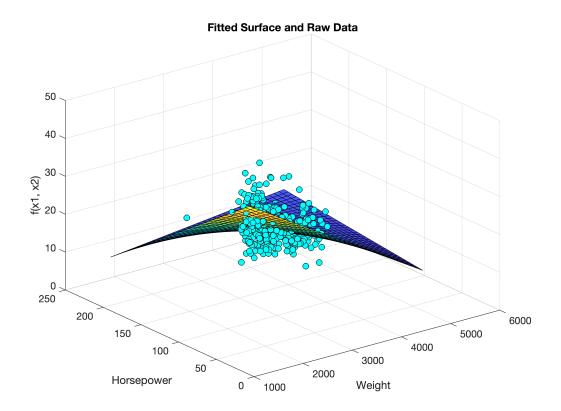
Finally, let us find the best surface to fit the data. Remember, in MATLAB, when solving a system, backslash is your best friend. Use scatter3() and fsurf() when plotting.

```
%{
Build the matrix A
Solve for beta
%}
% A is an m by 4 matrix
m = size(y, 1);
A = zeros(m , 4);
for i=1:m
    A(i, :) = [1 x1(i, 1) x2(i,1) x1(i, 1)*x2(i,1)];
end
```

```
K = A' * A;
f = A' * y;
% solving for beta
beta = K \setminus f;
y_pred = A * beta;
%{
Plotting
%}
figure;
scatter3(x1,x2,y,'MarkerEdgeColor','k','MarkerFaceColor','c');
hold on;
xlabel('Weight');
ylabel('Horsepower');
zlabel('f(x1, x2)');
[umin, \sim] = min(x1);
[umax, \sim] = max(x1);
[vmin, \sim] = min(x2);
[vmax, \sim] = max(x2);
func = @(x1,x2) [1, x1, x2, x1*x2]*beta;
fsurf(func, [umin umax vmin vmax])
```

Warning: Function behaves unexpectedly on array inputs. To improve performance, properly vectorize your function to return an output with the same size and shape as the input arguments.

```
hold off;
title('Fitted Surface and Raw Data');
```



## **Problem 4 (10 points) Polynomial Interpolation**

Interpolating polynomials p(x) are used for approximation of complex functions g(x). Intuitively, the larger the degree of the interpolating polynomial, the more accurate the approximation  $g(x) \approx p(x), x \in [a, b]$ . Generally, this is not true (as you will see in this problem). High degree interpolating polynomials often behave badly, especially near the ends of the interval [a, b]. In practice, piecewise cubic splines are often used instead of high degree polynomials.

Suppose we want to approximate the function:

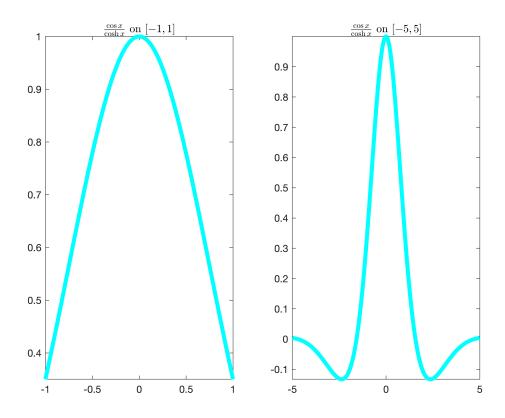
$$g(x) = \frac{\cos x}{\cosh x}, \ x \in [-a, a]$$

using n points equally spaced between -a and a. Find the interpolating polynomials and plot them versus the function g(x) for a = 1, 5 and n = 3, 5, 10, 15. In your plot, show also the data points used for interpolation. The code should produce a single figure with 8 subplots.

Useful MATLAB functions for this problem:

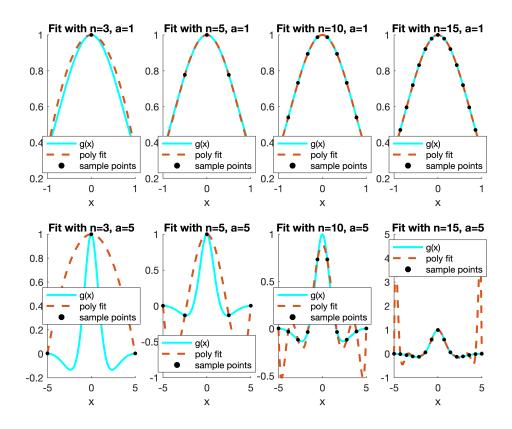
```
g = @(x) cos(x) ./ cosh(x); % you can define functions like this
a = [1, 5]; % setting interval values
n = [3, 5, 10, 15]; % setting the number of points
sub = 1; % setting the subplot index

%{
Let us see how g(x) looks like on both intervals
%}
figure;
subplot(1, 2, 1);
fplot(g, [-a(1), a(1)], "-c", "lineWidth", 4);
title("$\frac{\cos{x}}{\cosh{x}}{\cosh{x}}$ on $[-1, 1]$","Interpreter","latex");
hold on
subplot(1, 2, 2);
fplot(g, [-a(2), a(2)], "-c", "lineWidth", 4);
title("$\frac{\cos{x}}{\cosh{x}}$ on $[-5, 5]$","Interpreter","latex");
```



```
%{
Complete the nested for-loops
%}
plot_pos = 1;
figure;
for ival = a
    for degree = n-1
    %{
        Select degree+1 points in the interval
```

```
Evaluate q(x) on these points
        Find the polynomial coefficients
        %}
        points = linspace(-ival, ival, degree + 1);
        g_eval = g(points);
        coeffs = polyfit(points, g_eval, degree);
        %{
        PLOTTING
        Plot q(x), the sampled points and interpolating polynomial
        Please use different colors and linestyles
        %}
        subplot(2,4, plot_pos);
        hold on
        fplot(g, [-ival, ival], "-c", "lineWidth", 2);
        title(compose("Fit with n=%d, a=%d", degree+1, ival));
        xlabel("x");
        more_points = linspace(-ival, ival, 100);
        plot(more_points, polyval(coeffs, more_points), "--", "lineWidth", 2);
        scatter(points, g_eval, 15, 'k', "filled");
        legend("g(x)", "poly fit", "sample points", "location", "best");
        plot pos = plot pos + 1;
    end
end
```



## Problem 5 (10 points) Stability of the Gram-Schmidt Algorithm

The classical Gram-Schmidt algorithm is numerically unstable. This means that, when implemented on a computer, the round-off errors can cause the output vectors to be significantly non-orthogonal. To explore the issue, perform the following computations for each  $n = 10, 20, 30, \dots, 100$ :

- 1. Create the Hilbert matrix  $H_n$  of size n (using hilb(n)) and consider the columns  $h_1, \dots, h_n$  as a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The matrix  $H_n$  is non-singular, and thus its columns indeed form a basis, but it is very close to singular (i.e. its columns are close to being linearly dependent), and this leads to numerical problems.
- 2. Implement the basic Gram-Schmidt algorithm to construct an orthogonal basis  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  from  $h_1, \dots, h_n$ . Please don't use any advanced built-in function for orthogonalization (such as orthog()) just basic matrix operations. At the end of the process normalize your vectors so that the basis is orthonormal.
- 3. If vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  obtained in (2) are orthonormal, then  $V = [v_1, \dots, v_n]$  must be orthogonal. As a measure of orthogonality, compute the infinite norm  $\delta_V(n) = ||I_n V^T V||_{\infty}$ , which is a matrix norm (use norm(A, Inf)). The closer  $\delta_V(n)$  is to zero, the closer the columns of V are to being orthogonal.
- 4. Repeat (2) and (3) to construct an orthonormal basis  $\{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$  using the modified Gram-Schmidt algorithm (which is numerically more stable) described in lecture 9 (page 46), and compute  $\delta_U(n)$ .
- 5. To compare the basic and modified Gram-Schmidt algorithms, plot  $\delta_V(n)$  and  $\delta_U(n)$  versus n.

```
%{
Complete the following for-loop following (1)-(4)
%}
clc; clear;
delta_v = zeros(1, 10);
delta_u = zeros(1, 10);
for n=10:10:100
    %step 1
    H = hilb(n);
    %step 2, Gram-Schmidt (unstable version)
    basis = zeros(n, n);
    basis(:,1) = H(:,1);
    for k = 2:n
        wk = H(:,k);
        sum = zeros(n, 1);
        for i = 1:(k-1)
            vi = basis(:,i);
            sum = sum + dot(wk, vi) * vi / (norm(vi) * norm(vi));
        end
        basis(:, k) = wk - sum;
    end
```

```
%step 3, Gram-Schmidt (unstable version)
    %normalize all vector
    for i = 1:n
        basis(:,i) = basis(:,i) / norm(basis(:,i));
    end
    A = eye(n) - basis' * basis;
    measure_unstable = norm(A, Inf);
    index = cast(n/10, "uint8");
    delta_v(1, index ) = measure_unstable;
    %step 2, Gram-Schmidt (stable version)
    basis = zeros(n, n);
    for j = 1:n
        basis(:, j) = H(:,j)/norm(H(:,j));
        for k = (j+1):n
            H(:,k) = H(:,k) - dot(H(:,k),basis(:, j)) * basis(:, j);
        end
    end
    %step 3, vectors are already normalized
    A = eye(n) - basis' * basis;
    measure_stable = norm(A, Inf);
    index = cast(n/10, "uint8");
    delta u(1, index ) = measure stable;
end
%{
Visualize the comparison as specified in (5)
%}
figure;
hold on
plot(10:10:100, delta_v);
plot(10:10:100, delta u);
legend('$\delta_V (n)$','$\delta_U (n)$', 'Interpreter','latex');
xlabel("n");
ylabel("$\delta (n)$","Interpreter","latex");
```

