

**Self grades are due at 11 PM on September 13, 2023.**

**1. Diagonalization and Singular Value Decomposition**

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

- (a) Compute the eigenvalues and associated eigenvectors of  $A$ .

**Solution:** Eigenvalues can be computed by first calculating  $A$ 's characteristic polynomial:

$$\det(sI - A) = \det\left(\begin{bmatrix} s & -1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & s - \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}\right) \quad (1)$$

$$= s\left(s - \frac{1}{2}\right) - (-1)\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \quad (2)$$

$$= s^2 - \frac{1}{2}s - \frac{1}{2} \quad (3)$$

$$= \left(s - \frac{1}{4}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{2} \quad (4)$$

$$= \left(s - \frac{1}{4}\right)^2 - \frac{9}{16} \quad (5)$$

$$= \left(s - \frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4}\right)\left(s - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4}\right) \quad a^2 - b^2 = (a - b)(a + b) \quad (6)$$

$$= (s - 1)\left(s + \frac{1}{2}\right). \quad (7)$$

The eigenvalues of  $A$  are thus  $\lambda_1 = 1$  and  $\lambda_2 = -\frac{1}{2}$ , the values of  $s$  at which  $\det(sI - A) = 0$ .

The eigenvectors associated with each eigenvalue  $\lambda$  can be calculated as values of  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_a \\ x_b \end{bmatrix}$  for which  $A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$ , namely:

$$A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_a \\ x_b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_b \\ \frac{x_a + x_b}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad (8)$$

$$A\vec{x}_1 = \vec{x}_1 \iff x_b = x_a \iff \vec{x}_1 = \alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \alpha_1 \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (9)$$

$$A\vec{x}_2 = -\frac{1}{2}\vec{x}_2 \iff x_b = -\frac{1}{2}x_a \iff \vec{x}_2 = \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \alpha_2 \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (10)$$

Note that the expressions above are valid eigenvectors for any nonzero values of  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .

- (b) Express  $A$  as  $P\Lambda P^{-1}$ , where  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix and  $PP^{-1} = I$ . State  $P$ ,  $\Lambda$ , and  $P^{-1}$  explicitly.

**Solution:** Combining the calculations in part (a), we have that

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \vec{x}_1 & \lambda_2 \vec{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (11)$$

For our calculations, we will use the eigenvalues and eigenvectors from part (a) with  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 1$ . (Your calculations may differ here; any nonzero values for  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are permissible, and will result in scaled values of  $P$  and  $P^{-1}$ .) Filling in eigenvalue and eigenvector values, we have:

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (12)$$

and rearranging,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}^{-1}. \quad (13)$$

Calculating the latter inverse explicitly, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = -\frac{2}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \text{ because } \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

so finally,

$$A = P\Lambda P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (15)$$

This is known as the *eigenvalue decomposition*, or *eigendecomposition*, of matrix  $A$ ; for a more extensive description of this decomposition, see Calafiore & El Ghaoui section 3.5.

(c) Compute  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A^k$ .

**Solution:** Using the diagonalization of  $A$  from part (b), we have:

$$A = P\Lambda P^{-1} \quad (16)$$

$$A^k = (P\Lambda P^{-1})^k \quad (17)$$

$$= (P\Lambda P^{-1})(P\Lambda P^{-1}) \dots (P\Lambda P^{-1}) \quad (k \text{ times}) \quad (18)$$

$$= P \underbrace{\Lambda P^{-1} P}_{I} \Lambda P^{-1} \dots P \Lambda P^{-1} \quad (19)$$

$$= P \Lambda^k P^{-1} \quad (20)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}^k \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \quad (21)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1^k & 0 \\ 0 & (-\frac{1}{2})^k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (22)$$

Finally, because  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (-\frac{1}{2})^k = 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A^k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (23)$$

(d) Give the singular values  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  of  $A$ .

**Solution:** Each singular value  $\sigma_i$  of  $A$  can be calculated as  $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i(AA^\top)} = \sqrt{\lambda_i(A^\top A)}$ . (This is because  $A$ 's singular value decomposition, canonically written  $A = U\Sigma V^\top$ , can be multiplied by a transposed version to give  $AA^\top = U\Sigma^2 U^\top$ , where  $\Sigma^2$  is a diagonal matrix containing the squared singular values of  $A$  and  $UU^\top = I$ . For a thorough treatment of SVD, see Calafiore & El Ghaoui chapter 5.)

To find  $A$ 's singular values, we thus perform the same calculation used in part (a) to find each  $\lambda_i(AA^\top) = \sigma_i^2$ :

$$AA^\top = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad (24)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (25)$$

$$\det((sI - AA^\top)) = \det\left(\begin{bmatrix} s-1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & s-\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}\right) \quad (26)$$

$$= (s-1)\left(s-\frac{1}{2}\right) - \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \quad (27)$$

$$= s^2 - s - \frac{1}{2}s + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \quad (28)$$

$$= s^2 - \frac{3}{2}s + \frac{1}{4} \quad (29)$$

$$= \left(s - \frac{3}{4}\right)^2 - \frac{9}{16} + \frac{1}{4} \quad (30)$$

$$= \left(s - \frac{3}{4}\right)^2 - \frac{5}{16} \quad (31)$$

$$= \left(s - \frac{3}{4} - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{4}\right)\left(s - \frac{3}{4} + \frac{\sqrt{5}}{4}\right) \quad a^2 - b^2 = (a-b)(a+b) \quad (32)$$

$$= \left(s - \frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{4}\right)\left(s - \frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{4}\right) \quad (33)$$

$$= (s - \sigma_1^2)(s - \sigma_2^2). \quad (34)$$

Thus, the singular values of  $A$  are  $\sigma_1 = \frac{\sqrt{3+\sqrt{5}}}{2}$  and  $\sigma_2 = \frac{\sqrt{3-\sqrt{5}}}{2}$ .

## 2. Least Squares

- (a) Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  be given. Suppose  $A$  has full column rank. Show that the minimizer  $\vec{x}^*$  of the least-squares problem:

$$\min_{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|A\vec{x} - \vec{y}\|_2^2$$

is given by  $\vec{x}^* = (A^\top A)^{-1} A^\top \vec{y}$ .

**Solution:** There are many possible ways to solve this problem; we present a solution below based on geometric intuition, which is detailed in Section 1.2 of the course reader. Intuitively speaking, we are searching over the set of all vectors of the form  $\{A\vec{x} : \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$  in search for the one closest to  $\vec{y}$ , i.e., the vector in  $R(A)$  that is closest to  $\vec{y}$ . To this end, we claim the following: Let  $\vec{z} = A\vec{x}^* \in R(A)$  be the unique nonzero vector in  $R(A)$  such that  $\vec{y} - \vec{z}$  is perpendicular to  $R(A)$ , i.e.,  $A^\top(\vec{y} - \vec{z}) = \vec{0}$ . Then  $\vec{z}$  is the closest vector to  $\vec{y}$  in  $R(A)$ , and we will aim to find a vector  $\vec{x}^*$  such that  $A\vec{x}^* = \vec{z}$ .

Let  $\vec{u} \in R(A)$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{y} - \vec{u}\|_2^2 &= \|(\vec{y} - \vec{z}) + (\vec{z} - \vec{u})\|_2^2 \\ &= \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\|_2^2 + \|\vec{z} - \vec{u}\|_2^2 \\ &\geq \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\|_2^2, \end{aligned}$$

with equality if and only if  $\vec{z} = \vec{u}$ . This proves the claim.

Now, let us study the equation:

$$A^\top(\vec{y} - A\vec{x}^*) = A^\top(\vec{y} - \vec{z}) = \vec{0}.$$

Distributing  $A^\top$  and rearranging terms, we obtain:

$$A^\top A\vec{x}^* = A^\top \vec{y}.$$

To obtain the final expression, it remains to recall that  $A^\top A$  is invertible, given that  $A$  has full column rank (see Discussion 1, Problem 3). We can then apply  $A^\top A$  to both sides of the above equation to obtain the desired expression,  $\vec{x}^* = (A^\top A)^{-1} A^\top \vec{y}$ .

- (b) The Michaelis-Menten model for enzyme kinetics relates the rate  $y$  of an enzymatic reaction to the concentration  $x$  of a substrate, as follows:

$$y = \frac{\beta_1 x}{\beta_2 + x}, \tag{35}$$

for constants  $\beta_1, \beta_2 > 0$ . This model will be used throughout the remaining sub-parts of this problem.

Show that the model can be expressed as a linear relation between the values  $1/y = y^{-1}$  and  $1/x = x^{-1}$ . Specifically, give an equation of the form  $y^{-1} = w_1 + w_2 x^{-1}$ , specifying the values of  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  in terms of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ .

**Solution:** Inverting each side of the equation, we have

$$y^{-1} = \left( \frac{\beta_1 x}{\beta_2 + x} \right)^{-1} \tag{36}$$

$$= \frac{\beta_2 + x}{\beta_1 x} \tag{37}$$

$$= \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1 x} + \frac{x}{\beta_1 x} \quad (38)$$

$$= \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1} x^{-1} + \frac{1}{\beta_1} \quad (39)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\beta_1} + \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1} x^{-1}. \quad (40)$$

$$(41)$$

The above equation has exactly the desired form  $y^{-1} = w_1 + w_2 x^{-1}$  for  $w_1 = \frac{1}{\beta_1}$  and  $w_2 = \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1}$ .

- (c) In general, reaction parameters  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  (and, thus,  $w_1$  and  $w_2$ ) are not known a priori and must be fitted from data — for example, using least squares. Suppose you collect  $m$  measurements  $(x_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$  over the course of a reaction. Formulate the least squares problem

$$\vec{w}^* = \underset{\vec{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|X\vec{w} - \vec{y}\|_2^2, \quad (42)$$

where  $\vec{w}^* = \begin{bmatrix} w_1^* & w_2^* \end{bmatrix}^\top$ , and you must specify  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 2}$  and  $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Specifically, your solution should include explicit expressions for  $X$  and  $\vec{y}$  as a function of  $(x_i, y_i)$  values and a final expression for  $\vec{w}^*$  in terms of  $X$  and  $\vec{y}$ , which should contain only matrix multiplications, transposes, and inverses.

Assume without loss of generality that  $x_1 \neq x_2$ .

**Solution:** To formulate the least squares problem as stated,  $X$  and  $\vec{y}$  values should be set to

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1^{-1} & \cdots & x_m^{-1} \end{bmatrix}^\top, \quad \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^{-1} & \cdots & y_m^{-1} \end{bmatrix}^\top. \quad (43)$$

To solve this least squares problem, we note that the optimal residual vector  $X\vec{w}^* - \vec{y}$  must be orthogonal to  $\mathcal{R}(X)$  by the orthogonality principle, and we have

$$X^\top (X\vec{w}^* - \vec{y}) = 0. \quad (44)$$

Rearranging we get,

$$\vec{w}^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top \vec{y}. \quad (45)$$

- (d) Assume that we have used the above procedure to calculate values for  $w_1^*$  and  $w_2^*$ , and we now want to estimate  $\hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_1 & \hat{\beta}_2 \end{bmatrix}^\top$ . Write an expression for  $\hat{\beta}$  in terms of  $w_1^*$  and  $w_2^*$ .

**Solution:** To calculate  $\hat{\beta}$ , we can simply reverse the calculations from part (b):

$$w_1 = \frac{1}{\beta_1} \implies \beta_1 = \frac{1}{w_1}, \quad (46)$$

$$w_2 = \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1} \implies \beta_2 = \beta_1 w_2 = \frac{w_2}{w_1}. \quad (47)$$

$$\text{Thus, } \hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{w_1^*} & \frac{w_2^*}{w_1^*} \end{bmatrix}^\top.$$

**NOTE:** This problem was taken (with some edits) from the textbook *Optimization Models* by Calafiore and El Ghaoui.

### 3. Vector Spaces and Rank

The *rank* of a  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ ,  $\text{rank}(A)$ , is the dimension of its *range*, also called span, and denoted  $\mathcal{R}(A) := \{A\vec{x} : \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ .

- (a) Assume that  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  takes the form  $A = \vec{u}\vec{v}^\top$ , with  $\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$ . (Note that a matrix of this form is known as a *dyad*.) Find the rank of  $A$ .

*HINT: Consider the quantity  $A\vec{x}$  for arbitrary  $\vec{x}$ , i.e., what happens when you multiply any vector by matrix  $A$ .*

**Solution:** For any  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have that  $A\vec{x} = \vec{u}\vec{v}^\top \vec{x} = \vec{u}(\vec{v}^\top \vec{x}) = (\vec{v}^\top \vec{x})\vec{u}$ . Note that  $\vec{v}^\top \vec{x}$  is a scalar that can take on any value depending on choice of  $\vec{x}$ . Since the range of  $A$  is the subspace reachable through any choice of  $\vec{x}$ ,  $\mathcal{R}(A)$  is simply the 1-dimensional subspace spanned by  $\vec{u}$  (i.e., the line pointing along  $\vec{u}$ ). Since a single vector (namely,  $\vec{u}$ ) spans  $\mathcal{R}(A)$ , the rank of  $A$  is 1.

- (b) Show that for arbitrary  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,

$$\text{rank}(A + B) \leq \text{rank}(A) + \text{rank}(B), \quad (48)$$

i.e., the rank of the sum of two matrices is less than or equal to the sum of their ranks.

*HINT: First, show that  $\mathcal{R}(A + B) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A) + \mathcal{R}(B)$ , meaning that any vector in the range of  $A + B$  can be expressed as the sum of two vectors, each in the range of  $A$  and  $B$ , respectively. Remember that for any matrix  $A$ ,  $\mathcal{R}(A)$  is a subspace, and for any two subspaces  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ ,  $\dim(S_1 + S_2) \leq \dim(S_1) + \dim(S_2)$ .<sup>1</sup> (Note that the sum of vector spaces  $S_1 + S_2$  is not equivalent to  $S_1 \cup S_2$ , but is defined as  $S_1 + S_2 := \{\vec{s}_1 + \vec{s}_2 \mid \vec{s}_1 \in S_1, \vec{s}_2 \in S_2\}$ .)*

**Solution:** Given any vector  $\vec{v} \in \mathcal{R}(A + B)$ , there must by definition exist  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\vec{v} = (A + B)\vec{x}$ . Thus,  $\vec{v} = (A + B)\vec{x} = \underbrace{A\vec{x}}_{\in \mathcal{R}(A)} + \underbrace{B\vec{x}}_{\in \mathcal{R}(B)}$ , so  $\mathcal{R}(A + B) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A) + \mathcal{R}(B)$ , as hinted.

Computing the dimension of each side of the subset relationship, it follows that

$$\dim(\mathcal{R}(A + B)) \leq \dim(\mathcal{R}(A) + \mathcal{R}(B)). \quad (49)$$

Using the second part of the hint, we have that

$$\dim(\mathcal{R}(A) + \mathcal{R}(B)) \leq \dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) + \dim(\mathcal{R}(B)). \quad (50)$$

Combining the previous two equations,

$$\dim(\mathcal{R}(A + B)) \leq \dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) + \dim(\mathcal{R}(B)), \quad (51)$$

i.e., by definition,

$$\text{rank}(A + B) \leq \text{rank}(A) + \text{rank}(B) \quad (52)$$

as desired.

- (c) Consider an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  that takes the form  $A = UV^\top$ , with  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$ ,  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ . Show that the rank of  $A$  is less or equal than  $k$ . *HINT: Use parts (a) and (b), and remember that this decomposition can*

<sup>1</sup>This fact can be proved by taking a basis of  $S_1$  and extending it to a basis of  $S_2$  (during which we can only add at most  $\dim(S_2)$  basis vectors). This extended basis must now also be a basis of  $S_1 + S_2$ . Thus,  $\dim(S_1 + S_2) \leq \dim(S_1) + \dim(S_2)$ .

also be written as the dyadic expansion

$$A = UV^\top = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{u}_1 & \dots & \vec{u}_k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ \vec{v}_k^\top \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^k \vec{u}_i \vec{v}_i^\top, \quad (53)$$

for  $U = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{u}_1 & \dots & \vec{u}_k \end{bmatrix}$  and  $V = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_k \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Solution:** Starting with the dyadic expansion above, iteratively pulling out terms from this summation, and using the result from (a) that the rank of a dyadic matrix is 1 (or 0, if any  $\vec{v}_i = \vec{0}$ ), we know by the rank relation from (b) that

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \vec{u}_i \vec{v}_i^\top\right) \leq \text{rank}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \vec{u}_i \vec{v}_i^\top\right) + \underbrace{\text{rank}(\vec{u}_k \vec{v}_k^\top)}_{0 \text{ or } 1} \leq \dots \leq k, \quad (54)$$

as desired.

#### 4. Gram Schmidt

Any set of  $n$  linearly independent vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  could be used as a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . However, certain bases could be more suitable for certain operations than others. For example, an orthonormal basis could facilitate solving linear equations.

- (a) Given a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , it could be represented as a multiplication of two matrices

$$A = QR,$$

where  $Q$  is an orthonormal in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $R$  is an upper-triangular matrix. For the matrix  $A$ , describe how Gram-Schmidt process could be used to find the  $Q$  and  $R$  matrices, and apply this to

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -3 & 1 \\ 4 & -4 & -7 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

to find an orthogonal matrix  $Q$  and an upper-triangular matrix  $R$ .

**Solution:** Let  $a_i$  and  $q_i$  denote the columns of  $A$  and  $Q$ , respectively. Using Gram-Schmidt, we obtain an orthogonal basis  $q_i$  for the column space of  $A$ .

$$p_1 = a_1, q_1 = \frac{p_1}{\|p_1\|_2} \quad (55)$$

$$p_2 = a_2 - (a_2^\top q_1)q_1, \quad q_2 = \frac{p_2}{\|p_2\|_2} \quad (56)$$

$$p_3 = a_3 - (a_3^\top q_1)q_1 - (a_3^\top q_2)q_2, q_3 = \frac{p_3}{\|p_3\|_2} \quad (57)$$

$$\vdots \quad (58)$$

Rearranging terms, we have

$$a_1 = r_{11}q_1 \quad (59a)$$

$$a_i = r_{i1}q_1 + \dots + r_{ii}q_i, \quad i = 2, \dots, n, \quad (59b)$$

where each  $q_i$  has unit norm, and  $r_{ij}q_j$  denotes the projection of  $a_i$  onto the vector  $q_j$  for  $j \neq i$ .

Stacking  $a_i$  horizontally into  $A$  and rewriting (59a-b) in matrix notation, we obtain  $A = QR$ . For the given matrix, we have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0 & 0.8 \\ 0.8 & 0 & -0.6 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -5 & -5 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that an equivalent factorization is  $A = (-Q)(-R)$ .

- (b) Given an invertible matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and an observation vector  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the solution to the equality

$$Ax = b$$

is given as  $x = A^{-1}b$ . For the matrix  $A = QR$  from part (a), assume that we want to solve

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$



By using the fact that  $Q$  is an orthonormal matrix, find  $v$  such that

$$Rx = v.$$

Then, given the upper-triangular matrix  $R$  in part (a) and  $v$ , find the elements of  $x$  sequentially.

**Solution:** We note that  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ .

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= b \\ QRx &= b \\ Q^T QRx &= Rx = Q^T b. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$v = Q^T b = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Given  $R$  and  $v$ , we can find  $x$  by back-substitution:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & -5 & -5 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} \implies x_3 = 2 \implies x_2 = -1 \implies x_1 = 1 \implies x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- (c) Given an invertible matrix  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and an observation vector  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , find the computational cost of finding the solution  $z$  to the equation  $Bz = c$  by using the  $QR$  decomposition of  $B$ . Assume that  $Q$  and  $R$  matrices are available, and adding, multiplying, and dividing scalars take one unit of “computation”.

As an example, computing the inner product  $a^T b$  is said to be  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ , since we have  $n$  scalar multiplication for each  $a_i b_i$ . Similarly, matrix vector multiplication is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ , since matrix vector multiplication can be viewed as computing  $n$  inner products. The computational cost for inverting a matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ , and consequently, the cost grows rapidly as the set of equations grows in size. This is why the expression  $A^{-1}b$  is usually not computed by directly inverting the matrix  $A$ . Instead, the  $QR$  decomposition of  $A$  is exploited to decrease the computational cost.

**Solution:** We count the number of operations in back substitution. Solving the initial equation

$$r_{nn}x_n = \bar{b}_n$$

takes 1 multiplication. Solving each subsequent equation takes one more multiplication and one more addition than the previous. In total, we have  $1 + 3 + 5 + \dots$  of operations, which is on the order of  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ . Thus, matrix multiplication and back substitution are both  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ . Given the  $QR$  decomposition of  $A$ , we can solve  $Ax = b$  in  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  times.

**5. Homework Process**

With whom did you work on this homework? List the names and SIDs of your group members.

*NOTE:* If you didn't work with anyone, you can put "none" as your answer.