## Quiz 5

**Problem 1** (15 points; 3 points each). Decide if each of the following are true or false and provide a justification or counterexample in each case. A justification could consist of a theorem from the text. All vector spaces are assumed to be finite-dimensional here.

(a) \_\_\_\_\_ There is a unique least squares solution  $\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$  to Ax = b.

This is false, you had a DQ where you showed that the set of least square solutions to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is exactly  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \text{NS}(A)$ , where  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  is any fixed least squares solution.

There is a unique  $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}$  so that  $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}$  is the closest thing of the form  $A\boldsymbol{x}$  to  $\boldsymbol{b}$ , in other words,  $\|\hat{\boldsymbol{b}} - \boldsymbol{b}\|_2^2 = \min\{\|A\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b}\|_2^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$  and a least-square solution is a a solution to  $A\boldsymbol{x} = \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}$ .

(b) \_\_\_\_\_ For A and  $m \times n$  matrix of rank n (this is assumed for now in all of our least-square problems),

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}$  is a least squares solution to  $A\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b}$  iff  $A\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = \hat{b}$ 

where  $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}} = A(A^TA)^{-1}A^T\boldsymbol{b}$  is the unique vector satisfying  $\|\boldsymbol{b} - \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}\|^2 = \min\{\|A\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b}\|^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$ 

This is true. This is an "if and only if" ( $\iff$ ) argument. Here one we can actually do this as a series of equivalences:

By the definition of "least-square" solution:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} \text{ is a least-squares solution to } A\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b} \end{bmatrix} \iff A^T A \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = A^T \boldsymbol{b}$$

Multiply both sides by  $(A^T A)^{-1}$  and use  $(\ddagger)$  with  $NS(A^T A) = \{0\}$ .

$$A^T A \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = A^T \boldsymbol{b} \iff \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \boldsymbol{b}$$

Multiply both sides by A and use (‡) with  $NS(A) = \{0\}$ .

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \boldsymbol{b} \iff A \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = A (A^T A) A^T \boldsymbol{b}$$

$$\iff A \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}$$

Note that

$$x = y \iff Cx = Cy$$
 (‡)

is only true for all x and y if  $NS(C) = \{0\}$ .

(c) \_\_\_\_\_\_ If  $\{\boldsymbol{u}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{u}_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis for V with respect to an inner product  $\langle\cdot,\cdot\rangle:V\times V\to\mathbb{C}$  and  $\boldsymbol{v}=\sum_{i=1}^n\alpha_i\boldsymbol{u}_i$ , then  $\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_2^2=\sum_{i=1}^n|\alpha_i|^2$ .

This is true and is essentially the Pythagorean Theorem. This is a computation

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_{2}^{2} = \langle \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \boldsymbol{u}_{i}, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \boldsymbol{u}_{i} \right\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \left\langle \boldsymbol{u}_{i}, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \boldsymbol{u}_{i} \right\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} \bar{\alpha}_{j} \langle \boldsymbol{u}_{i}, \boldsymbol{u}_{j} \rangle \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \bar{\alpha}_{j} \delta_{i,j}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \bar{\alpha}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\alpha_{i}|^{2}$$

Here

$$\delta_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

(d) \_\_\_\_\_ All norms  $\|\cdot\|: \mathbb{R}^n \to [0, \infty)$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  come from an inner product by  $\|\boldsymbol{x}\|^2 = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$ .

This is false. The book provides several norms. For a norm  $\|\cdot\cdot\cdot\|$  to be given by an inner product it must satisfy the parallelogram law  $\|\boldsymbol{u}-\boldsymbol{v}\|^2+\|\boldsymbol{u}+\boldsymbol{v}\|^2=2\|\boldsymbol{u}\|^2+2\|\boldsymbol{v}\|^2$ .

Of all of the norms  $\|\cdot\|_p$  for  $1 \le p \le \infty$ , the only one that satisfies the parallelogram law is p = 2, this is the only one given by an inner product.

For example,  $\|(a,b)\|_{\infty} = \max\{|a|,|b|\}$  and clearly we can choose  $a,\,b,\,c,$  and d so that

$$\max\{|a-c|,|b-d|\} + \max\{|a+c|,|b+d|\} \neq 2\max\{|a|,|b|\} + 2\max\{|c|,|d|\}$$

Let (a, b) = (1, 3) and (c, d) = (2, 1), then

$$\begin{split} \max\{|1-2|,|3-1|\} + \max\{|1+2|,|3+1|\} &= 2+4 \\ &\neq 2\max\{|1|,|3|\} + 2\max\{|2|,|1|\} = 6+4 \end{split}$$

(e) \_\_\_\_\_ If  $C = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis for V with respect to an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{C}$  and  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ , then for any  $(c_1, \dots, c_n) = [\mathbf{v}]_C$ ,  $c_i = \langle v, u_i \rangle$ .

This is another computation. Say  $(c_1, \ldots, c_n) = [\boldsymbol{v}]_{\mathcal{C}}$ , then  $\boldsymbol{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \boldsymbol{u}_i$ . Now just compute

$$\langle \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \boldsymbol{u}_i, \boldsymbol{u}_j \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \langle \boldsymbol{u}_i, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \delta_{i,j} = c_j$$

Problem 2 (10 points). Using the inner product

$$\langle p, q \rangle = \int_0^1 pq \, dx$$

use Gram-Schmidt to find an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{P}_2[x]$ , the space of all polynomials of degree 2 or less.

Use this to find the projection, q, of  $p = x^{2/3}$  onto  $\mathbb{P}_2[x]$ .

Note q is the "closest point in  $\mathbb{P}_2[x]$  to p in the sense that  $||p-q||_2$  is as small as possible.

The strategy here is simple:

- Start with columns of  $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\} = \{1, x, x^2\}.$
- $u_1 = v_1$
- $q_1 = u_1/||u_1||$
- $u_2 = v_2 \langle v_2, q_1 \rangle q_1$
- $q_2 = u_2/||u_2||$
- $u_3 = v_3 \langle v_3, q_1 \rangle q_1 \langle v_3, q_2 \rangle q_2$
- $q_3 = u_3/||u_3||$

That is the idea, here are the details. This is how all simple Gram-Schmidt proceeds.

Choose  $u_1 = 1$ , then  $\langle 1, 1 \rangle = \int_0^1 1 \, dx = 1$  so this is already normalized and so set

$$q_1 = u_1$$
.

Set  $u_2 = x - \langle x, q_1 \rangle q_1 = x - \int_0^1 x \, dx = x - \frac{1}{2}$ . Now  $||u_2||^2 = \int_0^1 \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \, dx = \int_0^1 x^2 - x + \frac{1}{4} \, dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{4}x\Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{12}$ . So

$$q_2 = \sqrt{12}\left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{3}(2x - 1).$$

Finally,  $\mathbf{u}_3 = x^2 - \langle x^2, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle \mathbf{q}_2 - \langle x^2, \mathbf{q}_1 \rangle \mathbf{q}_1$ . We have  $\langle x^2, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle = \int_0^1 \sqrt{3}(2x - 1) x^2 dx = \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - \frac{1}{3} x^3 \right) \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}$ . So  $\langle x^2, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle \mathbf{q}_2 = \left( x - \frac{1}{2} \right)$ . Also,  $\langle x^2, \mathbf{q}_1 \rangle = \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}$ , so  $\mathbf{u}_3 = x^2 - \left( x - \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{3} = x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}$ .

We have  $||u_3||^2 = \int_0^1 \left(x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}\right)^2 dx = \int_0^1 x^4 - 2x^3 + \frac{4}{3}x^2 - \frac{1}{3}x + \frac{1}{36} dx = \frac{1}{180}$  and so

$$q_3 = \sqrt{180}\left(x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}\right) = \sqrt{5}(6x^2 - 6x + 1).$$

The projection of p onto  $\mathbb{P}_2[x]$  is

$$q = \langle p, q_1 \rangle \mathbf{q}_1 + \langle p, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle \mathbf{q}_2 + \langle p, \mathbf{q}_3 \rangle \mathbf{q}_3$$

$$\begin{split} \langle \boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{q}_1 \rangle &= \int_0^1 (x^{2/3})(1) \, dx = \frac{3}{5} x^{5/3} \big|_0^1 = \frac{3}{5} \\ \langle \boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{q}_1 \rangle \boldsymbol{q}_1 &= \frac{5}{3} \cdot 1 = \frac{3}{5} \\ \langle \boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{q}_2 \rangle &= \int_0^1 (x^{2/3})(\sqrt{3})(2x-1)\sqrt{3} \int_0^1 (2x^{5/3} - x^{2/3}) = \sqrt{3} \left( 2 \cdot \frac{3}{8} x^{8/3} - \frac{3}{5} x^{5/3} \right)_{x=0}^{x=1} \\ &= \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{6}{8} - \frac{3}{5} \right) = \sqrt{3} \cdot \frac{3}{20} \\ \langle \boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{q}_2 \rangle \boldsymbol{q}_2 &= \sqrt{3} \frac{3}{20} \sqrt{3}(2x-1) = \frac{9}{20}(2x-1) \\ \langle \boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{q}_3 \rangle &= \int_0^1 (x^{2/3})\sqrt{5}(6x^2 - 6x + 1) = \sqrt{5} \int_0^1 (6x^{8/3} - 6x^{5/3} + x^{2/3}) \, dx \\ &= \sqrt{5} \left( 6 \cdot \frac{3}{11} x^{11/3} - 6 \cdot \frac{3}{8} x^{8/3} + \frac{3}{5} x^{5/3} \right)_{x=0}^{x=1} = \sqrt{5} \left( \frac{18}{11} - \frac{9}{4} + \frac{3}{5} \right) = -\sqrt{5} \cdot \frac{3}{220} \\ \langle \boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{q}_3 \rangle \boldsymbol{q}_3 &= -\sqrt{5} \cdot \frac{3}{220} \sqrt{5}(6x^2 - 6x + 1) = -\frac{3}{44}(6x^2 - 6x + 1) \end{split}$$

So the projection of p onto  $\mathbb{P}_2[x]$  is

$$-\frac{3}{44}(6x^2 - 6x + 1) + \frac{9}{20}(2x - 1) + \frac{3}{5} = -\frac{9}{22}x^2 + \frac{72}{55}x + \frac{9}{110} = \boxed{-\frac{9}{110}(5x^2 - 16x - 1)}$$

A SageCell page that does computations

**Problem 3** (10 points). Submit your Linear Algebra Tutorial MATLAB Certificate to the shared MATLAB drive.