

Worksheet 1, for the MATLAB course by Hans G. Feichtinger, Edinburgh, Jan. 9th

Start MATLAB via: Start > Programs > School applications > Sci.+Eng. > Eng.+Electronics > MATLAB > R2007 (preferably).

Generally speaking I suggest that you start your session by opening up a diary with the command:

`diary mydiary1.m` and concluding the session with the command `diary off`. If you want to save your workspace you may want to call `save today1.m` in order to save all the current variable (names + values).

Moreover, using the `HELP` command from MATLAB you can get help on more or less every MATLAB command. Try simply `help inv` or `help plot`.

1. Define an arbitrary (random) 3×3 matrix A , and check whether it is invertible. Calculate the inverse matrix. Then define an arbitrary right hand side vector b and determine the (unique) solution to the equation $A * x = b$. Find in two different ways the solution to this problem, by either using the inverse matrix, or alternatively by applying Gauss elimination (i.e. the `RREF` command) to the extended system matrix $[A, b]$. In addition look at the output of the command `rref([A,eye(3)])`. What does it tell you?
2. Produce an “arbitrary” 7×7 matrix of rank 5. There are at least two simple ways to do this. Either by factorization, i.e. by obtaining it as a product of some 7×5 matrix with another random 5×7 matrix, or by purposely making two of the rows or columns linear dependent from the remaining ones. Maybe the second method is interesting (if you have time also try the first one):
3. Plotting routines are quite simple in MATLAB. `plot(d)` simply plots the data vector d of length n over $1 \dots n$. If d is real-valued this is done in the usual way, if d is complex-valued, e.g. $x = \text{rand}(1,n) + i * \text{rand}(1,n)$ then the plot is performed in the complex plane. So try e.g.
`n = 35; x = rand(1,n) + i * rand(1,n); plot(x,'r*'); title('a plot in the complex plane');`

See what happens if you do in addition: `axis square; plot(x,'k'); hold off; grid; figure(gcf);` If you want to mark the first and the last point on this polygonal curve specifically add `hold on; plot(x(1),'b*'); plot(x(n),'g*'); hold off; figure(gcf);` This last command “figure(gcf)” brings the last figure to the surface. The command “figure” itself opens up a new figure.

If a matrix is inserted into the plotting command the entries (columns) are plotted column-wise. Just as an example try: `T = zeros(8,6); T(:) = 4 : 51; plot(T); xlabel('plotting a matrix');` From such a plot you can learn the sequence of colors automatically assigned to the first, second and so on column to be depicted as a graph.

4. Generate an arithmetic progression consisting of $12 + 1$ equidistant points on the interval $[0, 2\pi]$ by resizing the simple arithmetic progression $0 : 1/12 : 1$ by the factor $2 * \pi$. Recalling then *Euler's formula*

$$e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i * \sin(x)$$

or simply using the fact that the coordinates of a point on the unit circle are expressed as a pair $(\cos(x), \sin(x))$ for some $x \in [0, 2\pi)$ we can obtain the set of unit roots of order 12 by the simple command `r12 = exp(i * bas)`. To check that we have obtained the right object we can plot it in the complex plane, simply by the command `plot(r12); axis square;` You may want to mark the corners specifically with the additional command `hold on; plot(r12,'r*'); hold off; figure(gcf);` .

I can/will also make the LATEX code for THIS document and diaries available to you!

How can you realize such a task. Take the unit roots of order 12 above as example. The MATLAB input could be

```
>> format compact
>> diary r12plot.m
>> r = 0 : 1/12 : 1
r =
    0    0.0833    0.1667    0.2500    0.3333    0.4167    0.5000    0.5833
                                0.6667    0.7500    0.8333    0.9167    1.0000

>> bas = 2*pi*r;
>> r12 = exp(i*bas);
>> plot(r12); hold on; plot(r12,'r*'); hold off; title('unit roots of order 12');
>> grid; axis square; figure(gcf);
>> diary off;
```

Then you would edit this file, to allow such a plot for general n , not just $n = 12$. Hence we continue, by calling now the command

```
>> edit r12plot
```

in order to obtain this file:

```
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% PLUROOTS.M
%
% Plot unit-roots
%
% USAGE: rts = pluroots(n);

% this is only a comment which will NOT be displayed upon calling
% 'help pluroots'. Of course the file has to be in your working directory
% in order to be accessible
% 'which pluroots' displays that directory
% 'pwd' prints the current working directory

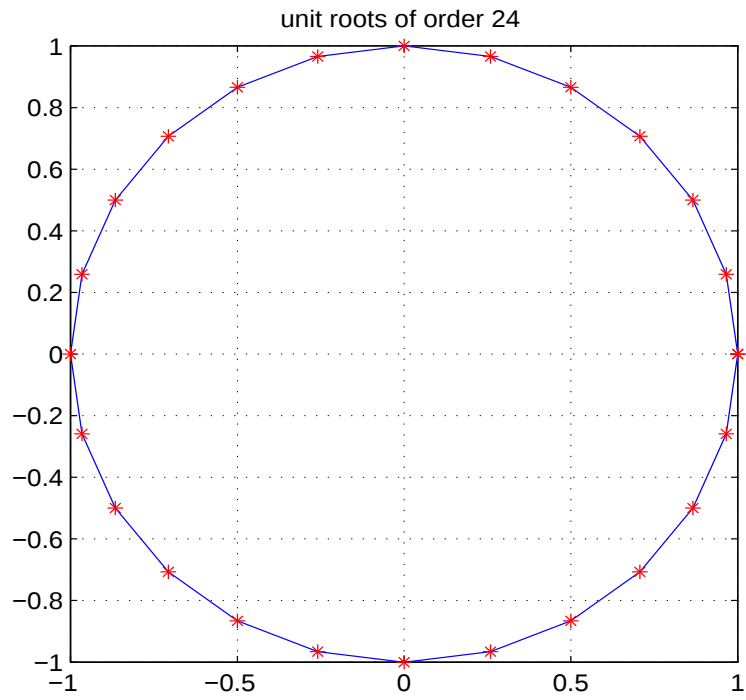
function r12 = pluroots(n);

if nargin == 0; n = 12; end;
r = 0: 1/n :1;
bas = 2*pi*r;
r12 = exp(i*bas);
plot(r12); hold on; plot(r12,'r*'); hold off;
title(['unit roots of order ' num2str(n) ' ']);
grid; axis square; figure(gcf);
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
```

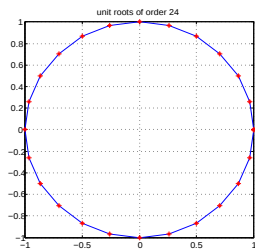
This file can now called as `pluroots(24)` in order to see a similar plot of the unit roots of order 24. You can save and store the figure (by clicking on the icon “file” on the left top the display, then go into export and

choose the mode, such as *.eps or *.jpg or *.pdf format. I usually export into EPS and run a converter called “epstopdf” on the resulting EPS-file, which takes away the unnecessary spaces.

Now we include the thus converted figure into the report:



If you do not go via EPS you get a lot of empty space around, but probably you can fix that using some commands at the time of PDF output from MATLAB. Concrete dimensions obtained experimentally!



Worksheet 2, for the MATLAB course by Hans G. Feichtinger, Edinburgh, Jan. 16th

1. Write a routine (an M-file which you may want to call `testmvmul.m`) which checks that the effect of matrix multiplication of some $m \times n$ -matrix A with some column vector x is just a linear combination of the columns of A (let us describe them mathematically as a^k , as a symbol for the k -th column, i.e. check that $A * x = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k a^k$ (recall that you get it via $A(:,k)$)).
2. Write a routine defining a “random complex matrix” with entries (both real and imaginary part) equidistributed in the interval $[-1/2, 1/2]$, and call it `RANDC.M`. Input should be the same as that of `RAND` (call “help rand”), i.e. either `rand(n)` or `rand(m,n)`.
3. Take an arbitrary rectangular matrix and verify that for any pair of complex-valued vectors $x \in C^m$ and $y \in C^n$ one has:

$$\langle A * x, y \rangle = \langle x, A' * y \rangle.$$

Memorize this by thinking: moving the matrix to the other side of the scalar product one has to replace the matrix A by A' , i.e. one has to add the conjugation and transposition to the matrix (in this way one thinks more symmetrically of this fact).

4. Given a general vector $x \in C^n$ (or for simplicity just in R^n) and another vector $y \in R^n$, describe (experimentally) that the orthogonal projection of y onto the one-dimensional subspace generated by x is given by

$$P_x(y) := \frac{\langle y, x \rangle}{\langle x, x \rangle} x = \langle y, \frac{x}{\|x\|} \rangle \frac{x}{\|x\|} = \langle y, x_1 \rangle x_1,$$

were $x_1 = x/\|x\|$ is just the *normalized* version of the vector x . Hence the orthogonal projection can be written as $y \mapsto y * x_1' * x$, or in other words, the $n \times n$ -matrix `x1 * x1'` (or equivalently `x*x'/x'*x` (!!!)) describes the orthogonal projection (as a mapping from R^n into R^n).

5. We know that this is giving us the best approximation of y by scalar multiples of x and that the reminder, i.e. $y - P_x(y)$ should be orthogonal to y (hence to all the other vectors in the 1D-space of scalar multiples of x). We can test that also experimentally. For simplicity I suggest to work directly with x_1 , i.e. to do the computation with normalized vectors. Recall the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, which says that the scalar product is never larger than the product of norms:

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|.$$

6. Take two vectors in $u, v \in R^7$ of norm 1. Find out for which value $\lambda \in [-1, 1]$ the distance between v and λu is minimal (it should be for $\lambda = \langle v, u \rangle$).

```
>> LAM = -1 : 0.001 : 1; % possible range of values, in steps of h = 0.01;
>> for jj = 1 : length(LAM); dd(jj) = norm( v - u*LAM(jj)); end;
>> plot(LAM,dd);
>> [mindd, ndmin] = min(dd) %determining minimal value and index of minimal value
>> norm(v- u*u'*v)
>> norm(v- u*u'*v) - mindd
>> hold on; plot(LAM(ndmin),mindd,'r*'); hold off;
>> grid; title('distance of v to lam * v ');
>> gtext(['minimal distance at ' num2str(LAM(ndmin))]); % drop near red cross!
```

7. As time permits: check (by some random experiment) that for a random orthogonal matrix (e.g. $U = \text{orth}(\text{rand}(6,4))$) the projection onto the linear span by the 4 column vectors (which in fact equals the 6×6 -matrix $U * U$) is the same as the sum of the rank one projections on each of the columns of U .
8. Given some collection of vectors in C^m , say 4 column vectors in C^6 , or equivalently a complex 6×4 -matrix (call it V). Form another collection of 7 vectors, which are random linear combinations of those 4 column vectors. You can do this by multiplying V *from the right* with some random matrix U (4×7)

$$H = V * U.$$

Then (most likely) these new 7 vectors (the columns of H) span the same 4-dimensional space in C^6 as the original 4 columns of U . How can you verify this? ONE concrete way would be to calculate the projection onto the linear span of the corresponding vectors? (HINT: two families of vectors of equal length span the **same** linear subspace if and only if their projection operators onto their linear span are equal. Recall that one natural way to obtain the projection onto the column-space of H (for example) is best obtained by applying the Gram-Schmidt procedure ($OH = \text{orth}(H)$) to H and then build $PH = OH * OH'$. Recall that we have

$$PH * PH = OH * (OH' * OH) * OH = OH * Id * OH' = PH \quad \text{due to orthogonality, and} \quad PH = PH'.$$

Even if the orthonormal basis (here OH) is different, the projection is claimed to be the same, and of course the number of members in the orthonormal system is always the same, namely the dimension of the space generated by the ON system.

9. Verify on an arbitrary complex, rectangular matrix that the following two spaces are pairwise orthogonal: the null-space of A' and the range space or column space of A (and by the same reasoning the null-space of A and the column-space of A' , usually referred to as the *row-space* of A are orthogonal complements to each other!

EXTRA comment: Therefore in both cases their dimensions add up to n and m respectively. This explains the well-known dimension formula:

$$\text{defect}(A) + \text{rank}(A) = n$$

which is best seen via Gauss Elimination again: There are $r = \text{rank}(A)$ Pivot elements, and $n - r$ free variables, determining the dimension of the nullspace of A . The MATLAB command `null(A)`; provides an orthonormal basis for that null space = $\{x | A * x = 0\}$ directly.

10. Polynomials: Recall the "CONV" command of MATLAB, corresponding to forming the **Cauchy-product** of two polynomials (described by the sequence of coefficients, starting from the highest, non-zero, exponent), and generate **Pascal's triangle**, or equivalently the sequence of binomial coefficients!
11. In order to verify that the central limit theorem is valid try to following. Start with a general discrete probability measure over the integers. This is just an abstract way of saying: choose any finite sequence of non-negative numbers, adding up to one. This could be the sequence $[1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0]/6$, describing the probability of obtaining one of the numbers 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 (in decreasing order!, in order to match the conventions of MATLAB about polynomials and powers), and do the following

```
p = rand(1,7); p = p/sum(p); sum(p)
q = p; for jj = 1 : 25 q = conv(q,p); stem(q); pause(2); end;
```

Some comments about basic properties of MATLAB programming

1. Generating RANDOM MATRICES

```
A = rand(5,3); disp(A);
```

generates a random matrix, with entries drawn with equal probability from the interval $[0,1]$.

2. x

3. FOR LOOPS:

```
fak=1; for kk=1:10; fak = fak*kk; end; disp(['10 factorial: ' num2str(fak)]);
```

Here `[...]` groups partial strings together, while `numstr` converts a variable into its actual value, displayed as a string;

4. WHILE LOOPS:

```
x=rand(1);jj=1;while abs( x - cos(x)) > 0.001; jj=jj+1; x = cos(x); end; disp(jj);
```

Here we determine how many iterations one has to do in order to find out the fix point of the function $\cos(x)$. The actual value can also be determined by plotting the function $\cos(x)$ over the interval $[0, \pi/2]$, and see where it intersects the line given by $y = x$!).

5. SORTING:

```
h = rand(1,7), hs = sort(h,'descend'), [hsort, nds] = sort(h), nds(length(h))
```

shows the following: With a single output the sorting routine sorts the given sequence of real numbers in increasing order (by default); in order to obtain the sequence of indexes (coordinate number) of the sorted elements within the original sequence; hence `nds(7)` gives the coordinate in which the maximum occurred, while `nds(1)` would be the index at which the minimum of the sequence occurs in the original sequence. Of course, by the randomness of the sequence h one has created a random index sequence (permutation) nds in such a way;

6. IF STATEMENTS:

```
tic; s = 0; for jj = 1:1000; r=rand; if (r > 0.3)*(r < 0.5);s=s+1;end;end; s, toc;
```

verifies for each of 1000 random numbers whether it is simultaneously true that it is larger than 0.3 and smaller than 0.5. Since this is an interval of length $1/5$ one would expect ca. 20% of the points, so approx. 200 of them in this interval; much faster is however (`tic` and `toc` stop the time!)

```
tic; rr = rand(1,1000); s1 = sum((rr > 0.3).*(rr < 0.5)), toc;
```

Recalling basic facts from LINEAR ALGEBRA

- A vector space is a set endowed with some ADDITION and SCALAR MULTIPLICATION (typically from the field of either real or complex numbers), with corresponding rules (such as the distributive rule, etc. (.. just like in $\mathbf{R}^3$)!); Hence (by induction) for any finite sequence of its elements $(v_k)_{k=1}^K$ and a corresponding sequence of scalars $(c_k)_{k=1}^l$ one can form the LINEAR COMBINATION $\sum_{k=1}^l c_k v_k$. Note that the pairing of c_k with v_k is important, not the order of summation.
- The most important examples of the spaces $\mathbf{R}^n$, $\mathbf{C}^k$ (of real resp. complex vectors, be it row or column vectors); the space of Polynomials of a fixed degree r , to be written as $\mathcal{P}_r(\mathbf{R})$, or all the Polynomials (of arbitrary degree), denoted here by $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{R})$.
- Given any set of so-called vectors (elements of a vector space) the smallest linear subspace (itself a vector space) is the set of all possible linear combinations of the given vectors. If those vectors are linear independent
- Using matrices one can easily check whether the columns of a given matrix $\mathbf{A}$ of size $m \times n$ are spanning all of $\mathbf{R}^m$ (resp. $\mathbf{C}^m$), namely iff and only if $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) == m$ holds, resp. when those columns are linear independent (if and only if $\min(\text{size}(\text{null}(\mathbf{A}))) == 0$, i.e. if the number of column vectors spanning the null-space of $\mathbf{A}$ is ZERO. Obviously a set is a BASIS if and only if EVERY vector can be represented in a UNIQUE way as a linear combination of its vectors (one also calls such a set a “coordinate system”). It is easy to remember that the columns of a *square* matrix $\mathbf{A}$ form a basis for $\mathbf{C}^m$ if and only if $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$ resp. if and only if $\mathbf{A}$ is invertible (then $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \text{inv}(\mathbf{A})$ in MATLAB can be calculated. Equivalently, Gauss elimination leads to the unit matrix `eye(m)`).
- Expressed in MATLAB language (or in any software package allowing for matrix-vector multiplication) the inhomogeneous linear system $Ax = b$ is solvable if and only if $\mathbf{b}$ is in the range of $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{A} * \mathbf{x}$, resp. if and only if $\mathbf{b}$ is in the column space of $\mathbf{A}$.
- A mapping T from $\mathbf{R}^n$ into $\mathbf{R}^m$ is called *LINEAR* if and only if it respects linear combinations. For practical purposes it is enough to check the compatibility with addition and scalar multiplication, i.e. to verify that $T(v + w) = T(v) + T(w)$ and that $T(c \cdot w) = c \cdot T(w)$ holds true, for any two elements $v, w \in \mathbf{R}^n$ and $c \in \mathbf{R}$.
- The connection between the theory of finite dimensional vector spaces (those which *have a finite basis*) and matrix calculus is the following FUNDAMENTAL (deep, although elementary) fact: The linear mappings from $\mathbf{R}^n$ to $\mathbf{R}^m$ (resp. two, possibly different, finite dimensional spaces) are given by matrix multiplication with some (uniquely determined) matrix $\mathbf{A}$, i.e. $T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A} * \mathbf{x}$. In the general setting one has to say: the COORDINATES of $T(\mathbf{x})$ with respect to the basis prevalent in the target spaces can be obtained from the coefficients of the element $\mathbf{x}$ in the domain of T by applying matrix multiplication with such an $\mathbf{A}$! The columns of this matrix are exactly the images of the unit vectors under T . And how can we find the matrix $\mathbf{A}$ if T is given, in the general situation? The RECIPE is: just map each of the n basis elements of the domain space over, by applying T to it, that will give you n vectors in the target space, and then expand those image vectors into the basis system over there (this gives you m numbers, for each of them), to be written as entries of the corresponding column of A .

WORKSHEET 3. (Jan. 23rd, 2008, HGFei, MATLAB Course)

Maybe better to be given as project work (work in progress, upload expected Tuesday, 22nd, 5:30 p.m.)

Recall (from the third course), that we have FOUR SPACES associated with each matrix, the null-space $\text{NULL}(A)$ of A resp. that of A' , which we will denote by $\text{NULL}(A')$. These are the solution sets of homogeneous linear equations described by the matrices A and A' respectively. The first sits inside of $\mathbf{R}^n$, the second inside of $\mathbf{R}^m$. Of course each of them got it's orthogonal complement within its ambient space. What is remarkable is, that these are just the row-spaces of A (we write $V1: \text{COL}(A')$ because this is "more correct", and $V2: \text{COL}(A)$, the column space of A .)

Without explaining the background of how they are computed etc. let us just recall that they are of equal dimension, and that in principle the combination of Gauss elimination with the Gram-Schmidt procedure would allow us to obtain an orthonormal basis for these two spaces. Fortunately MATLAB provides us with a faster (easier and more efficient) way to obtain such (non-unique) ONBs, just call $O1 = \text{orth}(A')$ or $O2 = \text{orth}(A)$ to obtain them. The rank-property mentioned above of course implies that they have an equal number of columns (namely $rA = \text{rank}(A)$).

Having now two orthonormal bases for $V1$ and $V2$ we can describe the orthonormal projections onto those spaces! $P1 = O1 * O1'$ and $P2 = O2 * O2'$.

1. Generate a random 5×5 matrix of rank 3 (say), e.g. $A = \text{rand}(5,3) * \text{rand}(3,5)$. Hence we know that it will not be invertible. The claim is, that nevertheless the matrix can be viewed as a mapping between the three-dimensional row space of A (better: the three-dim. column space of A') and the column space of A (which has the same dimension, since $\text{column-rank}(A) = \text{row-rank}(A)$, and is then called the rank of A). Check by setting $rA = \text{rank}(A)$.

First let us generate two bases for $\text{COL}(A')$ and $\text{COL}(A)$, the two spaces (of equal dimension!) in discussion. Since Gauss Elimination gives us a basis for the row space we can use the following (don't get confused about rows and columns here): $\text{rref}(A')$; $\text{BASCOL} = \text{ans}(:, 1:rA)$; gives us a basis for the column space (again transformed back into column format!) and $\text{rref}(A)$; $\text{BASROW} = \text{ans}(1:rA, :)$ gives us a basis for the row space of A , we should say column space of A' .

Let us now verify (experimentally) what linear algebra tells us: If we restrict the mapping $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow A * \mathbf{x}$ to the row space of A then it is simply a bijection, i.e. it can be inverted. In other words, whatever element of the column space you start with, e.g. $\mathbf{b} = A * \text{rand}(n, 1)$, one can find a (unique) linear combination $\mathbf{u}$ of elements from that row space such that $A * \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$!

How can we go about this? Well, any $\mathbf{u}$ is to be written (uniquely, because the columns of BASROW are a basis! for this space) as $\text{BASROW} * \mathbf{c}$, for a set of coefficients $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbf{R}^{rA}$. Hence we are looking for a solution of

$$A * \mathbf{u} = A * (\text{BASROW} * \mathbf{c}) = (A * \text{BASROW}) * \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b},$$

which can be obtained by applying Gauss elimination to the extended inhomogeneous system $AEXT = [A * \text{BASROW}, \mathbf{b}]$, or in other words the last row of $\text{rref}(AEXT)$ should contain that answer!

Try also to call $ccpinv = \text{pinv}(A) * \mathbf{b}$ to see that it is exactly this solution that you get!

The interesting thing with this second way of obtaining it (aside from this being more suitable) is that it also works for an arbitrary right hand side (while the Gauss elimination will certainly do the job if and only if $\mathbf{b}$ is in the column space of A)! What it does, is to solve the above system, but - if necessary - with $\mathbf{b}$ being replaced by the ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION of whatever $\mathbf{b}$ is onto the column space of A . Hence one could explain what PINV does by saying: Take any $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^m$. First project it onto the column space of A , e.g. by applying explicitly the orthogonal projection to $\mathbf{b}$, i.e. to $O A = \text{orth}(A)$; $\text{bproj} = O A * O A' * \mathbf{b}$; , and then continue (with bproj instead of $\mathbf{b}$ in the above procedure).

Table of content for Lesson Nr. 2 (Jan. 15th, 2008)

1. MATLAB and Polynomials (quote: `help polyval`), allows to evaluate a polynomial with possibly complex coefficients `a` at a sequence of points on the real line or also the complex plane (if matrices are inserted one should use `polyvalm`).

Recall that any polynomial over the complex can be split in linear factors, i.e. is a product of factors of the form $(z - z_i)$. When the polynomial is symmetric, then those complex numbers are either real or come in pairs of complex conjugate numbers. ·

By the command `roots(a)` those linear factors, resp. the zeros (counted with multiplicity) are numerically evaluated resp. presented.

Also the usual convention of writing integers, say 123 for $1 \cdot 10^2 + 2 \cdot 10^1 + 3 \cdot 10^0$ is in accordance with this MATLAB rule. Hence one can multiple “arbitrary long integers” using the `CONV` command, if only the out put is recast in standard format (a nice little exercise to do so, assume you get the output `[2 34 23 45]` you have to start from the end: $45 = 5 + 4 \cdot 10$, but $23 + 4 = 27$ in turn 10 equals $70 + 10 + 200$ etc. etc. ...)

2. MATLAB does not have a specific call for scalar products, because the scalar product of two column vectors x, y is simply calculated by the command `y' * x`, while it is just `u * v'` if you have row vectors $u, v \in C^n$. Correspondingly, for each collection A of n column vectors in C^m the collection of all scalar product (the so-called **Gramian matrix**) is obtained as $A' \times A$ (it contains exactly n^2 entries).

Note that one can define a family of vectors to be an orthonormal system if and only if `A' * A == eye(m)`

3. Recall that a length of a vector can be calculated from its coordinates with respect to *any* orthonormal basis (resp. orthonormal system with the correct number of vectors = $\dim(A)$).
4. TO BE CONTINUED IN A FEW DAYS!
5. LATEX code is also available for this course
6. diary of the course meeting is provided (soon).
7. TEST `cumprod(1:171)`

TEST ASSIGNMENTS

UNDER CONSTRUCTION! HGFEI

1. Given a finite sequence $\mathbf{c}$ describing a polynomial $p(x) \in \mathcal{P}_r(\mathbf{R})$, it can be split into linear factors of the form $\prod_{k=1}^r (x - \lambda_k)$, where the sequence $(\lambda_k)_{k=1}^r$ is the sequence of `ROOTS` of that polynomial. Those complex numbers can be easily obtained numerically (they are complex numbers in general, even if the polynomial is real) by the command `rts = roots(c);`.

Verify (experimentally) that this is a true statement, i.e. choose a sequence of (say 4) random points in $[0, 1]$ and verify (using the `polyval`-command) that $p(x)$ in effect equals (up to numerical precision) such a product.

2. Fabricate a so-called LAGRANGE interpolating polynomial, i.e. given a number of points (for simplicity on the real axis), say $(\lambda_k)_{k=1}^K$, for some $K > 3$ (to make it interesting). Determine a polynomial $L_3(x)$ of degree K such that $L_3(\lambda_3) = 1$ while at the same time $L_3(\lambda_k) = 0$ for an $k \neq 3$. Plot the result!
3. .
4. .
5. .
6. .