

**GIAN Course on Solving Linear Systems and
Computing Generalized Inverses Using Recurrent
Neural Networks
June 09-19, 2025, IIT Indore,
(Tutorial)**

June 13, 2025

Electrical Circuit Leading to Linear System

In **Example 1.2.6**, an electrical circuit results in the system:

$$Ax = b,$$

where:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 11 & -1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 10 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 25 \\ -11 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

Goal: Find voltages at the nodes, i.e., entries of x .

Accurate MATLAB Solution

We can compute the exact solution in MATLAB as:

```
A = [10 -1 2 0; -1 11 -1 3; 2 -1 10 -1; 0 3 -1 8];  
b = [6; 25; -11; 15];  
x = A \ b
```

Output:

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

This solution is extremely accurate when using MATLAB or any reliable solver.

Theorem 2.3.9 – Sensitivity of Linear Systems

Suppose A is nonsingular. Then small changes in A and b cause:

$$\frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \kappa(A) \left(\frac{\|\delta A\|}{\|A\|} + \frac{\|\delta b\|}{\|b\|} \right)$$

Interpretation:

- $\kappa(A) = \|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\|$: Condition number
- If $\kappa(A)$ is large, solution is sensitive to perturbations
- Errors in resistors/battery $\rightarrow$ errors in A , b

Applying Theorem 2.3.9

Assume:

- Relative errors: $\|\delta A\|/\|A\|, \|\delta b\|/\|b\| < 10^{-4}$
- Condition number $\kappa(A) \approx 2500$

Then:

$$\frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|x\|} < 2500 \cdot (10^{-4} + 10^{-4}) = 0.5\%$$

Conclusion: The computed solution deviates from the true value by at most 0.5

MATLAB: Simulating Perturbations

```
% Original system
```

```
A = [10 -1 2 0; -1 11 -1 3; 2 -1 10 -1; 0 3 -1 8];
```

```
b = [6; 25; -11; 15];
```

```
x = A \ b;
```

```
% Perturbation
```

```
dA = 1e-4 * randn(4);
```

```
db = 1e-4 * randn(4,1);
```

```
% Perturbed solution
```

```
x_perturbed = (A + dA) \ (b + db);
```

```
% Relative error
```

```
rel_error = norm(x - x_perturbed) / norm(x)
```

Expected 'rel_error 0.003' (or less than 0.5% as predicted).

Conclusion

- Even small errors in system parameters can affect solution
- MATLAB shows actual error is often *much less* than the bound

Function File: solve_LU.m

```
function x = solve_LU(A, b)
    % Solve Ax = b using LU decomposition (no pivoting)

    [L, U] = lu(A);

    n = length(b);
    z = zeros(n, 1);
    for i = 1:n
        z(i) = b(i) - L(i,1:i-1)*z(1:i-1);
    end

    x = zeros(n, 1);
    for i = n:-1:1
        x(i) = (z(i) - U(i,i+1:n)*x(i+1:n)) / U(i,i);
    end
end
```


Calling the Function

```
% Define input
A = [2, -1, 1; 3, 3, 9; 3, 3, 5];
b = [2; -1; 4];

% Call the function
x = solve_LU(A, b);

% Display result
disp('Solution x:');
disp(x);
```

Function File: solve_LU_pivot.m

```
function x = solve_LU_pivot(A, b)
    [L, U, P] = lu(A); % A = P'*L*U
    Pb = P * b;

    n = length(b);
    z = zeros(n, 1);
    for i = 1:n
        z(i) = Pb(i) - L(i,1:i-1)*z(1:i-1);
    end

    x = zeros(n, 1);
    for i = n:-1:1
        x(i) = (z(i) - U(i,i+1:n)*x(i+1:n))/ U(i,i);
    end
end
```

Calling the Function

```
% Example usage
A = [2, -1, 1; 3, 3, 9; 3, 3, 5];
b = [2; -1; 4];

x = solve_LU_pivot(A, b);

disp('Solution x:');
disp(x);
```

Example: LU Solver with Flop Count

```
function [x, flop_count] = solve_LU_flops(A, b)
    % LU decomposition with partial pivoting + flop count

    flop_count = 0;
    [L, U, P] = lu(A); % Pivoting cost is negligible
    Pb = P * b;

    n = length(b);
    z = zeros(n, 1);
    for i = 1:n
        temp = 0;
        for j = 1:i-1
            temp = temp + L(i,j) * z(j);
            flop_count = flop_count + 2; % mul + add
        end

        z(i) = Pb(i) - temp;
        flop_count = flop_count + 1; % subtraction
    end
end
```

Using the Flop Counter Function

```
% Define system
A = [2, -1, 1; 3, 3, 9; 3, 3, 5];
b = [2; -1; 4];

% Call LU solver with flop counting
[x, flops] = solve_LU_flops(A, b);

disp('Solution:');
disp(x);
fprintf('Total_flops: %d\n', flops);
```

Solving $H_n x = b$ with Hilbert Matrix

Let $z = \text{ones}(n, 1)$, and $b = H_n z$, where H_n is the $n \times n$ Hilbert matrix. In theory, solving $H_n x = b$ should return $x = z$. Let's test this numerically:

```
for n = [4 8 12 16]
    H = hilb(n);
    z = ones(n,1);
    b = H * z;
    x = H \ b;
    kappa = cond(H);
    error = norm(x - z);
    residual = norm(b - H*x);

    fprintf('n=%d\n', n);
    fprintf('Condition_number: %.2e\n', kappa);
    fprintf('||x-z||_2: %.2e\n', error);
    fprintf('||b-Hx||_2: %.2e\n\n', residual);
end
```

Example 2.7.15: LU Decomposition of a Hilbert Matrix

Objective: Test the accuracy and stability of LU decomposition on the 12×12 Hilbert matrix.

MATLAB Code:

```
A = hilb(12);  
[L, U] = lu(A);  
E = L * U - A;  
  
normE = norm(E);  
normA = norm(A);  
rel_error = normE / normA;
```

Output:

$$\|LU - A\|/\|A\| \approx 2.7 \times 10^{-17}$$

Conclusion: The LU decomposition is extremely accurate despite the ill-conditioning.

(a) Set up the Overdetermined System

We are fitting a straight line

$$p(t) = x_1 + x_2 t$$

to five data points (t_i, b_i) , with basis functions:

$$\phi_1(t) = 1, \quad \phi_2(t) = t$$

This leads to the overdetermined system:

$$Ax = b, \quad \text{where } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t_1 \\ 1 & t_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) MATLAB Code for Least Squares Solution

MATLAB Code

```
t = (1:0.5:3)';           % t values
b = [2.2; 2.8; 3.6; 4.5; 5.1]; % example data
A = [ones(size(t)), t];

x = A \ b; % Least squares solution
```

(b) MATLAB Code for Least Squares Solution

MATLAB Code

```
t = (1:0.5:3)';           % t values
b = [2.2; 2.8; 3.6; 4.5; 5.1]; % example data
A = [ones(size(t)), t];

x = A \ b; % Least squares solution
```

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{5 \times 2}$, overdetermined
- MATLAB's backslash operator (`\`) automatically computes least squares solution when A is not square

(c) Plotting the Data and Least Squares Fit

MATLAB Plotting Code:

```
plot(t, b, 'ro', 'MarkerSize', 8); hold on;
t_fit = linspace(min(t), max(t), 100);
p_fit = x(1) + x(2) * t_fit;
plot(t_fit, p_fit, 'b-', 'LineWidth', 2);
xlabel('t'); ylabel('b');
legend('Data_Points', 'Least_Squares_Line');
title('Least_Squares_Fit_of_Straight_Line');
grid on;
```

(c) Plotting the Data and Least Squares Fit

MATLAB Plotting Code:

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plot(t, b, 'ro', 'MarkerSize', 8); hold on;
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xlabel('t'); ylabel('b');
legend('Data_Points', 'Least_Squares_Line');
title('Least_Squares_Fit_of_Straight_Line');
grid on;
```

- Red circles: observed data
- Blue line: best fit line $p(t) = x_1 + x_2 t$

(d) Compute the Residual Norm

Residual vector: $r = b - Ax$

MATLAB Code:

```
r = b - A*x;  
residual_norm = norm(r, 2);  
disp(['Residual_norm: ', num2str(residual_norm)]);
```

(d) Compute the Residual Norm

Residual vector: $r = b - Ax$

MATLAB Code:

```
r = b - A*x;  
residual_norm = norm(r, 2);  
disp(['Residual_norm: ', num2str(residual_norm)]);
```

Interpretation:

- $\|r\|_2$ measures how well the line fits the data
- A small residual norm implies a good fit

Summary

- Constructed an overdetermined system using basis $\phi_1(t) = 1$, $\phi_2(t) = t$
- Solved it in MATLAB using 'A b' to obtain least squares solution
- Visualized the fit using the 'plot' command
- Computed the 2-norm of the residual to assess accuracy

(a) Gram-Schmidt Process

Let

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \\ 3 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

We apply the **Gram-Schmidt process** to obtain an orthonormal basis $\{q_1, q_2\}$:

$$q_1 = \frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \\ 3 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Project v_2 onto q_1 :

$$r_{12} = q_1^T v_2 = \frac{1}{6}(3 - 6 + 9 - 12) = -1$$

$$u_2 = v_2 - r_{12}q_1 = v_2 + q_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \\ 3 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{9}{6} \\ \frac{9}{6} \\ \frac{21}{6} \\ \frac{21}{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$q_2 = \frac{u_2}{\|u_2\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{7}{2} \\ \frac{7}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Save coefficients: $r_{11} = \|v_1\| = 6$, $r_{12} = -1$, $r_{22} = \|u_2\| = \sqrt{18}$

(b) Constructing Q and R

From part (a):

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \cdot \frac{7}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \cdot \frac{7}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 \\ 0 & \sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \end{bmatrix} = QR$$

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$$V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \end{bmatrix} = QR$$

Conclusion: We expressed $V \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 2}$ as a product of:

- $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 2}$: orthonormal columns
- $R \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$: upper triangular

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We apply the **Gram-Schmidt process** to get an orthonormal basis $\{q_1, q_2\}$.

Normalize v_1 :

$$\|v_1\| = \sqrt{3^2 + (-3)^2 + 3^2 + (-3)^2} = \sqrt{36} = 6 \quad \Rightarrow \quad q_1 = \frac{v_1}{6} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ -0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ -0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Project v_2 onto q_1 :

$$r_{12} = q_1^T v_2 = 0.5(1) + (-0.5)(2) + 0.5(3) + (-0.5)(4) = -1$$

$$u_2 = v_2 - r_{12}q_1 = v_2 + q_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 \\ 1.5 \\ 3.5 \\ 3.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Normalize u_2 :

$$\|u_2\| = \sqrt{1.5^2 + 1.5^2 + 3.5^2 + 3.5^2} = \sqrt{36.5} \quad \Rightarrow \quad q_2 = \frac{u_2}{\sqrt{36.5}}$$

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Save coefficients:

$$r_{11} = 6, \quad r_{12} = -1, \quad r_{22} = \sqrt{36.5}$$

(b) Constructing Q and R

From part (a):

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & \frac{1.5}{\sqrt{36.5}} \\ -0.5 & \frac{1.5}{\sqrt{36.5}} \\ 0.5 & \frac{3.5}{\sqrt{36.5}} \\ -0.5 & \frac{3.5}{\sqrt{36.5}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 \\ 0 & \sqrt{36.5} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Then:

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Then:

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \end{bmatrix} = QR$$

Conclusion:

- $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 2}$ has orthonormal columns
- $R \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ is upper triangular

Schur Decomposition

Theorem (Schur Decomposition): Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be a square matrix. Then there exists a unitary matrix $Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and an upper triangular matrix $T \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that:

$$A = QTQ^*$$

where Q^* is the conjugate transpose of Q .

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where Q^* is the conjugate transpose of Q .

Properties:

- The diagonal entries of T are the eigenvalues of A .
- If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then a real Schur decomposition exists:

$$A = QTQ^T$$

with Q orthogonal and T quasi-upper triangular (i.e., 1×1 and 2×2 blocks on the diagonal).

- Always exists for any square matrix.

MATLAB Example: Schur Decomposition

Given a matrix A , compute its Schur decomposition using MATLAB:

MATLAB Code

```
A = randn(4);           % Random 4x4 matrix
[Q, T] = schur(A);       % Schur decomposition
norm(A - Q*T*Q')         % Should be close to zero
eig(A), diag(T)          % Compare eigenvalues
```

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norm(A - Q*T*Q')        % Should be close to zero
eig(A), diag(T)          % Compare eigenvalues
```

Observation:

- Q is unitary (or orthogonal if A is real).
- T has eigenvalues of A on its diagonal.

LU and QR Decomposition

LU Decomposition

- $[L, U] = \text{lu}(A)$ ($A = LU$)
- $[L, U, P] = \text{lu}(A)$ ($A = PLU$)

QR Decomposition

- $[Q, R] = \text{qr}(A)$ ($A = QR$)
- $[Q, R] = \text{qr}(A, 0)$ (Economy QR)
- $[Q, R, P] = \text{qr}(A)$ (Column pivoting: $AP = QR$)

Cholesky and Eigen Decomposition

Cholesky Decomposition

- $R = \text{chol}(A)$ ($A = R^T R$)
- $R = \text{chol}(A, \text{'lower'})}$ ($A = LL^T$)

Eigenvalue Decomposition

- $[V, D] = \text{eig}(A)$ ($A = VDV^{-1}$)

SVD and Schur Decomposition

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

- $[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(A)$ ($A = USV^T$)
- $[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(A, \text{'econ'})$ (Economy SVD)

Schur Decomposition

- $[Q, T] = \text{schur}(A)$ ($A = QTQ^T$)
- $[Q, T] = \text{schur}(A, \text{'real'})$ (Real Schur form)

Other Matrix Decompositions

Hessenberg Decomposition

- $[Q, H] = \text{hess}(A)$ ($A = QHQ^T$)

Jordan Canonical Form

- $[J, P] = \text{jordan}(A)$ ($A = PJP^{-1}$)
- *(Use cautiously due to numerical instability)*

LDL Decomposition (symmetric)

- $[L, D, P] = \text{ldl}(A)$ ($A = P^T LDL^T P$)

Polar Decomposition and Utilities

Polar Decomposition (via SVD)

- $[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(A)$
- $P = V*S*V'$ (positive semidefinite part)
- $U_{\text{polar}} = U*V'$ (orthogonal part)

Rank-Revealing QR

- $[Q, R, E] = \text{qr}(A, \text{'vector'})$ ($A(:, E) = QR$)

Useful Matrix Commands

- $\text{rank}(A)$, $\text{det}(A)$, $\text{norm}(A)$
- $\text{inv}(A)$ (Use with caution)
- $\text{cond}(A)$ (Condition number)

Hilbert Matrix

Definition:

$$H_{ij} = \frac{1}{i+j-1}$$

Properties:

- Symmetric and positive definite
- Ill-conditioned as size increases

MATLAB: `H = hilb(n); cond(H)`

Kahan Matrix

Definition: A Kahan matrix is constructed to study the effects of ill-conditioning. Let $\theta \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$, n the size.

Kahan matrix $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ has:

$$K_{ij} = \begin{cases} \cos^{i-j}(\theta) \sin(\theta), & i \geq j \\ 0, & i < j \end{cases}$$

MATLAB: (Custom construction) `theta = pi/6; n = 5; K = zeros(n); for i = 1:n for j = 1:i
K(i,j) = cos(theta)^(i - j) * sin(theta); endend`

Cauchy Matrix

Definition:

$$C_{ij} = \frac{1}{x_i + y_j} \quad \text{for } x_i + y_j \neq 0$$

Properties:

- Inverses are known explicitly
- Extremely ill-conditioned

MATLAB: `x = 1:5; y = 6:10; C = 1 ./ (x' + y);`

Wilkinson's Matrix

Definition: Symmetric tridiagonal matrix with 1 on the sub- and super-diagonals, and descending integers on the diagonal:

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} n & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & n-1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & n-2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Used to:

ragileTest eigenvalue algorithmsragilelllustrate sensitivity of eigenvalues

MATLAB: `n = 5; W = diag(n:-1:1) + diag(ones(n-1,1),1) + diag(ones(n-1,1),-1);`

MATLAB Code: Infinite Least Squares Solutions

```
% Rank-deficient matrix A and vector b
A = [1 2 3 4; 2 4 6 8; 3 6 9 12]; % rank 2
b = [1; 2; 3];

% QR decomposition with column pivoting
[Q, R, P] = qr(A, 'vector');

% Determine rank numerically
tol = max(size(A)) * eps(norm(R, 'fro'));
r = sum(abs(diag(R)) > tol);

% Solve  $R_1 * y_1 = Q^T * b$  (first r components)
R1 = R(1:r, 1:r);
Qt_b = Q' * b;
b1 = Qt_b(1:r);
y1 = R1 \ b1;
```

```
x = zeros(size(A,2), 1); x(P) = y;  
disp('Minimum-norm solution:'); disp(x);
```

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MATLAB Commands for Matrix Computations

Basic Matrix Operations in MATLAB

Operation	MATLAB Command
Create matrix	<code>A = [1 2; 3 4]</code>
Identity matrix	<code>eye(n)</code>
Zero matrix	<code>zeros(n, m)</code>
Ones matrix	<code>ones(n, m)</code>
Transpose	<code>A'</code>
Inverse	<code>inv(A)</code>
Matrix multiplication	<code>C = A * B</code>
Element-wise multiplication	<code>C = A .* B</code>

Matrix Decompositions in MATLAB

Decomposition	Command
LU decomposition	<code>[L, U, P] = lu(A)</code>
QR decomposition	<code>[Q, R] = qr(A)</code>
Cholesky decomposition	<code>R = chol(A)</code>
SVD	<code>[U, S, V] = svd(A)</code>
Eigendecomposition	<code>[V, D] = eig(A)</code>

Generating Special Matrices

Matrix	MATLAB Command
Hilbert matrix	<code>hilb(n)</code>
Kahan matrix	<code>kahan(n)</code> (<i>user-defined or from toolbox</i>)
Cauchy matrix	<code>gallery('cauchy', x, y)</code>
Wilkinson matrix	<code>gallery('wilkinson', n)</code>
Random matrix	<code>rand(n, m)</code>

Pseudoinverse and Least Squares

Task	MATLAB Command
Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse	<code>pinv(A)</code>
Least squares solution	<code>x = A \ b</code>
Check rank	<code>rank(A)</code>
Compute norm	<code>norm(A)</code>
Condition number	<code>cond(A)</code>

Basic Matrix Operations in MATLAB

Operation	MATLAB Command
Create matrix	<code>A = [1 2; 3 4]</code>
Identity matrix	<code>eye(n)</code>
Zero matrix	<code>zeros(n, m)</code>
Ones matrix	<code>ones(n, m)</code>
Transpose	<code>A'</code>
Inverse	<code>inv(A)</code>
Matrix multiplication	<code>C = A * B</code>
Element-wise multiplication	<code>C = A .* B</code>

Matrix Decompositions in MATLAB

Decomposition	Command
LU decomposition	$[L, U, P] = \text{lu}(A)$
QR decomposition	$[Q, R] = \text{qr}(A)$
Cholesky decomposition	$R = \text{chol}(A)$
SVD	$[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(A)$
Eigendecomposition	$[V, D] = \text{eig}(A)$

Generating Special Matrices

Matrix	MATLAB Command
Hilbert matrix	<code>hilb(n)</code>
Kahan matrix	<code>kahan(n)</code> (<i>user-defined or from toolbox</i>)
Cauchy matrix	<code>gallery('cauchy', x, y)</code>
Wilkinson matrix	<code>gallery('wilkinson', n)</code>
Random matrix	<code>rand(n, m)</code>

Pseudoinverse and Least Squares

Task	MATLAB Command
Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse	<code>pinv(A)</code>
Least squares solution	<code>x = A \ b</code>
Check rank	<code>rank(A)</code>
Compute norm	<code>norm(A)</code>
Condition number	<code>cond(A)</code>

Computing Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Operation	MATLAB Command
Eigenvalues only	<code>eig(A)</code>
Eigenvalues and eigenvectors	<code>[V, D] = eig(A)</code>
Diagonal matrix D	Contains eigenvalues on the diagonal
Matrix V	Columns are eigenvectors of A

Example: Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Code

```
A = [2 1; 1 2]; [V, D] = eig(A)
```

- Output D : Diagonal matrix with eigenvalues.
- Output V : Columns are corresponding eigenvectors.

Plotting Eigenvalues in the Complex Plane

```
A = randn(5); e = eig(A); plot(real(e), imag(e), 'ro') xlabel('Real Part'); ylabel('Imaginary Part'); title('Eigenvalue Plot in Complex Plane'); grid on;
```

Other Useful Plotting Tools

Purpose	MATLAB Command
Histogram of eigenvalues	<code>hist(real(e))</code>
3D plot	<code>plot3(x, y, z)</code>
Surface plot	<code>surf(A)</code>
Matrix image	<code>imagesc(A)</code>

Tips for Eigenvalue Visualization

- Use `axis equal` to maintain aspect ratio.
- Use `grid on` for better clarity.
- Use `hold on` to overlay plots.
- Use different markers/colors for multiple sets.

Eigenvalues of the Hilbert Matrix

```
n = 10; H = hilb(n); e = eig(H); plot(real(e), imag(e), 'bo') xlabel('Real Part')  
ylabel('Imaginary Part') title(['Eigenvalues of Hilbert Matrix H(', num2str(n), ')']) grid on axis  
equal
```

- Hilbert matrices are symmetric and positive definite.
- Eigenvalues are real and decay rapidly.
- Plot confirms all eigenvalues lie on the real axis.

Eigenvalues of the Wilkinson Matrix

```
n = 21; W = gallery('wilkinson', n); e = eig(W); plot(real(e), imag(e), 'ro') xlabel('Real  
Part') ylabel('Imaginary Part') title(['Eigenvalues of Wilkinson Matrix W(', num2str(n), ')'])  
grid on axis equal
```

- Wilkinson matrices are symmetric and tridiagonal.
- Eigenvalues are all real and nearly equal in magnitude.
- Used for studying eigenvalue sensitivity and clustering.

Thank You