

\* Matrix norms:

We can view an  $m \times n$  matrix as a vector of length  $mn$ , then use one of the vector norms.

Def: The Frobenius (Hilbert-~~Sack~~ Schmidt) norm of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is defined as

$$\|A\|_F = \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left( \sum_{j=1}^n \|\vec{a}_j\|_2^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\text{tr}(A^T A)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\text{tr}(A A^T)}$$

Def: For  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\text{tr}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{\min(m,n)} x_{ii}$  is called the trace of  $X$

However, there exist different types of matrix norms called induced matrix norms (often called operator norms), which are defined in terms of the behavior of a matrix as an operator between its normed domain and range space.

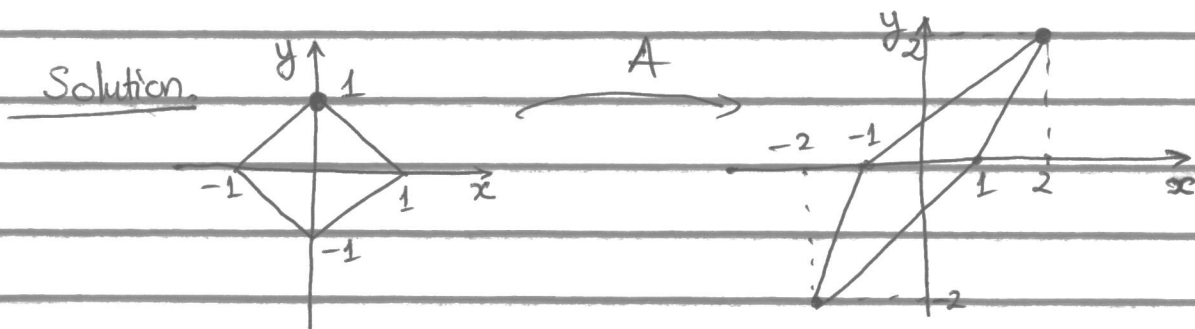
Def: Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . Then the induced matrix operator norm is defined as

$$\|A\|_p := \sup_{\vec{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|_p}{\|\vec{x}\|_p} = \sup_{\|\vec{x}\|_p = 1} \|A\vec{x}\|_p$$

In other words,  $\|A\|_p$  is the smallest constant  $C$  satisfying  $\|A\vec{x}\|_p \leq C \|\vec{x}\|_p \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Example: Consider  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

Compute  $\|A\|_1$ ,  $\|A\|_2$ ,  $\|A\|_\infty$ .



$$\text{Hence, } \|A\|_1 = \sup_{\|\vec{x}\|_1=1} \|A\vec{x}\|_1 = |2| + |2| = 4$$

$$= |2| + |2|$$

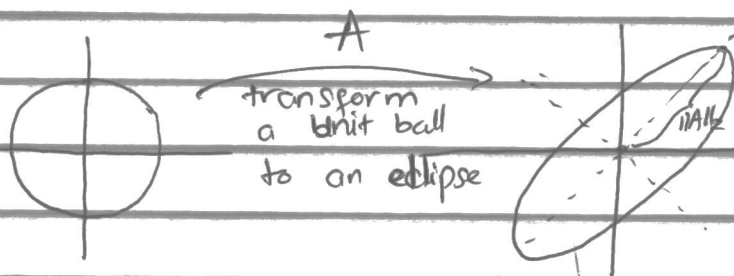
~~In general~~ achieved for  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  or  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

How about  $\|A\|_2$ ?

We will show later that

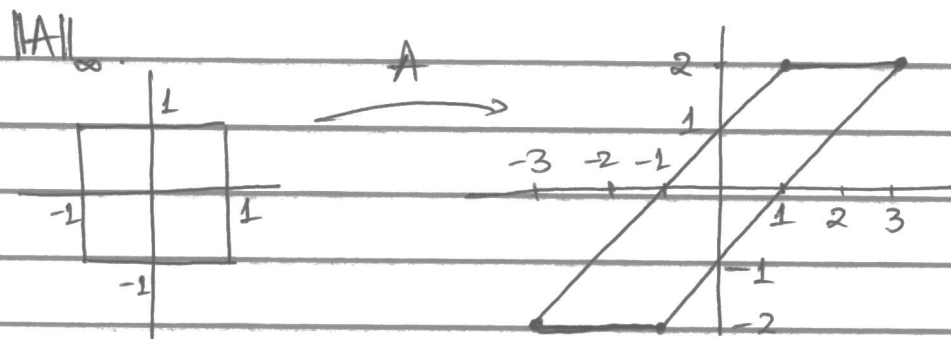
$$\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)}$$

↳ the largest eigenvalue of  $A^T A$



In this example,  $\|A\|_2 \approx 2.9208$

= the length of the major semi axis of the ellipse.



→  $\|A\|_\infty = 3$  achieved at  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  or  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

\* The  $p$ -norm of a diagonal matrix.

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & 0 \\ & d_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & d_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Then,  $D$  maps the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (denoted by  $S^{n-1}$ ) to a hyperellipsoid whose semiaxes are  $|d_1|, \dots, |d_n|$ .

$$\text{So, } \|D\|_2 = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |d_i|.$$

In general,  $\|D\|_p = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |d_i| \quad \forall p \geq 1$ .

\* The 1-norm of a matrix.

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$\|A\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \|\vec{a}_j\|_1$$

i.e., max of 1-norm of column vectors.

Pf: For  $\vec{x} \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\|A\vec{x}\|_1 = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \vec{a}_i \right\|_1$$

$$\text{triangle ineq} \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \|\vec{a}_i\|_1$$

$$\leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \right) \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \|\vec{a}_i\|_1$$

$$\leq \|\vec{x}\|_1 \cdot \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \|\vec{a}_i\|_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|_1}{\|\vec{x}\|_1} \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \|\vec{a}_i\|_1$$

Now can this bound be attained at some  $\vec{x}$ ?

- Ans: Yes!

Take the  $(k)$ th column whose has largest 1-norm:  $\|\vec{a}_k\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \|\vec{a}_j\|_1$

And set  $\vec{x} = \vec{e}_k \Rightarrow$  the  $k$ th vector in the standard basis.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|A\vec{e}_k\|_1}{\|\vec{e}_k\|_1} = \frac{\|\vec{a}_k\|_1}{1} = \|\vec{a}_k\|_1$$

\* The 2-norm of a matrix  
 $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

$$\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)}$$

where  $\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)$  is the largest (positive) eigenvalue of  $A^T A$ .

Pp: Consider functions:

$$f(\vec{x}) = \|A\vec{x}\|_2^2 = (A\vec{x})^T (A\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T A^T A \vec{x}$$

and  $g(\vec{x}) = \|\vec{x}\|_2^2 = \vec{x}^T \vec{x}$

then consider the following problem:

Max  $f(\vec{x})$

(\*) maximize  $f(\vec{x})$  subject to  $g(\vec{x}) = 1$ .

We can use the method of Lagrange multipliers to solve this problem.

In other words, define

$$h(\vec{x}, \lambda) := f(\vec{x}) - \lambda(g(\vec{x}) - 1)$$

The solution to (\*)  $\Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} = 0, 1 \leq i \leq n$ .

with  $g(\vec{x}) = 1$ .  
can show that  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} = 0, 1 \leq i \leq n$ .

leads to  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial \vec{x}} = 0$ .

$$\Rightarrow 2A^T A \vec{x} - 2\lambda \vec{x} = 0$$

$$A^T A \vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}$$

$\vec{x} = \downarrow$  eigenvector and  $\lambda = \leftarrow$  eigenvalue of  $A^T A$ .

Since  $g(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T \vec{x} = 1$ ,

$$\underbrace{\vec{x}^T A^T A \vec{x}}_{\geq 0} = \underbrace{\vec{x}^T (\lambda \vec{x})}_{\geq 0} = \lambda \underbrace{\vec{x}^T \vec{x}}_{= 1} = \lambda$$

Finally,  $\|A\|_2 = \sup_{\|\vec{x}\|_2=1} \|A\vec{x}\|_2$

$$= \left( \sup_{\vec{x}^T \vec{x} = 1} \vec{x}^T A^T A \vec{x} \right)^{1/2} = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)}$$

\* The  $\infty$ -norm of a matrix:

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \|\vec{a}_i\|_1 \quad \text{the } i\text{th row vector of } A.$$

Note: Let  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k = \mathbb{R}^{k \times 1}$

Pp: by definition

$$\|A\vec{x}\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \left| \vec{a}_i \cdot \vec{x} \right|$$

row vector  $\vec{a}_i$     column vector  $\vec{x}$

$$= \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \right|$$

$$\text{triangle inequality} \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| |x_j|$$

$$\leq \|\vec{x}\|_{\infty} \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|_{\infty}}{\|\vec{x}\|_{\infty}} \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \|a_i\|_1$$

Suppose  $\|\vec{x}\|_{\infty} = 1$ , then for which  $\vec{x}$  the equality  $\|A\vec{x}\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \|a_i\|_1$  is attained?

$$\text{Let } \|a_k\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \|a_i\|_1$$

then define a vector  $\vec{x}$  as

$$x_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a_{kj} \geq 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } a_{kj} < 0 \end{cases}$$

Clearly,  $\|\vec{x}\|_{\infty} = 1$  and

$$|\vec{a}_k \cdot \vec{x}| = \|\vec{a}_k\|_1$$

\* Why matrix norm is important?

A cannot

A computer cannot represent real numbers exactly unless they are digital numbers (e.g. 0 and 1).

⇒ Suppose we want to solve

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

⇒ we have to first encode  $A$ ,  $\vec{x}$ , and  $\vec{b}$  on the computer

$$A \longrightarrow A'$$

$$\vec{x} \longrightarrow \vec{x}'$$

$$\vec{b} \longrightarrow \vec{b}'$$

i.e. we solve  $A'\vec{x}' = \vec{b}'$

For simplicity, suppose  $\vec{b}' = \vec{b}$  and  $A$  is invertible.

→ relative error of the solution:

$$\frac{\|\vec{x}' - \vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}'\|} = \frac{\|\vec{x}' - A^{-1}\vec{b}\|}{\|\vec{x}'\|}$$

$$= \frac{\|\vec{x}' - A^{-1}A'\vec{x}'\|}{\|\vec{x}'\|}$$

$$= \frac{\|A^{-1}(A - A')\vec{x}'\|}{\|\vec{x}'\|}$$

$$\leq \frac{\|A^{-1}(A - A')\| \|\vec{x}'\|}{\|\vec{x}'\|}$$

$$\leq \underbrace{\|A\| \|A^{-1}\|}_{\text{condition number}} \underbrace{\|A - A'\|}_{\text{relative error in matrix}}.$$

number relative error in matrix.

condition number:  $\kappa(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$

If  $\kappa(A)$  is large, then  $A$  is "bad", i.e., there is a large error in solution  $\vec{x}^* = A^{-1} \vec{b}$ .

If  $A$  singular,  $\kappa(A) = +\infty$ .

### \* Orthogonal Vectors:

Def: Two vectors  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are said to be orthogonal if  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$

(The zero vector is orthogonal to any vector)

Two sets of vectors  $X, Y$  are said to be orthogonal if

$$\forall \vec{x} \in X \text{ and } \forall \vec{y} \in Y, \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$$

A set of vectors  $S$  is said to be orthogonal if  $\forall \vec{x} \in S, \forall \vec{y} \in S, \vec{x} \neq \vec{y}, \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$ .

A ~~vec~~ set of vectors  $S$  is said to be orthonormal if  $S$  is orthogonal and  $\forall \vec{x} \in S, \|\vec{x}\|_2 = 1$ .

(orthonormal = orthogonal + normalized)

Thm: The vectors in an orthogonal set  $S$  are linearly independent.

pf: let  $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ .

Suppose they are not lin. indep.



Then  $\exists \vec{u}_k \in S$  such that  $\vec{u}_k \neq 0$  and

$$\vec{u}_k = \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq k}}^n c_i \vec{u}_i \quad \text{with } \vec{c} \neq 0.$$

$$\vec{c} = [c_1, \dots, c_{k-1}, c_{k+1}, \dots, c_n]^T.$$

Since  $S$  is an orthogonal set,

$$\vec{u}_j \cdot \vec{u}_i = 0 \quad \text{for } j \neq i.$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{u}_k \cdot \vec{u}_k = \vec{u}_k \cdot \left( \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq k}}^n c_i \vec{u}_i \right).$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq k}}^n c_i \underbrace{\vec{u}_k \cdot \vec{u}_i}_{=0}.$$

$$= 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\vec{u}_k\|_2^2 = 0.$$

$$\rightarrow \vec{u}_k = 0$$

contradiction!

\* Component of a vector.

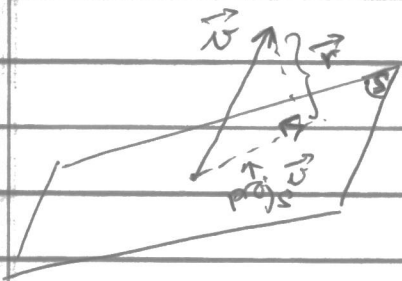
"Inner products can be used to decompose arbitrary vectors into orthogonal components!"

Suppose  $S = \{\vec{q}_1, \dots, \vec{q}_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  is an orthonormal set.

Let  $\vec{u}$  be an arbitrary vector in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

$$\text{Let } \vec{r} = \vec{u} - \langle \vec{q}_1, \vec{u} \rangle \vec{q}_1 - \langle \vec{q}_2, \vec{u} \rangle \vec{q}_2 - \dots - \langle \vec{q}_n, \vec{u} \rangle \vec{q}_n$$

residual vector is  $\perp$  to  $\{\vec{q}_1, \dots, \vec{q}_n\}$ .



Why?

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{r} \rangle &= \langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{u} \rangle - \langle \vec{q}_1, \vec{u} \rangle \langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{q}_1 \rangle \\ &\quad - \dots - \langle \vec{q}_n, \vec{u} \rangle \langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{q}_n \rangle \\ &= \langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{u} \rangle - \langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{u} \rangle \langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{q}_j \rangle \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

It's true for any  $j=1, \dots, n$ .

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v} = \vec{r} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \langle \vec{q}_i, \vec{v} \rangle \vec{q}_i}_{\text{proj}_S \vec{v}}$$

$$= \vec{r} + Q Q^T \vec{v}$$

where  $Q = [\vec{q}_1 \ \vec{q}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{q}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

If  $\{\vec{q}_1, \dots, \vec{q}_n\}$  is a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , then  $n=m$  and  $\vec{r} = \vec{0}$ , i.e.,  $\vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^m \langle \vec{q}_i, \vec{v} \rangle \vec{q}_i = \sum_{i=1}^m (\vec{q}_i \vec{q}_i^T) \vec{v}$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v} = Q Q^T \vec{v}$$

$$\text{and } Q Q^T = I$$

Def: A square matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is said to be orthogonal if

$$Q^T = Q^{-1}$$

$$\text{i.e., } Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I.$$

E.g.  $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$  then  $Q^T Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

but  $Q^* Q^T = \begin{bmatrix} 5/6 & 1/3 & -1/6 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ -1/6 & 1/3 & 5/6 \end{bmatrix}$

Remark: If  $Q = [\vec{q}_1 \ \vec{q}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{q}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  $m > n$  and these vectors are orthonormal, then it is always true that  $Q^T Q = I_{n \times n}$  but  $Q Q^T \neq I_{m \times m}$  unless  $m=n$ .