#### **MA633L-Numerical Analysis**

Lecture 27 : Numerical Linear Algebra - Matrix Norms

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# Recap

### **Iterative Schemes**

The underlying principles behind iterative methods to solve Ax = b are as follows:

- 1. Guess any  $x^{(0)}$
- 2. Compute the residual  $r^{(0)} = b Ax^{(0)}$
- 3. Compute the residual norm, that is  $\|r^{(0)}\|$
- 4. Use an algorithm to compute  $x^{(1)}$  involving A, b and  $x^{(0)}$
- 5. Recompute the residual norm  $\|r^{(1)}\| = \|b Ax^{(1)}\|$
- 6. For given  $x^{(i)}$ , iterate this process until you get the residual as zero or an equivalent condition



#### Norms



#### **Definition 1 (Vector Norms)**

A vector norm, usually denoted by  $\|.\|$ , is a function from a vector space V to the set of nonnegative real numbers that obeys the following three postulates.  $\|.\|: V \to \mathbb{R}_+$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| > 0 \quad \text{if } \mathbf{x} \neq 0, \mathbf{x} \in V$$
$$\|\alpha \mathbf{x}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{x}\| \quad \text{if } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in V$$
$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \le \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\| \quad \text{if } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$$



## Matrix Norms

### **Matrix Norms**

#### **Definition 2 (Matrix Norm)**

A matrix norm on the set of all  $n \times n$  matrices, usually denoted by  $\|.\|$ , is a function from a  $M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  to the set of nonnegative real numbers that obeys the following three postulates.  $\|.\| : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}_+$  such that

 $\|A\| \ge 0$  (nongativity)

 $\|A\| = 0$ , if and only if A is a zero matrix (Mapping of the Identity)

 $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$  if  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  (Scalar multiplication)

 $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$  (Triangle Inequality)

 $||AB|| \le ||A|| ||B||$  (Consistency)

where  $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ 



### **Matrix Norm**

If  $A = (a_{ij})$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix and  $\|.\|$  is a vector norm in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the matrix norm is 11 4 11 . . . . ( ) 1.4.1

. .

$$\begin{split} \|A\| &= \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\| \quad (\text{Vector Induced Norm}) \\ \|A\|_{\infty} &= \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| \quad (\text{Row Sum Norm}) \\ \|A\|_{1} &= \max_{1 \le j \le n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| \quad (\text{Column Sum Norm}) \\ \|A\|_{F} &= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|^{2}} \quad (\text{Frobenius Norm}) \\ \|A\|_{2} &= \sqrt{\rho(A^{T}A)} = \sigma_{max}(A) \end{split}$$



### **Matrix Norm**

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- The  $||A||_1$  norm is also called as the **column sum norm** as it computes the maximum absolute column sum of the matrix.
- The ||A||∞ norm is also called as the row sum norm as it computes the maximum absolute row sum of the matrix.
- An induced matrix norm is also called as **operator norm**
- The  $||A||_2$  norm is also called as the **spectral norm**
- For Symmetric matrix  $\|A\|_1 = \|A\|_\infty$  and  $\|A\|_2 = \rho(A)$
- $||x||_2$  norm is usually called as Euclidean norm, but  $||A||_2$  is not.
- If Q is orthogonal, then  $||Q||_2 = 1$  and hence an orthogonal matrix is also called an isometric matrix.

### Theorem

The distance between two matrices  $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  is ||A - B||.

#### **Theorem 3**

If  $\|.\|$  is a vector norm in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the vector induced norm is a matrix norm

**Proof:** It is enough to prove that  $\|.\|$  is a matrix norm. If  $A \neq 0$ , at least one of its column is not a zero vector. Let *j*th column  $(A)_j \neq 0$ . Then

$$||A|| = \max_{||x||=1} ||Ax|| \ge ||Ae_k|| > 0$$

$$\|\alpha A\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|\alpha Ax\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} |\alpha| \|Ax\| = |\alpha| \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$$



Now,

$$||A + B|| = \max_{\|x\|=1} ||(A + B)x|| = \max_{\|x\|=1} ||Ax + Bx|| \le \max_{\|x\|=1} (||Ax|| + ||Bx||)$$
$$\le \max_{\|x\|=1} ||Ax|| + \max_{\|x\|=1} ||Bx|| = ||A|| + ||B||$$
$$||Ax|| \le ||A|| ||x||$$

Let x be any arbitrary vector, choose  $y=\frac{x}{||x||}$  , then

$$||Ax|| = ||A(y||x||)|| = ||x|||Ay|| \implies ||Ax|| \le ||x|| \max_{||y||=1} ||Ay|| = ||A|| ||x||$$

$$\|AB\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|ABx\| \le \max_{\|x\|=1} \|A\| \|Bx\| \le \max_{\|x\|=1} \|A\| \|B\| \|x\| = \|A\| \|B\|$$

Hence the proof.



Theorem 4 If  $A = (a_{ij})$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$  $\|A\|_1 = \max_{1 \le j \le n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$ 

**Proof:** Observe that when Ax = b

$$b_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \implies ||b||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |b_i| = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \right|$$





$$\begin{split} \|A\|_{\infty} &= \max_{\|x\|_{\infty}=1} \|Ax\| = \max_{\|x\|_{\infty}=1} \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}x_{j}| \le \max_{\|x\|_{\infty}=1} \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| |x_{j}| \\ \implies \|A\|_{\infty} \le \left( \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| \right) \max_{\|x\|_{\infty}=1} |x_{j}| = \left( \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| \right) \max_{\|x\|_{\infty}=1} \|x\| \\ \implies \|A\|_{\infty} \le \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| \end{split}$$

It is enough to prove that the equality is achieved for some x. Choose your x such that  $x_j = sign(A_{ij})$ .

Then the proof follows for row sum

$$|A||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$

For column sum, consider the columns of A as  $A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_n$ 

$$\|Ax\|_{1} = \left\|\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}x\right\|_{1} \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} \|A_{i}x\|_{1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x|\|A_{i}\|_{1} \le \max_{1 \le j \le n} \|x\|_{1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$
$$\implies \|A\|_{1} = \max_{\|x\|_{1}=1} \|Ax\|_{1} \le \max_{1 \le j \le n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$

The equality and the proof follows by taking the standard basis vector for x.



### **Frobenius Norm**

The Frobenius norm is given by  $||A||_F$ 

$$||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2}$$





#### **Theorem 5**

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2 &= \operatorname{trace}(A^T A) \\ \|A\|_F^2 &= \operatorname{trace}(A^T A) \end{split}$$

**Proof:** If  $A = (a_{ij})$  and  $B = (b_{ij})$ , then  $C = AB = (c_{ij})$  is given by, then

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj} \implies c_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{ki}$$

When  $C = A^T A$ , we have

$$c_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki} a_{ki} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}^2$$

$$\operatorname{trace}(A^{T}A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|^{2}$$

the proof follows.



#### **Theorem 6**

Frobenius norm is a norm.

**Proof:** If  $A \neq 0$ , at least one element is not a zero element. Let it be  $a_{pk}$ . Hence

$$\|A\|_{F} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|^{2}} \ge |a_{pk}| > 0$$
$$\|\alpha A\|_{F} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\alpha a_{ij}|^{2}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\alpha| |a_{ij}|^{2}} = |\alpha| \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|^{2}} = |\alpha| \|A\|_{F}$$



$$|A + B||_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij} + b_{ij}|^2$$

We know

 $|a+b|^2 \le |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b|$ 

Hence

$$||A + B||_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |b_{ij}|^2 + 2\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| |b_{ij}|$$
$$||A + B||_F^2 = ||A||_F^2 + ||B||_F^2 + 2\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| |b_{ij}|$$

 $\overline{i=1}$   $\overline{i=1}$ 



By Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

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

$$\begin{split} \|A + B\|_{F}^{2} &= \|A\|_{F}^{2} + \|B\|_{F}^{2} + 2\|A\|_{F}\|B\|_{F} \implies \|A + B\|_{F} \leq \|A\|_{F} + \|B\|_{F} \\ \|AB\|_{F}^{2} &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left|\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik}b_{kj}\right|^{2} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |a_{ik}|^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |b_{kj}|^{2}\right) \\ \|AB\|_{F}^{2} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |a_{ik}|^{2} \sum_{l=1}^{n} |b_{lj}|^{2}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |a_{ik}|^{2} \sum_{l=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |b_{lj}|^{2} = \|A\|_{F}^{2} \|B\|_{F}^{2} \end{split}$$



#### **Theorem 7**

If  $\boldsymbol{U}$  and  $\boldsymbol{V}$  are orthogonal, then

$$||UA||_F = ||AV||_F = ||A||_F$$

#### Proof:

$$\|UA\|_F^2 = \operatorname{trace}((UA)^T(UA)) = \operatorname{trace}(A^TU^TUA) = \operatorname{trace}(A^TA) = \|A\|_F^2$$

Since  $\mathbf{trace}(A^TA) = \mathbf{trace}(AA^T)$  , we get

$$\|AV\|_F^2 = \operatorname{trace}((AV)^T(AV)) = \operatorname{trace}((AV)(AV)^T)$$
$$= \operatorname{trace}(AVV^TA^T) = \operatorname{trace}(AA^T) = \operatorname{trace}(A^TA) = \|A\|_F^2$$



#### Example

#### **Example 8** Compute the $\|.\|_1, \|.\|_F$ and $\|.\|_\infty$ norms of the following matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & 2 & 4 \\ 12 & -8 & 6 & 10 \\ 3 & -13 & 9 & 3 \\ -6 & 4 & 1 & -18 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$||A||_1 = \max_{1 \le j \le n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}| = \max\{27, 27, 18, 35\} = 35$$

$$||A||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| = \max\{14, 36, 28, 29\} = 36$$
$$||A||_F = 32.3883$$



### **Eigenvalues**

If I denotes the identity matrix, then ||I|| = 1. (True or False)

#### **Definition 9 (Characteristic Polynomial:)**

If A is a square matrix, the characteristic polynomial of A is defined by

 $p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$ 

#### **Definition 10 (Eigenvalue and Eigenvector)**

If p is a characteristic polynomial of A, the roots of p are called eigenvalues or characteristic values of A. If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A and  $x \neq 0$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$ , then  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of A.



### **Spectral Radius**

Usually, the matrix is considered over the field *C* though the matrix entries can be real.

#### **Definition 11 (Singular Values)**

The singular values  $\sigma$  of an  $m \times n$  matrix A are the positive square roots of the nonzero eigenvalues of the  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix  $A^T A$ .

$$\sigma_i(A) = \sqrt{\lambda_i(A^T A)}$$

#### **Definition 12 (Spectral Radius)**

The spectral radius  $\rho(A)$  of a matrix A is defined by

$$\rho(A) = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |\lambda_i|$$

This is also denoted as  $\lambda_{max}(A)$ .



### **Spectral Radius**

The matrix norm induced by the Euclidean norm ( $\ell_2$  norm) is the spectral norm, and is given by

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

This is the minimum norm and provides the tightest measure of size.

Theorem 13 If  $A = (a_{ij})$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\|A\|_2 \le \|A\|_F \le \sqrt{n} \|A\|_2,$  $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\operatorname{trace}(A^T A)}$ 

 $\rho(A) \le \|A\|$ 

for any natural norm  $\|.\|$ .



### Theorem

#### **Definition 1 (Convergent)**

We call a matrix A as convergent if

$$\lim_{\to\infty} (A^k)_{ij} = 0$$

for all i, j

#### Example 14

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 0\\ 1/4 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}, A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 & 0\\ 1/4 & 1/4 \end{pmatrix}, A^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/8 & 0\\ 3/16 & 1/8 \end{pmatrix},$$
$$A^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2^n & 0\\ n/2^{n+1} & 1/2^n \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore, the matrix A is convergent.



### Theorem

#### **Theorem 15**

The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. *A* is a convergent matrix.
- 2.  $\lim_{n \to \infty} ||A^n|| = 0$  for some natural norm.
- 3.  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \|A^n\| = 0$  for all natural norm.
- **4**.  $\rho(A) < 1$ .
- 5.  $\lim_{n \to \infty} A^n x = 0$  for every x.



#### Theorems

Theorem 16 Suppose

$$Ax = b$$

where A is an  $n \times n$  matrix and A is invertible. If  $A^{-1}$  is perturbed to obtain a new matrix B and the solution  $x = A^{-1}b$  is perturbed to become a new vector  $\tilde{x} = Bb$ , then

$$\frac{\|x - \tilde{x}\|}{\|x\|} \le \|I - BA\|$$

Proof:

$$||x - \tilde{x}|| = ||x - Bb|| = ||x - BAx|| = ||(I - BA)x|| \le ||I - BA|| ||x||$$

Hence the Proof.



### Theorems

The above theorem gives an upper bound on  $\frac{\|x-\tilde{x}\|}{\|x\|}$  and this ratio denotes the relative error.

#### Example 17

Suppose that the vector b is perturbed to obtain a vector  $\tilde{b}$ . If x and  $\tilde{x}$  satisfy Ax = b and  $A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$ , by how much do x and  $\tilde{x}$  differ in absolute and relative terms?

Solution:

$$\|x - \tilde{x}\| = \|A^{-1}b - A^{-1}\tilde{b}\| = \|A^{-1}(b - \tilde{b})\| \le \|A^{-1}\| \|b - \tilde{b}\|$$
$$b = Ax \implies \|b\| = \|A\| \|x\| \implies \frac{1}{\|x\|} = \frac{\|A\|}{\|b\|}$$

Hence,

$$\frac{\|x - \tilde{x}\|}{\|x\|} \le \|A\| \|A^{-1}\| \frac{\|b - \tilde{b}\|}{\|b\|}$$





The above inequality implies that the relative error in x is not greater than  $||A|| ||A^{-1}||$  times the relative error in b.

#### **Definition 18 (Condition Numbmer)**

If A is an invertible matrix, then its condition number  $\kappa(A)$  is defined by

$$\kappa(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\| \tag{1}$$

From the equation (1), if the condition number is small, then perturbations in *b* lead to small perturbation in  $\mathbf{x}$ . The inequality  $k(A) \ge 1$  is always true (Why?!).



- 1. From equation (1) from equation it seems that we need to compute the inverse of A to obtain the condition number if the norm is used as  $\ell_2$ -matrix norm.
- 2. Also, it can be shown that the condition number  $\kappa(A)$  gauges the transfer of error from the matrix A and the vector b to the solution  $\mathbf{x}$ .
- 3. If  $\kappa(A) = 10^k$ , then one can expect to lose at least k digits of precision in solving the system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .



- If the matrix A is very sensitive to perturbations in the elements of A, or to perturbations of the components of b, then this fact is reflected in A having a large condition number. Such matrix is called **ill-conditioned**. That is, larger the condition number, more ill-conditioned system.
- 2. True or False: When a matrix A is invertible, then  $\kappa(A) = \kappa(A^{-1})$ . For identity matrix  $\kappa(I) = 1$ . If  $\alpha$  is a scalar, then  $\kappa(\alpha A) = \kappa(A)$
- 3. When the condition number is near 1, it is an well-conditioned matrix whereas large values indicate that, it is an ill-condition matrix.
- 4. When the condition number of a matrix is very large, one can suspect that the model and numerical results.



#### Example 19

**Hilbert Matrix:** A Hilbert matrix  $H_n$  is defined as follows:

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

$$H_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{6} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{7} \end{pmatrix}$$

The condition number of the matrix  $H_4$  is  $\kappa(H_4) = 1551.4$  and its determinant is  $1.65 \times 10^{-7}$ . It is an ill-conditioned matrix.



(2)

If A is singular, it is customary to define  $\kappa(A)=\infty.$ 

#### **Example 20**

Find the condition number of the following matrix with respect to  $\ell_1,\ell_2,\ell_\infty$  and Frobenius norm

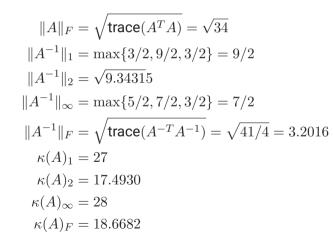
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1\\ 1 & 0 & 1\\ 3 & -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & -1\\ -1 & 5 & -1\\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$A^{T}A = \begin{pmatrix} 14 & -5 & 15\\ -5 & 2 & -5\\ 15 & -5 & 18 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$A^{-T}A^{-1} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 & -1\\ -1 & 35 & -9\\ -1 & -9 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\lambda(A^T A) = \{0.1070, 1.1411, 32.7519\}$  $\lambda(A^{-T} A^{-1}) = \{0.0305, 0.8764, 9.3431\}$  $\|A\|_1 = \max\{6, 2, 6\} = 6$  $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{32.7519}$  $\|A\|_{\infty} = \max\{6, 2, 8\} = 8$ 







# **Condition Number**

From this you can verify that

$$||A_2|| \le ||A||_F \le \sqrt{3} ||A||_2$$

Is this true for any general n?





- 1. Definition of condition number involves matrix inverse, which is not easy to compute and requires more work than solving the system Ax = b.
- 2. In practice, condition number is merely estimated, using another relative expensive byproduct of the solution procedure.
- **3**. If *z* is a solution of Ax = y, then

$$||z|| = ||A^{-1}y|| \le ||A^{-1}y|| \implies \frac{||z||}{||y||} \le ||A^{-1}||$$

4. If we can find a vector y such that  $\frac{\|z\|}{\|y\|}$  is as large as possible, then we can find an reasonable estimate for  $\|A^{-1}\|$ .



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- 1. Usually, the  $\ell_2$  norm or spectral norm is used for the condition number as it provides the tightest measure of size.
- 2. Also, this norm does not require any matrix inverse, instead computation of eigenvalues. With the help of Gersghorin's theorem and Spectral radius, one can find this.
- 3. The condition number of a matrix in  $\ell_2$  norm can be defined as

$$\kappa(A) = \frac{\sigma_{max}(A)}{\sigma_{min}(A)}$$

where  $\sigma_{max}$  and  $\sigma_{min}$  denote the maximal and minimal singular values of A respectively.

1. If A is normal  $(A^*A = AA^*)$ , then

$$\kappa(A) = \frac{|\lambda_{max}(A)|}{|\lambda_{min}(A)|}$$

**2**. If *A* is unitary  $A^*A = AA^* = I$ , then

 $\kappa(A) = 1$ 

3. If  $\|.\|$  is the  $\ell_\infty$  norm and A is a nonsingular lower or upper triangular matrix, then

$$\kappa(A) \ge \frac{\max_{1 \le i \le n} |a_{ii}|}{\min_{1 \le i \le n} |a_{ii}|}$$



### **Properties**

Verify whether the following Statements are True or Not.

- 1. For any matrix A,  $\kappa(A) \geq 1$
- 2.  $\kappa(I) = 1$ 3.  $\kappa(\alpha A) = \kappa(A)$ 4.  $\kappa(D) = \frac{\max_i |d_i|}{\min_i |d_i|}$ 5.  $\kappa(AB) \le \kappa(A)\kappa(B)$ 6. If  $A = A^T$ , then  $\kappa(A^2) = \kappa(A)^2$





If A is and  $n \times n$  matrix such that ||A|| < 1, then I - A is invertible, and

$$(I-A)^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k$$

From this theorem, we can observe that

$$||(I-A)^{-1}|| \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ||A^k|| \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ||A||^k = \frac{1}{1-||A||}$$





#### **Theorem 22**

If A and B are  $n\times n$  matrices such that  $\|I-AB\|<1$  , then A and B are invertible. Furthermore,

$$A^{-1} = B \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k$$

and

$$B^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k A$$



#### **Theorem 23**

If A and B are  $n\times n$  matrices such that  $\|I-AB\|<1$  , then A and B are invertible. Furthermore,

$$A^{-1} = B \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k$$

and

$$B^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k A$$

**Proof:** By previous theorem, AB = I - (I - AB) is invertible and

$$(AB)^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k$$

$$A^{-1} = B(AB)^{-1} = B\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k$$

$$B^{-1} = (AB)^{-1}A = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k A$$







If A is and  $n \times n$  matrix such that ||A|| < 1, then I - A is invertible, and

$$(I-A)^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k$$

From this theorem, we can observe that

$$||(I-A)^{-1}|| \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ||A^k|| \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ||A||^k = \frac{1}{1-||A||}$$





#### **Theorem 25**

If A and B are  $n\times n$  matrices such that  $\|I-AB\|<1$  , then A and B are invertible. Furthermore,

$$A^{-1} = B \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k$$

and

$$B^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - AB)^k A$$

The general algorithm for solving a system Ax = b is as follows:

- 1. Choose a nonsingular matrix Q
- 2. Choose an arbitrary starting vector  $x^{(0)}$
- 3. Generate vectors  $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \cdots$  recursively from the equation

$$Qx^{(k)} = (Q - A)x^{(k-1)} + b, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$$
 (3)

Suppose x is the solution of the system Ax=b and  $x^{(k)}$  converges to x, as  $k\to\infty,$  then

$$Qx = (Q - A)x + b$$

Note, that the system (3) should be easy to solve for  $x^{(k)}$  when the right hand side is known. Also, Q should be chosen to ensure that  $x^{(k)}$  converges to x, no matter, what initial vector is used and the convergence should be rapid.



Note that the true solution x satisfies the equation

$$x = (I - Q^{-1}A)x + Q^{-1}b$$

Therefore, x is a fixed point of the mapping

$$f(x) = (I - Q^{-1}A)x + Q^{-1}b$$

From (3)

$$Qx^{(k)} = (Q - A)x^{(k-1)} + b, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$$
$$\implies x^{(k)} = (I - Q^{-1}A)x^{(k-1)} + Q^{-1}b, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$$

Now,

$$x^{(k)} - x = (I - Q^{-1}A)(x^{(k-1)} - x), \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$$
 (5)

$$\implies ||x^{(k)} - x|| = ||(I - Q^{-1}A)|| ||(x^{(k-1)}) - x|$$
  
$$\implies ||x^{(k)} - x|| = ||(I - Q^{-1}A)||^k ||(x^{(0)}) - x||$$



(4)

If  $\|I - Q^{-1}A\| < 1$ , we can conclude that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \|x^{(k)} - x\| = 0$$

By above theorem, it is guaranteed that if  $||I - Q^{-1}A|| < 1$ , then both  $Q^{-1}A$  and A are invertible.

#### **Theorem 26**

If  $||I - Q^{-1}A|| < 1$  for some matrix norm, then the sequence produced by (3) converges to the solution of Ax = b for any initial vector  $x^{(0)}$ .

#### Theorem 27

If all eigenvalues of  $I - Q^{-1}A$  lies in the open unit disc |z| < 1, then the sequence produced by (3) converges to the solution of Ax = b for any initial vector  $x^{(0)}$ .





The above theorem implies that the spectral radius of  $I - Q^{-1}A$  must be less than 1, that is,

$$o(I - Q^{-1}A) < 1$$

Let  $\boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}$  denote the residual vector obtained from  $\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)}$  after k iterations, then we get

$$r^{(k)} = b - Ax^{(k)}.$$

By above theorem, if  $||I - Q^{-1}A|| < 1$ , then  $||r^{(k)}|| \to 0$ .

# Thanks

#### **Doubts and Suggestions**

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#### **MA633L-Numerical Analysis**

Lecture 27 : Numerical Linear Algebra - Matrix Norms

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