

Introduction to Finite Volume Methods -I
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Lecture – 37
Properties of matrices-II

(Refer Slide Time: 00:14)

Matrix

Types of matrices (square)

- Symmetric $A^T = A.$
- Hermitian $A^H = A.$
- Normal $A^H A = A A^H.$
- Nonnegative $a_{ij} \geq 0, i, j = 1, \dots, n$
- Similarly for nonpositive, positive, and negative matrices
- Unitary $Q^H Q = I.$
- Orthogonal $Q^H Q = D$ (diagonal)
- Skew-symmetric $A^T = -A.$
- Skew-Hermitian $A^H = -A.$

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So, welcome to the lectures of this Finite Volume Method and what we are talking about here this is we are in the process of getting a solution for the linear system. And before doing that or talking about the linear solver what we have chosen to do is that discussion on some properties of the matrix and that is what we are doing. And till the last class what we have done, if you look at it this is where we are talking about the properties of this different matrices like symmetric matrices, skew symmetric matrices, normal matrices, nonnegative all these that is what we stopped in the last class.

(Refer Slide Time: 01:03)

Matrix

Matrices with structure

- **Diagonal** $a_{ij} = 0$ for $j \neq i$. Notation :
 $A = \text{diag}(a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn})$.
- **Upper triangular** $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i > j$. (U)
- **Lower triangular** $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i < j$. (L)
- **Upper bidiagonal** $a_{ij} = 0$ for $j \neq i$ or $j \neq i + 1$.
- **Lower bidiagonal** $a_{ij} = 0$ for $j \neq i$ or $j \neq i - 1$.
- **Tridiagonal** $a_{ij} = 0$ when $|i - j| > 1$.



Now, moving ahead when we call the matrices see this portion of the properties and all these you can find it any text book. So, that is not an problem. So, just, but few important properties which are going to be crucial that is what we are discussing here and then we will move to the calculation of the linear solver, like one of that kind of property is your important property is the diagonals. So, diagonal means when you talk about diagonal of A you only refer to these elements. So, these are the diagonal elements and anything upper that it is a upper diagonal anything lower that it is a lower diagonal. And also this is called, if you only consider the upper half of the matrix this is called the upper triangular matrix.

And these are all notation or the mathematical notation how you define. So, you may not need to worry about that much, but what you need to understand here is the concept of that. Because these are the things like diagonal element, lambda, eigenvalues, spectral radius, singularity, nonsingularity, conjugate, transpose, determinant, lower triangular these are going to be used extensively while talking about the linear solver. So, it is very much important that you get an hands on idea about these system. So, when you consider the upper half of its, it is called the upper triangular when you only consider the lower half of it, it is the lower triangular. Then you can have upper bidiagonal which you can be represented like that you can have lower bidiagonal and you can have tridiagonal

Tridiagonal means, you have one diagonal then one up diagonal like that. So, this is called tridiagonal system if you have two more then it is called pentadiagonal system. So, these are the system other way also you can think that these will be looking like an

banded system and when we just had an brief idea discussion about direct method or iterative method we also said that the matrices are going to be primarily sparse and non-singular. But they can be sometime tridiagonal or pentadiagonal system; that means the banded system.

(Refer Slide Time: 03:38)

Matrix

- **Banded** $a_{ij} \neq 0$ only when $i - m_l \leq j \leq i + m_u$,
'Bandwidth' = $m_l + m_u + 1$.
- **Upper Hessenberg** $a_{ij} = 0$ when $i > j + 1$. **Lower Hessenberg** matrices can be defined similarly.
- **Outer product** $A = uv^T$, where both u and v are vectors.
- **Block tridiagonal** generalizes tridiagonal matrices by replacing each nonzero entry by a square matrix.




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Ashoke De 15

So, just moving ahead to that this is what the definition of the banded system. So, this is a mathematical definition which you can find it any linear algebra book, but what is important again is the idea of the banded system. Now, then another system is that it is called the upper Hessenberg matrix, that is when the components are 0 for i greater than j plus 1 and the lower Hessenberg matrices can be defined similarly. So, which will be the reverse of that and; that means, in a particular system you have upper Hessenberg, you have lower Hessenberg and that can be constituted using your i and j elements then outer product.

Outer product means if you have two vectors u and v then the matrix will get you the outer products or the then you can have also block tridiagonal system that generalize the tridiagonal matrices in a system. So, block tridiagonal means I can have block tridiagonal systems. So, it could be one tridiagonal system here, you could have one tridiagonal system here you could have one tridiagonal system here, these are called the block tridiagonal system.

(Refer Slide Time: 05:01)

Matrix

Special matrices

Toeplitz :

- Entries are constant along diagonals, i.e., $a_{ij} = r_{j-i}$.
- Determined by $m + n - 1$ values r_{j-i} .

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} r_0 & r_1 & r_2 & r_3 & r_4 \\ r_{-1} & r_0 & r_1 & r_2 & r_3 \\ r_{-2} & r_{-1} & r_0 & r_1 & r_2 \\ r_{-3} & r_{-2} & r_{-1} & r_0 & r_1 \\ r_{-4} & r_{-3} & r_{-2} & r_{-1} & r_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Toeplitz

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Now, special matrices Toeplitz it is the entries are constant along diagonal; that means, a ij equals to r j minus 1. So, along the diagonals if you look the entries are constants. So, if you look along the upper diagonal, if you look along the second upper diagonal they are constant. So, this is called the Toeplitz and it can be determined by the mathematics like that.

(Refer Slide Time: 05:35)

Matrix

Hankel : Entries are constant along anti-diagonals, i.e., $a_{ij} = h_{j+i-1}$.
Determined by $m + n - 1$ values h_{j+i-1} .

Circulant : Entries in a row are cyclically right-shifted to form next row. Determined by n values.

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} h_1 & h_2 & h_3 & h_4 & h_5 \\ h_2 & h_3 & h_4 & h_5 & h_6 \\ h_3 & h_4 & h_5 & h_6 & h_7 \\ h_4 & h_5 & h_6 & h_7 & h_8 \\ h_5 & h_6 & h_7 & h_8 & h_9 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hankel

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 & v_5 \\ v_5 & v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 \\ v_4 & v_5 & v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ v_3 & v_4 & v_5 & v_1 & v_2 \\ v_2 & v_3 & v_4 & v_5 & v_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Circulant

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Ashoke De 17

Now, also Hankel that is a another matrix when the entries are constant along anti diagonals; that means, a ij equals to h i plus j or j plus i minus 1; that means, all the

entries which are going to be constant along anti diagonal terms. So, anti diagonal terms means the, these are the component sitting in the diagonal. So, these are going to be the anti diagonal terms and you can see that they are going to be constant then circulant, here entries in a row are cyclically right shifted to the to form next row.

So, these are my diagonal elements and entries in a row are cyclically right shifted to form a next row. So, this is the first row which are having v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5 . So, cyclically shifted means my v_5 will come here. So, that is how it goes $v_5 v_1 v_2 v_3 v_4$ second v_4 moves here $v_5 v_1 v_2 v_3$ then v_3 moves here. So, finally, you get v_1 and again at the end v_1 . So, in that process you end up getting these are similar values. So, that is called circulant.

(Refer Slide Time: 07:17)

Matrix

Sparse matrices

- Matrices with very few nonzero entries – so few that this can be exploited.
- Many of the large matrices encountered in applications are sparse.
- Main idea of “sparse matrix techniques” is not to represent the zeros.

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Sparse matrices: so, the matrices with very few non-zero entries. So, few that this can be exploited many of the large matrices encountered in real applications are sparse and main idea of sparse matrix techniques is not the represent the 0's it is basically having the few 0's, but they are randomly located.

(Refer Slide Time: 07:40)

Norm

Inner products and Norms

Inner product of 2 vectors

► Inner product of 2 vectors x and y in \mathbb{R}^n : x, y
 $\overline{x}y$

$x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n$ in \mathbb{R}^n

Notation: (x, y) or $y^T x$

► For complex vectors x, y (x, y)
 $y^H x$

$(x, y) = x_1\overline{y_1} + x_2\overline{y_2} + \dots + x_n\overline{y_n}$ in \mathbb{C}^n

Note: $(x, y) = y^H x$

An important property: Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ then

$(Ax, y) = (x, A^H y) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n, \forall y \in \mathbb{C}^m$
 $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$



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Ashoke De 19

Now, coming back to calculation of norm; how one can actually calculate the norm of a system and how do you do that it is having an inner product and norms the inner product of 2 vectors. So, if you have 2 vectors like x and y then the inner product which essentially going to be the x transpose y and if you write in that. So, it is how you are going to get the inner product of that, that essentially the dot product of two different matrices.

For complex vectors this is going to be the inner product. So, that either one can write $y^H x$ that is the inner product of x and y . So, property which is very important is that for a A which belongs to a complex m bar plus n system; that means, m rows n columns $A x y$ would be x^H Hermitian y . So, that is how the product can be defined for all x which belongs to \mathbb{C}^n for all y which belongs to \mathbb{C}^m . So, $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ system. So, these are m and these are n .

(Refer Slide Time: 09:22)

Norm

Vector norms

[Norms are needed to measure lengths of vectors and closeness of two vectors.] Examples of use: Estimate convergence rate of an iterative method; Estimate the error of an approximation to a given solution; ...

► A vector norm on a vector space X is a real-valued function on X , which satisfies the following three conditions:

1. $\|x\| \geq 0$, $\forall x \in X$, and $\|x\| = 0$ iff $x = 0$.
2. $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$, $\forall x \in X$, $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$.
3. $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$, $\forall x, y \in X$.

► 3. is called the **triangle inequality**



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Now, once you get the inner product of two vectors now you can actually estimate the vector norms and how you get that the norms which are needed to measure lengths of vector and closeness of two vectors. For example you can estimate the convergence rate of an iterative method, estimate the error of an approximation to a given solution. So, the important definition of norm is that it is an measure of length of vectors. So, when we talk about the iterative method we try to find out the convergence rate. So, that is where actually you can estimate it when you talk about some error you can also estimate that. Now the second important point is that a vector norm on a vector space X is a real valued function on X which satisfied these three conditions.

Number one, the magnitude must be greater than equals to 0 for all x belongs to that vector space and the magnitude of that would be 0 if and only if the vector is 0. Then if you multiply it with any scalar alpha and take the mod this can be represented as mod alpha into magnitude of x . For all x belongs to this vector space and for all alpha belongs to any number then the x plus y the mod of x plus y which is an inequality must be less than mod x and mod y for all x and y which belongs to the vector space.

And this property which is essentially the inequality property is called the triangle inequality, why? Because if you have two vectors x y you can always form a triangle and try to find out so, the property. So, this is y it could be x plus y . So, that is what called the triangle inequality, these are some important information or some important definition

that one has to know before we do some detailed discussion on any linear system for linear algebra.

(Refer Slide Time: 12:14)

Norm

Important example: Euclidean norm on $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$\|x\|_2 = (x, x)^{1/2} = \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2}$$

➤ Most common vector norms in numerical linear algebra: special cases of the Hölder norms

p-norm \Rightarrow
$$\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

☑ Find out (bbl search) how to show that these are indeed norms for any $p \geq 1$ (Not easy for 3rd requirement!)

A few properties:

➤ The limit of $\|x\|_p$ when p tends to infinity exists:

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|x\|_p = \max_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

Now that brings to that Euclidean norm; so, Euclidean norm on a vector space of $n \in \mathbb{C}$. So, this is called the l_2 norm or Euclidean norm. So, this is square root of all the length square, this is how one can find out. Now, the most common vector norms in numerical linear algebra special cases holders form like this ok.

So, you can show that the important property is the limit of this mod x^p when p tends to infinity it actually exists. So, this is one of the important property for this p norm, this is called the p norm and when p equals to 2 we can find out l_2 norm. So, different norms can be obtained like that now.

(Refer Slide Time: 13:21)

Norm

- ▶ Defines a norm denoted by $\|\cdot\|_\infty$.
- ▶ The cases $p = 1$, $p = 2$, and $p = \infty$ lead to the most important norms in practice. These are:
$$\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|,$$
$$\|x\|_2 = [|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2]^{1/2},$$
$$\|x\|_\infty = \max_{i=1, \dots, n} |x_i|.$$
- ▶ The Cauchy-Schwartz inequality (important) is:
$$|(x, y)| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2.$$
- ▶ The Hölder inequality (less important for $p \neq 2$) is:
$$\checkmark |(x, y)| \leq \|x\|_p \|y\|_q, \text{ with } \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

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So, you define a norm denoted by the product with infinity, as I said if p equals to 1, p could be 2, p could be infinity lead to the most important norms in practice. So, p 1 means you get x 1 x 2 x 3 like that. When p equals to 2 you get only the l 2 norm which is the square root of x 1 square x 2 square x 3 square and this infinity you got the maximum of that. Now, there is one when you talk about the norm immediately this brings to an important information about Cauchy Schwartz inequality.

So, this one has to also know and the property of that is that if you have two vectors norm x and y I mean at p 2; that means, l 2 norm the I mean the dot product or the inner product of x and y must be less than equals to x 2 and y 2 separately. So, this is another property of the inner product of these norms. Now, similarly the holder inequality which is not that important for p not equals to 2 that is that x y mod of x y inner product less than equals to x p y p with the condition 1 by p plus 1 by q equals to 1. So, that is another property that can be used for the information that in the system of the linear system

(Refer Slide Time: 15:20)

Norm

Equivalence of norms:

In finite dimensional spaces ($\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}^n, \dots$) all norms are 'equivalent': if ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are two norms then there is a constant α such that,

$$\phi_1(x) \leq \alpha \phi_2(x) \quad \phi_1(n) \leq \alpha \phi_2(n)$$

How can you prove this result?

We can bound one norm in terms of the other:

$$\beta \phi_2(x) \leq \phi_1(x) \leq \alpha \phi_2(x) \quad \leftarrow \text{boundedness of norms}$$

Show that for any x : $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1$

What are the "unit balls" $B_p = \{x \mid \|x\|_p \leq 1\}$ associated with the norms $\|\cdot\|_p$ for $p = 1, 2, \infty$, in \mathbb{R}^2 ?

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Now, one can find out the equivalence of norms, how one would do that? In a finite dimensional space let us say you have \mathbb{R}^n \mathbb{C}^n all these are finite dimensional space all norms are equivalent. For example, if ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are two norms then there is a constant α such that $\phi_1(x) \leq \alpha \phi_2(x)$. So, that gets you an important property of equivalency between these norm. So, I have two different norms ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 and the equivalency can be obtained by there is a constant α such that $\phi_1(x) \leq \alpha \phi_2(x)$.

Now, one can you can prove these things. So, that is one has to look at in the linear algebra, now we can bound one norm in terms of the other also. Similarly if you have a scalar multiplied with ϕ_2 . So, $\beta \phi_2$ must be less than equals to $\phi_1(x)$ which is also less than equal to $\alpha \phi_2(x)$. So, this is the sort of boundedness of norms. So, the norms can be also made bounded so, you can get these properties. So, these are for some homework information one can do that.

(Refer Slide Time: 17:09)

Norm

Convergence of vector sequences

x^1, x^2, x^3, \dots

A sequence of vectors $x^{(k)}$, $k = 1, \dots, \infty$ converges to a vector x with respect to the norm $\|\cdot\|$ if, by definition,

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

► **Important point:** because all norms in \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent, the convergence of $x^{(k)}$ w.r.t. a given norm implies convergence w.r.t. any other norm.

► **Notation:**

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(k)} = x$$

Equivalency

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Now the important information which becomes is the convergence of vector sequences. So, this will be an one of the information that would be again used for when discussing about the linear solvers. So, a sequence of vectors for example, x_k $k=1$ to infinity; that means, you have x_1, x_2, x_3 like that. So, you have a sequence of vectors which will convergence to a vector x with respect to the norm product or norm dot, if by definition when $\|x_k - x\|$ or the magnitude of that when k tends to infinity is equals to 0; that means, in a limit this guy becomes 0. So, that is where you can find out the convergence of a sequence of vector.

Now, the point here is because the or rather the important point here is that because all norms in \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent the convergence of x_k with respect to a given norm implies a convergence with respect to any other norm. So, which will be written in terms of like this, the limit k tends to infinity $x_k = x$. So, there is a so, as we go along with this properties and the norm calculation one after another properties use the previous information. So, here the property which was used is the equivalency. So, you can see that the convergence property uses the equivalency property of the norm and that is why you can write this notation and say that the convergence can be obtained.

(Refer Slide Time: 19:22)

Norm

Example: The sequence

$$x^{(k)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + 1/k \\ k \\ k + \log_2 k \\ 1/k \end{pmatrix}$$

converges to

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

► **Note:** Convergence of $x^{(k)}$ to x is the same as the convergence of each individual component $x_i^{(k)}$ of $x^{(k)}$ to the corresponding component x_i of x .

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So, that is an example you can see the sequence which is the vectors are $1 + 1/k$ by k second vector is k by $k + \log_2 k$ third one is $1/k$ this will converge to $1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0$ and the convergence of $x^{(k)}$ to x is the same as the convergence of each individual component $x_i^{(k)}$ of $x^{(k)}$ to the corresponding component x_i of x . So, this you can see how the equivalency property is used to look at the convergence of this system.

(Refer Slide Time: 20:09)

Norm

Matrix norms $(A) = m \times n$

► Can define matrix norms by considering $m \times n$ matrices as vectors in \mathbb{R}^{mn} . These norms satisfy the usual properties of vector norms, i.e.,

1. $\|A\| \geq 0$, $\forall A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, and $\|A\| = 0$ iff $A = 0$
2. $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$, $\forall A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$
3. $\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$, $\forall A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$.

► However, these will lack (in general) the right properties for composition of operators (product of matrices).

► The case of $\|\cdot\|_2$ yields the Frobenius norm of matrices.

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Now, you come down to so, once we talk about the vectors. So, we talk about the vectors norm and we come back to the matrix, why? Because matrix are nothing, but the this is

m by n matrix. So, matrix are nothing but the combinations or the metric spaces spanned by the column vectors and the row vectors. So, it has the column vectors and the row vector. So, we can find out so that is what we first discuss the norm of a vector and now we want to look at the norm of a matrix. So, one can define the matrix norm by considering an m by n matrices as vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ then this norm satisfy the usual properties of vector norms. Which means; those three properties that we have discussed for the vector norm they are going to be exactly satisfied for this case also. For example, the magnitude of A must be greater than 0 for all A belongs to the space in m n and the magnitude of a would be 0 if and only if all A is 0.

Secondly if you multiplied a with A scalar and take the magnitude then it can be equivalently represented as mod alpha and magnitude of a for all A belongs to $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ for all alpha belongs to \mathbb{C} . And third which is an inequality again the magnitude of the additional or addition of the addition of these two vectors must be less than equals to mod A and mod B for all A, B belongs to $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. However, in general, this will lack the right properties for composition of operators. So, essentially the product of matrices so the case where the dot product that yields the Frobenius norm of the matrices.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:45)

Norm

- Given a matrix A in $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, define the set of matrix norms

$$\|A\|_p = \max_{x \in \mathbb{C}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_p}{\|x\|_p}$$

- These norms satisfy the usual properties of vector norms (see previous page).
- The matrix norm $\|\cdot\|_p$ is induced by the vector norm $\|\cdot\|_p$.
- Again, important cases are for $p = 1, 2, \infty$.


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Ashoke De 27

So, now once we define this matrix norm we can see how the other informations can be obtained for example, we have given a matrix A in $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ defines the set of matrix norm. So, for mod A it is a p norm for matrix. So, we are trying to find out the p norm which

will be the maximum x belongs to C^n where x not equals to 0 is Ax the modulus of p and $\|x\|_p$. So, that ratio is going to give me the p norm of this particular matrix as we have obtained for p norm for vector, now we are using or expanding that same concept for getting the matrices. Now, these norms what you obtain for the matrix they must or they satisfy the usual properties of vector norms so; that means, what we have discussed for the vectors norm they do satisfy the properties of that.

That is one of the added advantage and why that happens again matrix is nothing, but the combination of your row vectors or column vectors. So, that is why it always satisfy the properties of the vector properties. Now when the matrix norm p is induced by the vector norm this, again important cases are for $p=1, p=2, p=\infty$. So, depending on the values of p different norms like for vectors we have obtained in this case also you can obtain those norms for $p=1, p=2$ and infinity.

(Refer Slide Time: 24:39)

Norm

Consistency / sub-multiplicativity of matrix norms

- A fundamental property of matrix norms is consistency

$$\|AB\|_p \leq \|A\|_p \|B\|_p.$$

[Also termed "sub-multiplicativity"]

- Consequence: $\|A^k\|_p \leq \|A\|_p^k$
- A^k converges to zero if any of its p -norms is < 1

[Note: sufficient but not necessary condition]

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Ashoke De 28

Now, the thing which comes to the table is that consistency. So, that is another important information that one has to know or the sub multiplicativity of matrix norm, what do they say? The fundamental property of matrix norm is consistency; that means, it has to be consistent and that pretty much applies to even our numerical system. You want to device a system or numerical algorithm or the technique which you want to be consistent. You do not want anything which is not non-consistent and once that has to happen some parts bits and pieces also need to be like that.

So, the properties of the matrix norm is also going to be consistent and that can be mathematically expressed like that modulus of AB for p norm which is an inequality less than mod p and mod B p. So, this is called sub multiplicativity. So, this is also known as sub multiplicability. So, the consequence of that it leads to that A k p less than equals to modulus of A k p so; that means, I have A k that p norm must be less than mod A k p. So, that what you get.

Now, A k will converge to 0 if any of it p norm is less than 1. So, that is an very important criteria or constraint, but this is an sufficient, but not necessary so, one note that it is sufficient, but not necessary condition. So, there are conditions which has to be also necessary.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:47)

Norm

Frobenius norms of matrices

- ▶ The Frobenius norm of a matrix is defined by $A_{m \times n}$

$$\|A\|_F = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}|^2 \right)^{1/2} .$$
- ▶ Same as the 2-norm of the column vector in \mathbb{C}^{mn} consisting of all the columns (respectively rows) of A .
- ▶ This norm is also consistent [but, not induced from a vector norm]


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Now, when you look at the Frobenius norms of matrices, the Frobenius norm of matrix can be defined like modulus A F which is F stands for the Frobenius norm equals to j equals to 1 to n i equals to 1 to m alpha i j these are the component of the matrices and the square and the 2 complete term is taken under square root of that.

This is same as the l 2 norm of the column vector in C m n or consisting all the columns of A; that means, A has all this A is a m by n system. So, it has all this n columns. So, the l 2 norm of column vectors are going to the represent the Frobenius norm and the property is that it is also consistent, but it is not induced from a vector for norm. So, the

other case it was other way around. So, in this case you can note that this is not induced from a vector norm.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:04)

Norm

Expressions of standard matrix norms

► Recall the notation: (for square $n \times n$ matrices)

→ $\rho(A) = \max |\lambda_i(A)|$; $Tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i(A)$
 where $\lambda_i(A)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are all eigenvalues of A

$$\|A\|_1 = \max_{j=1, \dots, n} \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}|$$

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

$$\|A\|_2 = [\rho(A^H A)]^{1/2} = [\rho(AA^H)]^{1/2}$$

$$\|A\|_F = [Tr(A^H A)]^{1/2} = [Tr(AA^H)]^{1/2}$$

} spectral radius


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Ashoke De 30

Now, moving ahead you can look at these different matrix norms; that means, when this case it is p equals to 1 this case p equals to infinity. So, the notation is that you have a square matrix n by n , if you have a square matrix n by n $\rho(A)$ is the spectral radius which is the maximum of the eigenvalues of A . So, you find out the eigenvalues of A that is what one can represent $\lambda_i(A)$; that means, it gives you back all the eigenvalues that is there including the repetitive one and the maximum one that is going to be the spectral radius. Trace of A which is the summation of diagonal components or summation of all the non repetitive lambdas.

Now, you look at the p equals to 1 norm. So, this is going to be the maximum of all these elements goes over the loop, when you look at the infinity norm $\|A\|_\infty$ is going to be the maximum of i to m and j goes to 1 to n is the a_{ij} the magnitude. So, one can represent that the $\|A\|_2$ norm is the spectral radius of a Hermitian A and the square root of that. So, whatever matrix you have the Hermitian matrix and this matrix the some sort of an dot product and square root of so, which can be represented as spectral radius of A Hermitian and the square root of that.

Similarly, if you find out the Frobenius norm which is going to be the trace of A Hermitian A and the square root of that or trace of AA^H Hermitian square root of that. So,

these two are sort of important informations where l_2 norm and the Frobenius norm you can actually represent with the spectral radius. So, using that information you can represent this in this particular format. So, we will stop here and.

Thank you.