

Summary to approximate  $\|A\|_2$

① Choose a random unit vector  $x_0$

②  $y_k = Bx_k$

③  $\lambda \approx y_k \cdot x_k$

④  $x_{k+1} = y_k / \|y_k\|$

repeat...

Can this algorithm be used to find  $\|A^{-1}\|_2$

{ Could set  $B = (A^{-1})^T (A^{-1})$  and apply the above algorithm, but that involves knowing  $A^{-1}$ .

Alternatives. ~

First suppose that  $A^{-1}$  exists, otherwise  $\|A^{-1}\|_2$

doesn't make sense otherwise...

Assume  $\det(A) \neq 0$

Since  $C = A A^T$  then note  $C^T = C$  still holds.

$$\det(C) = \det A \det A^T = (\det A)^2 \neq 0 \quad \checkmark$$

Let  $\lambda_i$  be the eigenvalues of  $C$  and  $\xi_i$  the orthonormal basis of eigenvectors

$$\det C = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_n \neq 0$$

So all eigenvalues  $\lambda_i > 0$

Remember  $C^T = C$  implies  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and

$$C \xi_i \cdot \xi_i = A A^T \xi_i \cdot \xi_i = A^T \xi_i \cdot A \xi_i = \|A^T \xi_i\|^2 \geq 0$$

||

$$\lambda_i \xi_i \cdot \xi_i = \lambda_i \xi_i \cdot \xi_i = \lambda_i$$

$$\text{Thus } \lambda_i = \|A^T \xi_i\|^2 \geq 0$$

Combined

Thus  $\lambda_i > 0$

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \xi_1 & \xi_2 & \dots & \xi_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

then  $Q^T Q = I$  and since  $Q$  is square then  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ .

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \dots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$CQ = QD$$

or

$$C = QDQ^{-1}$$

$$B = A^T A \quad \text{so} \quad B^{-1} = (A^T A)^{-1} = A^{-1} (A^T)^{-1} = A^{-1} (A^{-1})^T$$

$$C = A A^T \quad \text{so} \quad C^{-1} = (A A^T)^{-1} = (A^T)^{-1} A^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T A^{-1}$$

$$C^{-1} x \cdot x = (A^{-1})^T A^{-1} x \cdot x = A^{-1} x \cdot A^{-1} x = \|A^{-1} x\|^2$$

① Choose a random unit vector  $x_0$

②  $y_k = C^{-1} x_k$  (solve for  $y_k$  so that  $C y_k = x_k$ )

in Julia

③  $\lambda \approx y_k \cdot x_k$

$y_k = C \setminus x_k$

④  $x_{k+1} = y_k / \|y_k\|$

The largest eigenvalue of  $C^{-1}$  so  $\|A^{-1}\| = \sqrt{\lambda}$

```
julia> R10=rand(10,10);
julia> C=R10*R10';
      B=R10'*R10;
julia> using LinearAlgebra
```

```
julia> sqrt(1924.5986019215793)
43.87024734283566
```

$$\|A^{-1}\| \approx 43.87 \dots$$

Check with the built in function...

```
julia> opnorm(inv(R10))
43.87024734284606
```

```
julia> xk=rand(10); xk=xk/norm(xk)
for k=1:10
    yk=C\xk
    println("lambda = ",yk'*xk)
    xk=yk/norm(yk)
end
```

```
lambda = 22.322810516739516
lambda = 1900.45492940512
lambda = 1924.5802738767622
lambda = 1924.5985880987423
lambda = 1924.5986019111508
lambda = 1924.598601921572
lambda = 1924.5986019215798
lambda = 1924.5986019215795
lambda = 1924.5986019215777
lambda = 1924.5986019215793
```

approx  
of  
largest  
eigenvalue  
of  $C^{-1}$

Remark: That solving an  $n \times n$  linear system 10 times is much less work than inverting a  $n \times n$  matrix when  $n$  is large...

Note: finding the inverse of an  $n \times n$  matrix is equivalent to solving  $n$  linear systems...

The condition number:

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

↗ this through forward iterations of  $B = A^T A$   
↖ this through backward iterations of  $C = A A^T$

What happens if we use  $B$  in place of  $C$ ?

① Choose a random unit vector  $x_0$

②  $y_k = B^{-1} x_k$  (solve for  $y_k$  so that  $B y_k = x_k$ )

③  $\lambda \approx y_k \cdot x_k$  in Julia  $y_k = B \setminus x_k$

④  $x_{k+1} = y_k / \|y_k\|$

```

julia> B=R10'*R10;

julia> xk=rand(10); xk=xk/norm(xk)
for k=1:10
    yk=B\xk
    println("lambda = ",yk'*xk)
    xk=yk/norm(yk)
end
lambda = 10.691182632185177
lambda = 1920.580590479082
lambda = 1924.5956339384934
lambda = 1924.5985996823217
lambda = 1924.5986019194495
lambda = 1924.598601921137
lambda = 1924.598601921138
lambda = 1924.5986019211377
lambda = 1924.5986019211384
lambda = 1924.5986019211389

```

Converged to the same  $\lambda$   
and with C.

How are the eigenvalues of a matrix changed under different algebraic operations?

Suppose  $B\xi = \lambda\xi$  and  $B$  is invertible.

$$B^{-1}B\xi = B^{-1}\lambda\xi$$

$$B^{-1}\lambda\xi = \xi$$

$$\lambda B^{-1}\xi = \xi.$$

$$B^{-1}\xi = \frac{1}{\lambda}\xi.$$

Conclusion: The eigenvalues of  $B^{-1}$  are  $\frac{1}{\lambda}$

where  $\lambda$  are the eigenvalues of  $B$ .

Also the eigenvectors are the same ...

Suppose  $B\xi = \lambda\xi$  and consider  $B + \alpha I$

$$(B + \alpha I)\xi = B\xi + \alpha I\xi = \lambda\xi + \alpha\xi = (\lambda + \alpha)\xi.$$

Conclusion: The eigenvalues of  $B + \alpha I$  are  $\lambda + \alpha$   
where  $\lambda$  are the eigenvalues of  $B$ .  
Also the eigenvectors are the same.

Question: are the eigenvalues of  $A$  and  $A^T$  the same?  
are the eigenvectors of  $A$  and  $A^T$  the same?

Recall  $A^T$  is exactly the matrix  $M$  so that.

$$(*) \quad Ax \cdot y = x \cdot My \quad \text{for all vectors } x, y.$$

If you stop thinking about  $A^T$  as in terms of reflecting the entries in a table of numbers and instead as  $(*)$ .  
Then maybe answering the question is easier.