

Elementary Numerical Analysis
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Lecture No. # 38
Inverse Power Method

In our last lecture, we have defined power method for calculating eigen vector associated with dominant eigen value; then, if the matrix is invertible and if the eigen value which has got lowest modulus - so, if modulus of λ_n is strictly less than modulus of the remaining eigen values, then we can apply power method to the inverse and then obtain approximation to eigen vector associated with the least eigen value.

Thus, we can approximate the eigen vector associated with the largest eigen value in modulus or the least eigen value in modulus.

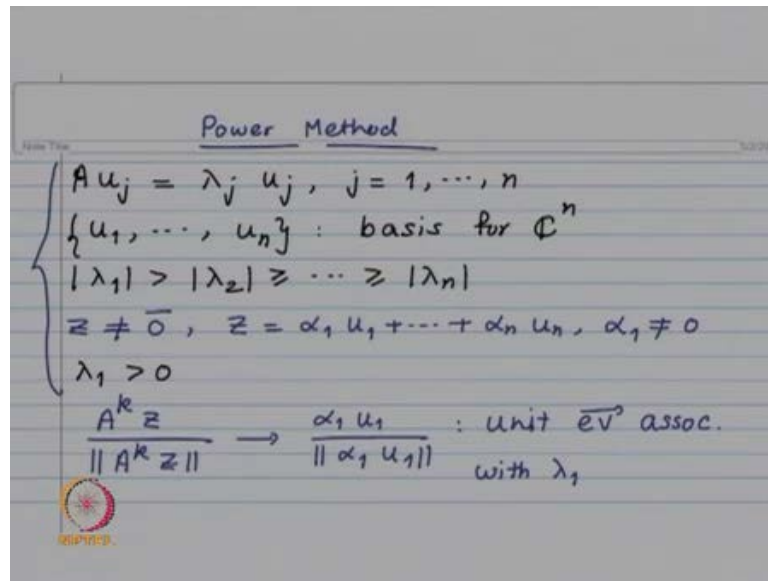
Now, what about some intermediate eigen value? For that, we need to have some approximation to say l th eigen value and then we can extend our power method; that is known as inverse power method, which we are going to consider today; after defining inverse power method we are going to consider what is known as $q r$ decomposition of a matrix.

We have considered various decompositions of matrix - $l u$ decomposition, then Cholesky decomposition and today we are going to consider decomposition of A into $q r$, where q is going to be orthogonal matrix and r is going to be upper triangular matrix.

Once we consider this $q r$ decomposition we can define $q r$ method for finding eigen values of matrix. Then, we are going to consider relation between $q r$ decomposition of matrix and Gram-Schmidt Orthonormalization process of the column vector.

So, this is roughly the plan of today's lecture. Let us look at the power method - recall it.

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The slide contains handwritten mathematical notes on a grid background. At the top, it is titled "Power Method". Below the title, there are several lines of equations and text:

$$A u_j = \lambda_j u_j, \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$
$$\{u_1, \dots, u_n\} : \text{basis for } \mathbb{C}^n$$
$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$$
$$z \neq \bar{0}, \quad z = \alpha_1 u_1 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n, \quad \alpha_1 \neq 0$$
$$\lambda_1 > 0$$
$$\frac{A^k z}{\|A^k z\|} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha_1 u_1}{\|\alpha_1 u_1\|} : \text{unit } \vec{e}v \text{ assoc. with } \lambda_1$$

There is a small circular logo in the bottom left corner of the slide.

Our A is n by n matrix; our assumption is that eigen vectors u_1, u_2 and u_n form a basis for \mathbb{C}^n .

Eigen values λ_j (s) are arranged in this manner and assumption is $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$; these are our assumptions.

Not all matrices will have a basis of eigen vectors, but then we have seen that if the matrix is normal then there is a basis of eigen vectors; if our matrix A has n distinct eigen value, even then it has a basis of eigen vectors. So, this restriction of eigen vectors forming a basis is not too restrictive - there is big class of matrices for which it will be satisfied.

Thus our assumption is A should have a basis of eigen vectors and then it should have a dominant eigen value; that means, modulus of λ_1 bigger than modulus of λ_2 bigger than or equal to modulus of λ_3 bigger than or equal to modulus of λ_n .

Afterwards we can have greater than or equal to; but, the eigen value which is biggest in modulus should be a simple eigen value and it should be strictly bigger than moduli of the remaining eigen values.

Then, we start with a non-zero vector; now, this non-zero vector can be expressed as a linear combination of u_1, u_2 and u_n because u_1, u_2 and u_n form a basis.

Then, we assume that our z - the vector arbitrary vector, which we are choosing, its component in the direction of u_1 is not equal to 0; so, α_1 is not equal to 0.

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The image shows a slide titled "Power Method" with handwritten mathematical notes. In the top right corner, there is a small video inset of a man in a blue jacket. The notes are as follows:

- $Au_j = \lambda_j u_j, j = 1, \dots, n$
- $\{u_1, \dots, u_n\} : \text{basis for } \mathbb{C}^n$
- $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$
- $z \neq 0, z = \alpha_1 u_1 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n, \alpha_1 \neq 0$
- $\lambda_1 > 0$
- $\frac{A^k z}{\|A^k z\|} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha_1 u_1}{\|\alpha_1 u_1\|} : \text{unit } \vec{e}v \text{ assoc. with } \lambda_1$

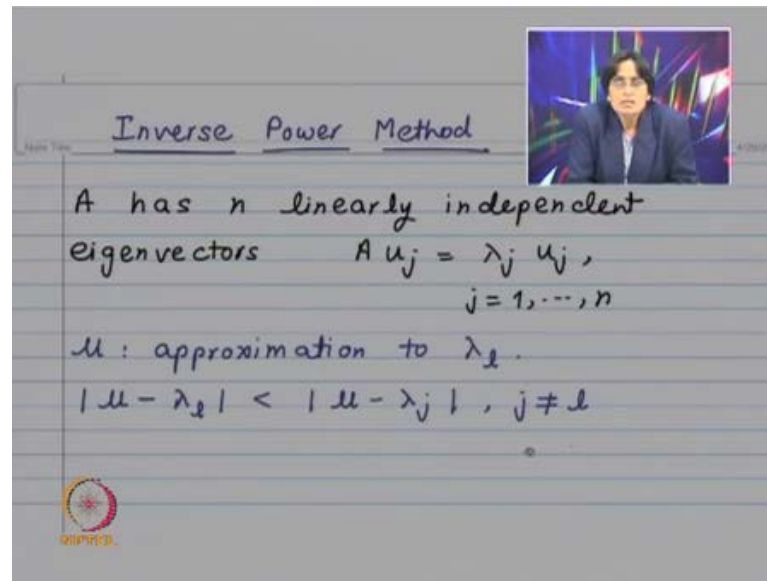
With these assumptions and λ_1 to be bigger than 0 - that means, λ_1 is real and positive. So, we formed $A^k z$ divided by norm of $A^k z$.

Under these assumptions, $A^k z$ upon norm of $A^k z$ converges to $\alpha_1 u_1$ by norm of $\alpha_1 u_1$.

This is going to be unit eigen vector associated with eigen value λ_1 ; it is easy to calculate these iterates - you start with a arbitrary vector z not equal to 0; find these iterates - if your matrix A is a sparse matrix, that means a lot of zeroes; then, this will not be computationally too expensive and this is going to converge to a unit eigen vector corresponding to the eigen value λ_1 ; this is the power method.

Now, we want to look at extension of this method, which will allow us to find eigen vector associated with intermediate eigen value.

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The slide is titled "Inverse Power Method" and contains the following handwritten text:

A has n linearly independent eigenvectors $A u_j = \lambda_j u_j$,
 $j = 1, \dots, n$

μ : approximation to λ_l .

$|\mu - \lambda_l| < |\mu - \lambda_j|, j \neq l$

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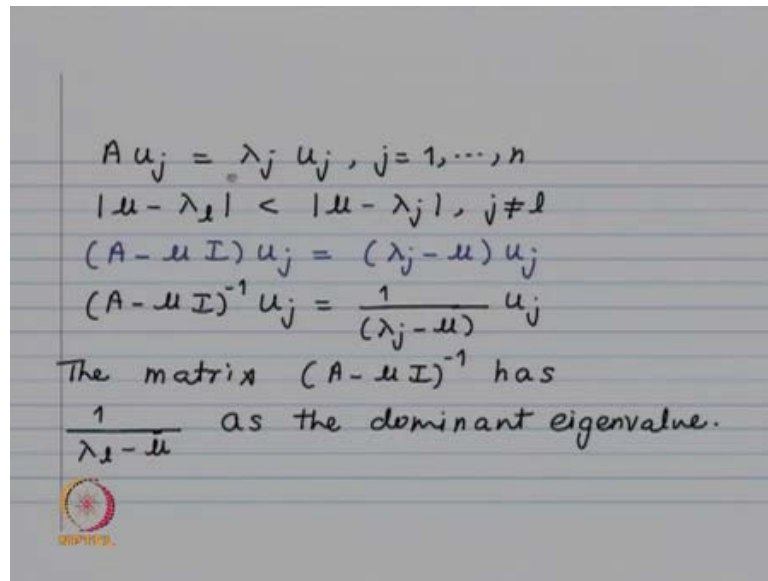
Again, our assumption is that A has n linearly independent eigen vectors - $A u_j$ is equal to $\lambda_j u_j$, j is equal to 1 to up to n and μ is given to be an approximation to λ_l ; some l th eigen value in between - it need not be the largest eigen value or the least eigen value in modulus.

Since μ is approximation to λ_l its distance from λ_l is going to be smaller than distance of μ from the remaining eigen values. So, $|\mu - \lambda_l|$ is less than $|\mu - \lambda_j|$, $j \neq l$; now, our eigen values - these are roots of characteristic polynomial.

Now, for the characteristic polynomial we can find an interval in which our eigen value lies; for example, we had considered bisection method - we have got a polynomial, you find two numbers or two real numbers where the polynomial has opposite sign; that interval is going to contain a root of the polynomial; so, you go on subdividing it getting a smaller and smaller interval. So, in such a manner or by some other method we can have an approximation to eigen value λ_l .

Starting point of our inverse power method is - your given μ an approximation to l th eigen value, and our aim is to find approximation to an eigen vector corresponding to this l th eigen value λ_l .


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The image shows a handwritten derivation on a slide background. The text is as follows:

$$A u_j = \lambda_j u_j, \quad j=1, \dots, n$$
$$|\mu - \lambda_1| < |\mu - \lambda_j|, \quad j \neq 1$$
$$(A - \mu I) u_j = (\lambda_j - \mu) u_j$$
$$(A - \mu I)^{-1} u_j = \frac{1}{(\lambda_j - \mu)} u_j$$

The matrix $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$ has $\frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu}$ as the dominant eigenvalue.



So, we have $A u_j$ is equal to $\lambda_j u_j$, j is equal to 1 to up to n , μ being an approximation to λ_1 , modulus of μ minus λ_1 is less than modulus of μ minus λ_j , j not equal to 1.

Now, from here $A u_j$ is equal to $\lambda_j u_j$ gives us A minus μI u_j is equal to λ_j minus μ u_j ; assume that μ is not equal to λ_1 ; that means, it is not an eigen value.

So, A minus μI will be invertible and then from this relation we obtain A minus μI inverse u_j to be equal to $\frac{1}{\lambda_j - \mu} u_j$.

I apply A minus μI throughout - A minus μI inverse throughout; left hand side will be u_j is equal to λ_j minus μ A minus μI inverse u_j and take λ_j minus μ on the other side.

Now, look at this - we have got modulus of μ minus λ_1 to be less than modulus of μ minus λ_j , j not equal to 1; if I take the reciprocal $\frac{1}{|\mu - \lambda_1|}$ will be strictly bigger than $\frac{1}{|\mu - \lambda_j|}$, j not equal to 1, which will mean that $\frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu}$ this is going to be a dominant eigen value of matrix A minus μI inverse.

The idea now, is to apply our power method to this $A - \mu I$ inverse; in power method, we need dominant eigen value; now, our $A - \mu I$ inverse has dominant eigen value $\frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu}$.

So, modulus of $\frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu}$ is strictly bigger than modulus of $\frac{1}{\lambda_j - \mu}$.

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Choose $z \neq \vec{0}$.

Define $z^{(0)} = \frac{z}{\|z\|}$,

$$z^{(k)} = \frac{(A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{(k-1)}}{\|(A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{(k-1)}\|}$$

Then $z^{(k)} \rightarrow w$, where

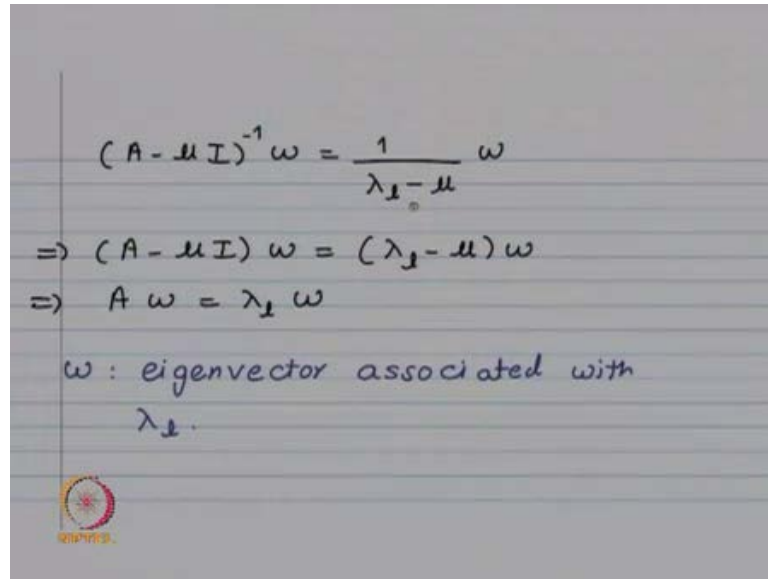
$$(A - \mu I)^{-1} w = \frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} w$$

Here are our iterates - choose z not equal to 0 vector, an arbitrarily vector define z_0 to be equal to z upon norm z and then z_k - the k th iterate, will be $A - \mu I$ inverse z_{k-1} divided by its norm.

It is exactly the power method, which is applied to the matrix $A - \mu I$ inverse; then, this z_k is going to converge to, say, vector w ; this vector w will be eigen vector associated with matrix $A - \mu I$ inverse and $\frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu}$ being the eigen value. Now, what we are interested in is eigen values of matrix A and associated eigen vectors.

We have obtained approximation to an eigen vector w or we have obtained - yeah - approximation to an eigen vector w , which is eigen vector of $A - \mu I$ inverse. But, this w is also going to be eigen vector of A associated with eigen value λ_1 .

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$$(A - \mu I)^{-1} w = \frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} w$$
$$\Rightarrow (A - \mu I) w = (\lambda_1 - \mu) w$$
$$\Rightarrow A w = \lambda_1 w$$

w : eigenvector associated with λ_1 .

$(A - \mu I)^{-1} w$ is equal to $\frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} w$; that will mean that $(A - \mu I) w$ is equal to $(\lambda_1 - \mu) w$; this μw will get cancelled and then you are left with $A w = \lambda_1 w$.

So, w is eigen vector associated with λ_1 . Thus, when we define the iterates in the inverse power method they involve matrix $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$. You get an approximation and you get the limiting vector as w ; this w is going to be eigen vector of A associated with eigen value λ_1 .

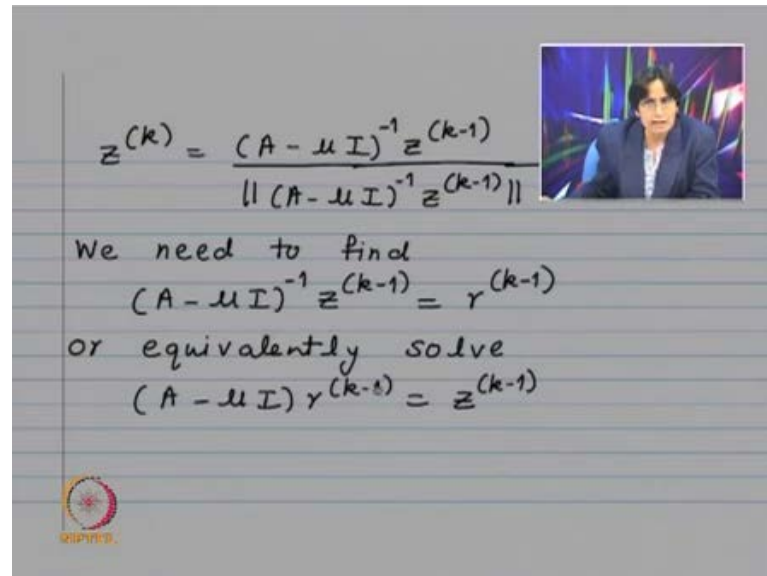
If λ_1 is the dominant eigen value - power method - in that case, we obtained eigen vector associated with λ_1 ; when you apply power method to matrix A^{-1} we obtained approximation to eigen vector associated with λ_1 .

If μ - an approximation to eigen value λ_1 is available, then we obtain approximation to eigen vector associated with λ_1 , where λ_1 can be - it is an intermediate eigen value. You need to have approximation μ available.

Here, there can be some problem or we want to see whether they is going to be a problem; what is the problem? We are saying that μ is going to be an approximation to λ_1 ; λ_1 is eigen value, so, our $(A - \lambda_1 I)^{-1}$ is not an invertible matrix; now, when you are going to have μ to be a better and better approximation to your eigen value λ_1 , $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$ can be ill conditioned.

Then whether this is going to pose a problem - now we will see that it does not matter in this particular case.

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The slide contains the following content:

$$z^{(k)} = \frac{(A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{(k-1)}}{\| (A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{(k-1)} \|}$$

We need to find

$$(A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{(k-1)} = r^{(k-1)}$$

or equivalently solve

$$(A - \mu I) r^{(k-1)} = z^{(k-1)}$$

A small video inset in the top right corner shows a person with dark hair and a blue jacket. A logo is visible in the bottom left corner of the slide.

We have, in the inverse power method, we need to find z^k to be equal to $(A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{k-1}$ divided by norm of $(A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{k-1}$.

Now, we are not going to calculate $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$. So, this $(A - \mu I)^{-1} z^{k-1}$ will be obtained by solving a system of linear equations $(A - \mu I) r^{k-1} = z^{k-1}$ we want to calculate this. So, I am denoting it by r^{k-1} .

Now, this r^{k-1} is going to be the solution of the system $(A - \mu I) r^{k-1} = z^{k-1}$; z^{k-1} is known, it is coming from the iterations step. So, we need to calculate this r^{k-1} and then divide by its norm so that you get the next iterate.

What I was saying - whether we are going to have some problem about the stability.

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A invertible matrix.
 λ, μ eigenvalues of A
 $|\lambda| \leq \|A\|, \frac{1}{|\mu|} \leq \|A^{-1}\|$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{|\lambda|}{|\mu|} \leq \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{|\lambda_1|}{|\lambda_n|} \leq \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$

Here, if A is an invertible matrix and lambda and mu are eigen values of A, then modulus of lambda is less than or equal to norm of a; it follows from our basic inequality.

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$\|Ax\| = \|\lambda x\| \quad x \neq \bar{0}$
 $= |\lambda| \|x\|$
 $|\lambda| = \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} \leq \|A\|$
 $\max_{x \neq \bar{0}} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}$
 $|\lambda| \leq \|A\| \quad Ay = \mu y$
 $A^{-1}y = \frac{1}{\mu} y \quad \left| \frac{1}{\mu} \right| \leq \|A^{-1}\|$

You have got - suppose you have $Ax = \lambda x$, $x \neq 0$ vector; then, take norm of both the sides. So, norm of Ax is equal to norm of λx ; this will be modulus of lambda times norm x by property of norm.

Hence, $\text{mod } \lambda$ will be equal to $\|Ax\|$ divided by $\|x\|$ and this will be less than or equal to $\|A\|$, where $\|A\|$ is maximum of $\|Az\|$ divided by $\|z\|$; z not equal to 0 vector.

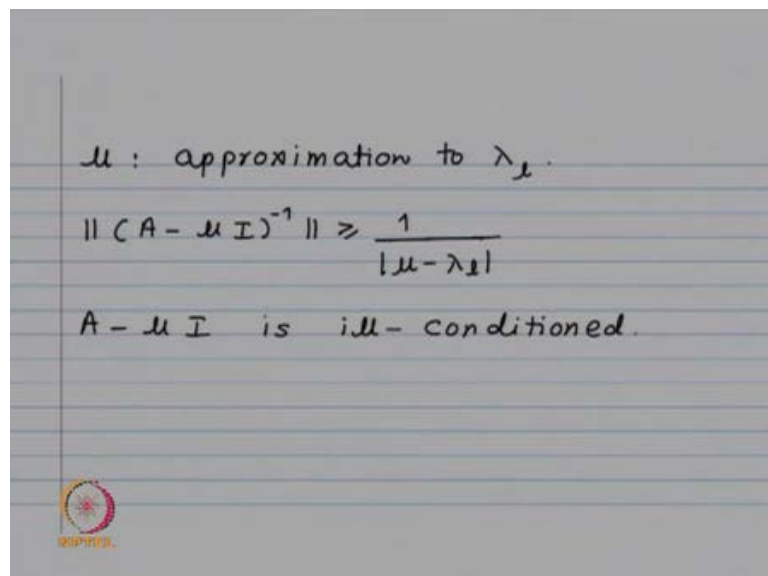
Thus, we have got $\text{mod } \lambda$ to be less than or equal to $\|A\|$; if you consider $Ay = \mu y$ - another vector, another eigen value μ and associated eigen vector. If A is invertible, $A^{-1}y$ will be equal to $\frac{1}{\mu}y$; hence, again using similar inequality you get modulus of $\frac{1}{\mu}$ to be less than or equal to $\|A^{-1}\|$.

So, the condition number $\|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$ will be bigger than or equal to $\frac{\|A\|}{\text{mod } \lambda}$ by $\text{mod } \mu$, where λ and μ are any eigen values of matrix A .

Here we have A is invertible matrix, λ and μ are eigen values of A , $\text{mod } \lambda$ to be less than or equal to $\|A\|$, $\frac{1}{\text{mod } \mu}$ - will be less than or equal to $\|A^{-1}\|$.

Take the quotient; this is the condition number of matrix A it is bigger than or equal to this and if your eigen values are arranged in descending order of modulus, then we have $\frac{\|A\|}{\text{mod } \lambda_1} \leq \|A\| \|A^{-1}\| \leq \frac{\|A\|}{\text{mod } \lambda_n}$.

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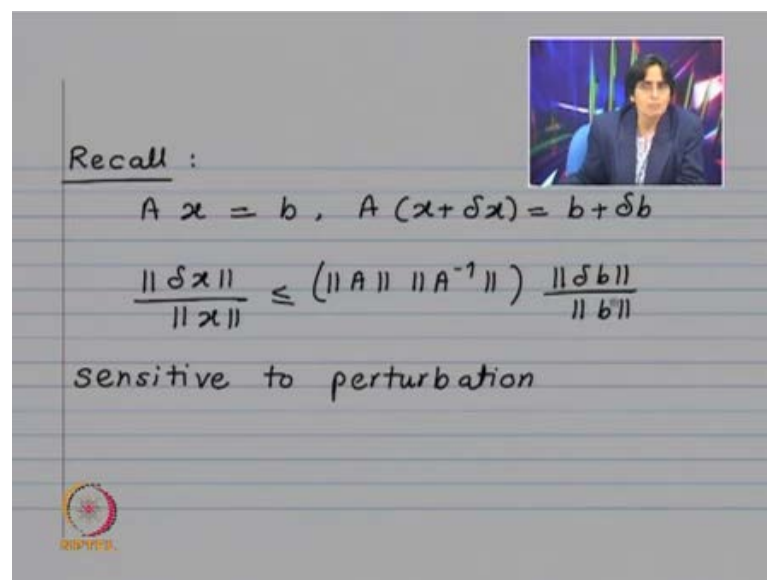
Let us go back to our $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$; μ is approximation to λ_l . So, norm of $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$ is going to be bigger than or equal to $\frac{1}{|\mu - \lambda_l|}$; if μ is approximation to λ_l - a good approximation - good

approximation will mean that denominator is small; that means, $1 / \text{mod } \mu - \lambda$ will be big and then your matrix $A - \mu I$ is going to be ill conditioned.

Now, we have considered the perturbation theory; in the perturbation theory, if your matrix A is ill conditioned - that means, if $\|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$ is big, then the solution is sensitive to the perturbation in the right hand side.

We had looked at $Ax = b$, perturb b is slightly; consider the nearby system $A(x + \delta x) = b + \delta b$, then even though $\|\delta b\| / \|b\|$ is small $\|\delta x\| / \|x\|$ can be big.

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Recall :

$$Ax = b, \quad A(x + \delta x) = b + \delta b$$
$$\frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq (\|A\| \|A^{-1}\|) \frac{\|\delta b\|}{\|b\|}$$

sensitive to perturbation

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In fact, we had proved this inequality - $\|\delta x\| / \|x\|$ is less than or equal to $\|A\| \|A^{-1}\| \|\delta b\| / \|b\|$.

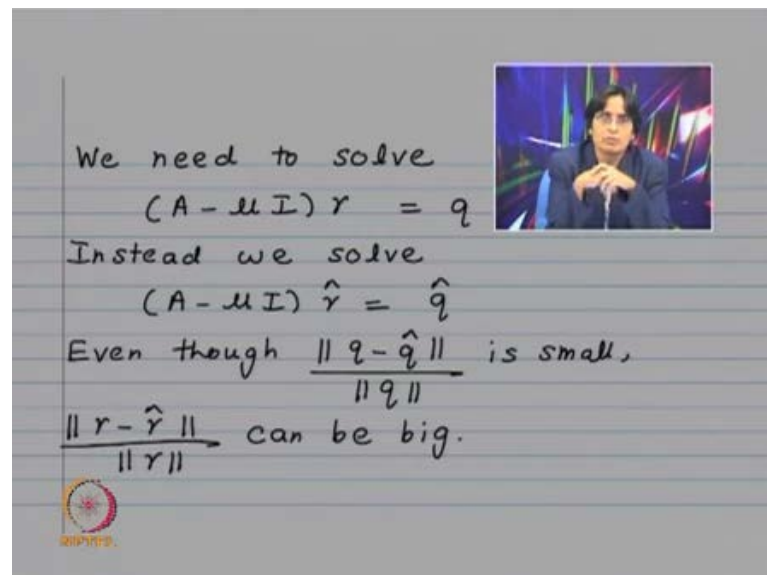
This can be small, but if you are multiplying by a big number then $\|\delta x\| / \|x\|$ which is the relative error in the computed solution; x is the exact solution, because of finite precision instead of b it is going to be $b + \delta b$; so, $x + \delta x$ will be computed solution.

The relative error in the computed solution will be $\|\delta x\| / \|x\|$; this can be big even though $\|\delta b\| / \|b\|$ is small.

Now, this situation is going to occur in our case we are calculating our z_k ; the k th iterate was given by $(A - \mu I)^{-1} z_{k-1}$ - the earlier iterate divided by its norm. So, we need to calculate $(A - \mu I)^{-1} z_{k-1}$, which we denote it by r_{k-1} .

That means, we need to solve $(A - \mu I) r_{k-1} = z_{k-1}$; now, this $(A - \mu I)$ will be ill conditioned and hence our solution, r_{k-1} , will be sensitive to the perturbation. This is what in general - at each stage we will be solving $(A - \mu I) r = q$.

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We need to solve
 $(A - \mu I) r = q$
 Instead we solve
 $(A - \mu I) \hat{r} = \hat{q}$
 Even though $\frac{\|q - \hat{q}\|}{\|q\|}$ is small,
 $\frac{\|r - \hat{r}\|}{\|r\|}$ can be big.

Now, in practice instead of this you are going to solve $(A - \mu I) \hat{r} = \hat{q}$, where \hat{q} is the near by vector.

Even though $\frac{\|q - \hat{q}\|}{\|q\|}$ is small, because $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$ has a big norm, $\frac{\|r - \hat{r}\|}{\|r\|}$ can be big. This is something we need to worry about, because as such when we talk about the approximation μ should be available to λ .

Then the better the approximation our task should be simplified; it should not face such difficulty that when you have better and better approximation of μ to λ available then your problem becomes more and more ill conditioned.; then, the relative error in the computed solution becomes bigger and bigger.

In this particular application, it does not matter because we are not interested in the computed solution, but we are interested in direction; we are trying to find an eigen vector; what is important is the eigen direction.

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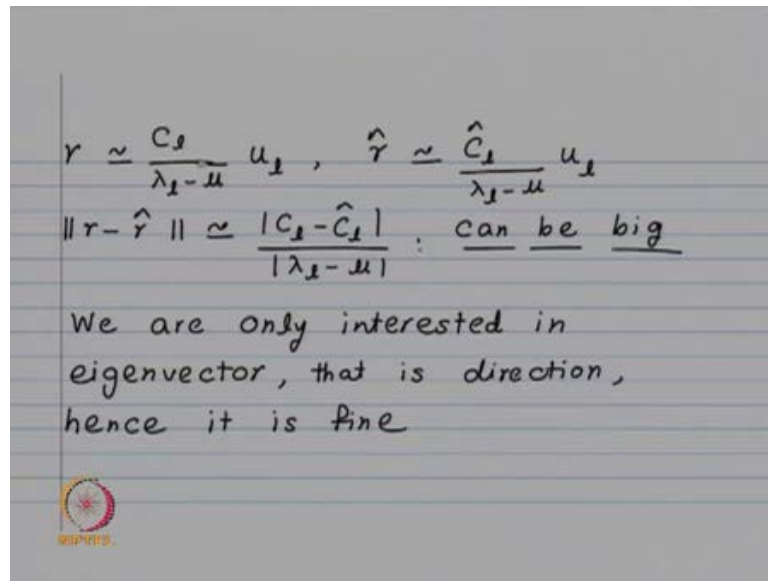
$$\begin{aligned}
 q &= C_1 u_1 + C_2 u_2 + \dots + C_n u_n \\
 \hat{q} &= \hat{C}_1 u_1 + \hat{C}_2 u_2 + \dots + \hat{C}_n u_n \\
 r &= (A - \mu I)^{-1} q = \frac{C_1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} u_1 + \dots + \frac{C_1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} u_1 \\
 &\quad \dots + \frac{C_n}{\lambda_n - \mu} u_n \\
 \hat{r} &= (A - \mu I)^{-1} \hat{q} = \frac{\hat{C}_1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} u_1 + \dots + \frac{\hat{C}_1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} u_1 \\
 &\quad \dots + \frac{C_n}{\lambda_n - \mu} u_n
 \end{aligned}$$

Let me make it more specific - suppose our q the - right hand side q - we are looking at q to be a minus μ i r is equal to q and this is the... Instead, we are going to solve this - our A has a basis of eigen vectors u_1, u_2 and u_n ; hence, our q will be $c_1 u_1$ plus $c_2 u_2$ plus $c_n u_n$ - a linear combination.

Q cap, which is nearby vector will also have a linear combination c_1 cap u_1 plus c_2 cap u_2 plus c_n cap u_n ; r is A minus μ i inverse q ; A minus μ i inverse u_1 is going to be c_1 upon λ_1 minus μ u_1 plus c_1 upon λ_1 minus μ u_1 plus c_n upon λ_n minus μ u_n ; here, for r cap you are going to have c_1 cap upon λ_1 minus μ u_1 etcetera.

q n q cap are near. The distance between c_1 and c_1 cap c_2 and c_2 cap that is going to be small, when you look at r minus r cap look at this component, here you have c_1 upon λ_1 minus μ into u_1 ; here you have c_1 cap upon λ_1 minus μ u_1 . So, c_1 minus c_1 cap is small, but you are multiplying by big number - 1 upon λ_1 minus μ .

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$$r \approx \frac{c_1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} u_1, \quad \hat{r} \approx \frac{\hat{C}_1}{\lambda_1 - \mu} u_1$$
$$\|r - \hat{r}\| \approx \frac{|c_1 - \hat{C}_1|}{|\lambda_1 - \mu|} : \text{can be big}$$

We are only interested in eigenvector, that is direction, hence it is fine

So, our r is approximately equal to c_1 upon $\lambda_1 - \mu$ u_1 , because that is going to be the significant part - \hat{r} will be \hat{C}_1 upon $\lambda_1 - \mu$ u_1 . Norm of $r - \hat{r}$ will be approximately equal to modulus of $c_1 - \hat{C}_1$ upon modulus of $\lambda_1 - \mu$.

Now, this can be big, but we are not interested in what \hat{r} is we are interested only in the eigenvector that is the direction. So, even when you calculate \hat{r} then what we do is you normalize it.

The exact solution is r ; then, you consider r upon norm r , because when you are applying inverse power method you calculate $(A - \mu I)^{-k} z$ and divide by its norm; so, $(A - \mu I)^{-k} z$ is r^{k-1} - you are dividing by its norm; instead of r^{k-1} you are going to have some \hat{r}^{k-1} , where if you consider the values they may differ, but for both r^{k-1} and \hat{r}^{k-1} significant part is going to be in the direction of u_1 .

We are dividing by norm then the numerical values - they do not really matter; what is happening is the direction for both the exact solution and the computed solution.

The component in the direction of u_1 becomes significant and that is why there is no contradiction in our method; that when you have better and better approximation to

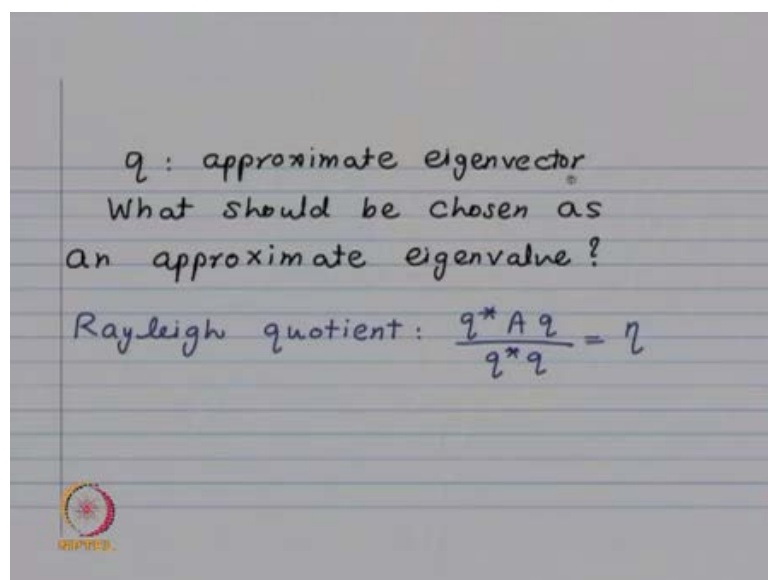
λ_1 that will give us faster convergence to eigen vector corresponding to eigen value λ_1 .

So far we have been talking about approximation to eigen vector; in the power method we had approximation to the eigen vector associated with λ_1 ; when you applied it to an inverse it is eigen vector associated with λ_n and in the inverse power method it is eigen vector associated with eigen value λ_1 .

I have obtained an approximation to eigen vector; now, what about eigen value? When we talked about exact eigen value and exact eigen vector we said that if I know eigen vector then finding eigen value is easy - you have to just find constant of proportionality; if v is eigen vector of matrix A then look at two vectors $A v$ and v , these two they are proportional; I find what is the constant of proportionality between the two. Here, our eigen vector is only approximate. So, what best eigen value approximation can I choose?

That means - suppose I give you an eigen vector approximation and I want to know this is eigen vector corresponding to which eigen value? The best way it can be done is by considering the Rayleigh quotient. So, the Rayleigh quotient has got some minimization property, which we now consider.

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You have q to be an approximation eigen vector; the question is what should be chosen as an approximate eigen value? The answer is choose Rayleigh quotient which is $q^* A q$ divided by $q^* q$ which is equal to η .

Now, let me tell you what is the minimization property of Rayleigh quotient. So, we consider η to be equal to $q^* A q$; so, our q is approximate eigen vector.

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a slide:

$$q: \text{approximate } \vec{e}_v.$$

$$\eta = \frac{q^* A q}{q^* q} \quad \eta, z \in \mathbb{C}$$

$$\langle Aq - \eta q, q \rangle = q^* (Aq - \eta q)$$

$$= q^* Aq - \eta q^* q = 0$$

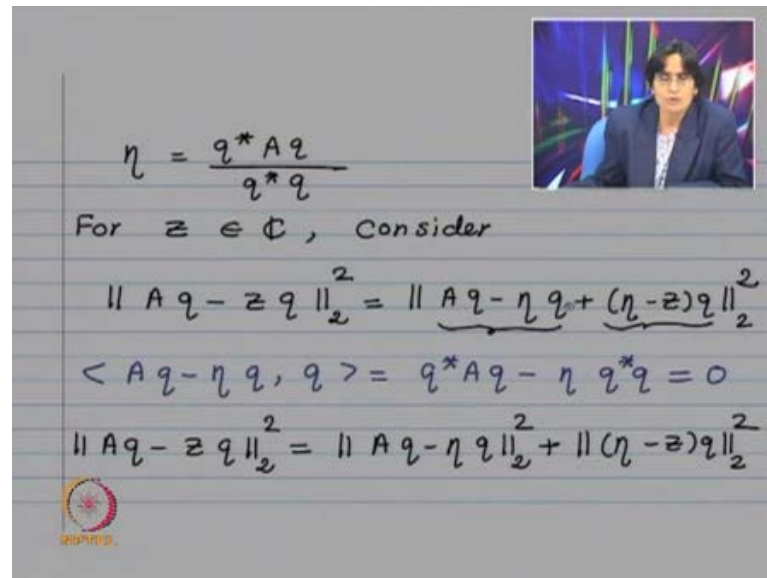
$$z \in \mathbb{C} \quad \| Aq - zq \|_2^2$$

$$= \| \underbrace{Aq - \eta q}_0 + \underbrace{\eta q - zq}_0 \|_2^2$$

Then, η is $q^* A q$ divided by $q^* q$; if I consider $Aq - \eta q$ - its inner product with q , this will be nothing but $q^* Aq - \eta q^* q$ which is going to be equal to $q^* Aq - \eta q^* q$ - is a complex number - so, it is minus $\eta q^* q$; using this result, this is going to be equal to zero.

That means $Aq - \eta q$ is going to be perpendicular to vector q ; now, let z be any complex number and look at norm of $Aq - zq$ - its two norm, let me take its square; this will be equal to norm of $Aq - \eta q$ plus $\eta q - zq$ - add and subtract; here is one vector here is another vector, our η and z these are complex numbers. So, we have got vector $\eta q - zq$ into q ; $Aq - \eta q$ is perpendicular to q - it is perpendicular to any multiple, which will mean that these two vectors they are perpendicular; we can use Pythagoras theorem.

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$$\eta = \frac{q^* A q}{q^* q}$$

For $z \in \mathbb{C}$, consider

$$\|Aq - zq\|_2^2 = \| \underbrace{Aq - \eta q}_{\perp} + \underbrace{(\eta - z)q} \|_2^2$$
$$\langle Aq - \eta q, q \rangle = q^* A q - \eta q^* q = 0$$
$$\|Aq - zq\|_2^2 = \|Aq - \eta q\|_2^2 + \|(\eta - z)q\|_2^2$$

So, we have got norm of $Aq - zq$ square to be equal to $\|Aq - \eta q\|_2^2 + \|(\eta - z)q\|_2^2$ for any z belonging to \mathbb{C} .

Using orthogonality property, this vector is perpendicular to this vector $(\eta - z)q$; this two norms square will be nothing but square of norm of this $Aq - \eta q$ square plus norm of $(\eta - z)q$ square.

What does this relation tell us? It tells us that two norm of $Aq - zq$ is going to be bigger than or equal to two norm of $Aq - \eta q$.

Our vector q is approximate eigen vector; we cannot hope to find a complex number λ such that $Aq = \lambda q$; but, what we are saying is - look at the Rayleigh quotient $q^* A q / q^* q$ that we denote by η .

Now, consider two norm of $Aq - \eta q$; this norm will be less than or equal to norm of $Aq - zq$, where z is any complex number. The Rayleigh quotient η minimizes two norm of $Aq - zq$ where z varies over the complex plane and that is why if you are given q to be an approximate eigen vector the best you can do is choose eigen value approximation to be the Rayleigh quotient $q^* A q / q^* q$.

If your q happens to be exact eigen vector, then your η will be - suppose your $Aq = \lambda q$, then $q^* A q$ will be $q^* \lambda q$; that means, $\lambda q^* q$ because λ is a complex number.

You have η to be equal to $-\frac{\lambda \mathbf{q}^* \mathbf{q}}{\mathbf{q}^* \mathbf{q}}$ in the numerator λ times $\mathbf{q}^* \mathbf{q}$ divided by denominator is $\mathbf{q}^* \mathbf{q}$; so, you get η is equal to λ . So, the Rayleigh quotient associated with the exact eigen vector is nothing but the eigen value itself; if it is not an eigen vector then it minimizes two norm of vector $\mathbf{a} - \eta \mathbf{q}$.

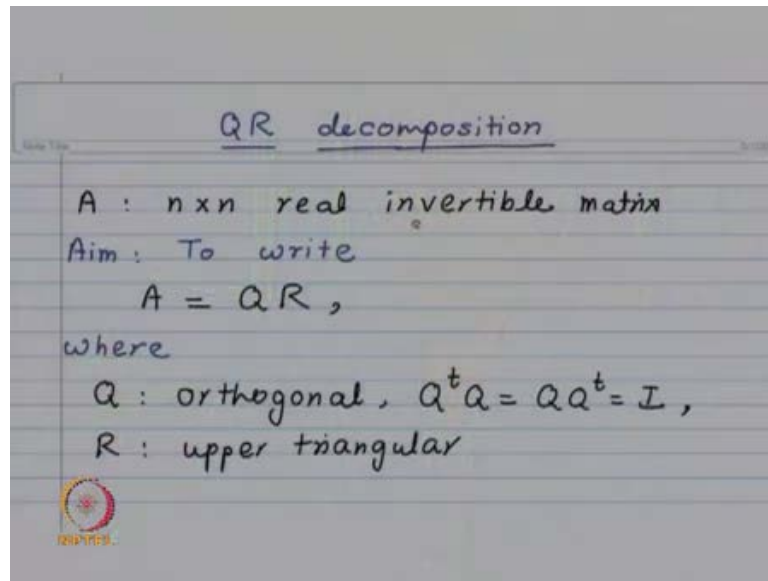
Next, I want to consider $\mathbf{q r}$ decomposition. The reason I am going to consider $\mathbf{q r}$ decomposition is I want to describe what is a $\mathbf{q r}$ method for calculating eigen values of a matrix \mathbf{A} or finding approximations to eigen values of matrix \mathbf{A} .

Now, the description of $\mathbf{q r}$ method is easy; you will see that we can quickly describe what is $\mathbf{q r}$ method. What is difficult is to show its convergence and also why it works; unfortunately these things are involved, so we are not going to do these things in detail; but, I want to tell you what is a $\mathbf{q r}$ method, which is the currently used method for - or it is the best method available for calculating eigen values of matrix \mathbf{A} .

There is a relation between power method and $\mathbf{q r}$ method. What we have done is we have considered power method to find approximation to one eigen vector; now, instead of one eigen vector you can consider several eigen vectors together.

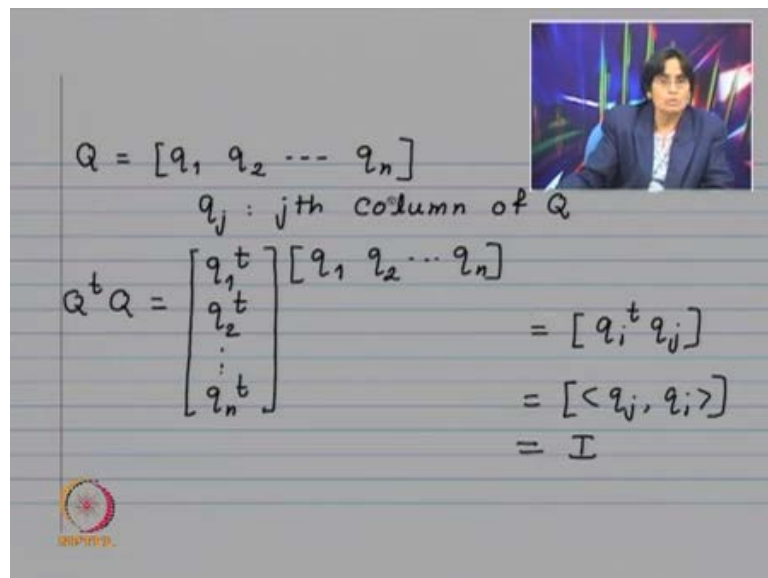
That gives rise to what is known as simultaneous iteration, and the best implementation of simultaneous iteration is done by $\mathbf{q r}$ method. Anyway, let us first look at what is $\mathbf{q r}$ decomposition of a matrix \mathbf{A} ; for simplicity, let me assume \mathbf{a} to be an invertible matrix and also let us look at the matrix to be real matrix; $\mathbf{q r}$ decomposition is available for complex matrices also, but just for the sake of simplicity let us restrict ourselves to real matrices. So, our assumption is \mathbf{A} is real n by n matrix and we want to write it as $\mathbf{q r}$ where \mathbf{q} is an orthogonal matrix; that means $\mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{q}$ is equal to identity and \mathbf{r} is an upper triangular matrix.

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Here is A , n by n real invertible matrix; aim is to write A is equal to q into R where q is orthogonal; that means, q transpose q is equal to q , q transpose is equal to identity and R is upper triangular.

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Let me write it as q_1, q_2 and q_n - these are the columns of Q . Q is going to be a n by n matrix and these are - q_1 is the first column, q_2 is the second column and q_n is n th column.

Now, what will be Q transpose? Q transpose will be given by q_1 transpose, q_2 transpose and q_n transpose; q_n is n by 1 vector, when I take its transpose then it becomes a row vector; here, q_1 is the first column of Q ; q_1 transpose is going to be first row of Q transpose; then, q_2 transpose and q_n transpose multiplied by q_1, q_2, q_n . So, when I consider Q transpose Q it will be first row into first column, first row into second column and so on - the usual matrix multiplication .

The i j th element of Q transpose Q will be given by i th row here - that will be q_i transpose multiplied by j th column here, so it is q_i transpose q_j ; our notation is inner product of q_j with q_i . Q transpose Q is equal to identity. So, identity matrix means 1 along the diagonal and 0 elsewhere; $q_j q_i$ is the i j th entry of q transpose q .

So, q transpose q is equal to identity is equivalent to saying that inner product of q_j with q_i will be 1 if i is equal to j 0 if i not equal to j , which will mean that the columns of q are orthonormal.

We had seen similar relation for unitary matrices, when we considered $q^* q - q$ is equal to identity; q^* means conjugate transpose, q unitary means the columns of q are orthonormal - it is exactly - it is a special case.

Actually, that q transpose q is equal to identity; that means, the columns of q are orthonormal; now, orthogonal matrix also satisfies $q q$ transpose is equal to identity.

From that we can deduce that the rows of q ; they are going to be orthonormal. Orthogonal matrix is that matrix which has - if you look at any column its Euclidean norm is going to be equal to 1 and that column will be perpendicular to any other column and similar property holds for rows of matrix q .

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$$Q^T Q = I$$
$$\Rightarrow \langle q_j, q_i \rangle = q_i^T q_j = \begin{cases} 1, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

The columns of Q are orthonormal.

$$Q Q^T = I \Rightarrow \text{The rows of } Q \text{ are orthonormal}$$

We have got Q transpose Q is equal to identity; that means, inner product of q_j with q_i is one if i is equal to j , 0 if i not equal to j .

So, the columns of q are orthonormal and $q q$ transpose is equal to identity; that means, the rows of q are orthonormal.

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$$A = QR, \quad Q \text{ orthogonal,}$$
$$R : \text{upper triangular}$$
$$[C_1 \ C_2 \ \dots \ C_n] = [q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_n] \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & \dots & r_{1n} \\ 0 & r_{22} & \dots & r_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & r_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$C_1 = r_{11} q_1$$
$$C_2 = r_{12} q_1 + r_{22} q_2$$

...

Now, we are trying to write A as Q into r , where Q is orthogonal and

R is upper triangular. So, let me write columns of A as c_1, c_2 and c_n . So, c_1, c_2 and c_n is equal to q_1, q_2 and q_n and then here is upper triangular matrix. So, below diagonal call the entries are going to be 0.

Now, let me equate the columns; the first column c_1 will be nothing but r_{11} times q_1 second column c_2 will be given by r_{12} into q_1 plus r_{22} into q_2 etcetera.

This is just property of matrix multiplication; we have got c_1, c_2 and c_n to be columns of our original matrix A; suppose, we write it as q into r , then first column of q which is c_1 will be r_{11} times q_1 .

So, c_1 is r_{11} times q_1 the second column c_2 will be r_{12} times q_1 plus r_{22} times q_2 ; now, look at the first relation - c_1 is equal to r_{11} times q_1 .

Now, q_1 - just now we have seen that the columns of q they form an orthonormal **say**; that means, Euclidean norm of q_1 is going to be equal to one.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 c_1 &= r_{11} q_1 \\
 \|c_1\|_2 &= \|r_{11} q_1\|_2 \\
 &= |r_{11}| \|q_1\|_2 \\
 r_{11} &= \|c_1\|_2 \quad \checkmark \\
 \text{or } r_{11} &= -\|c_1\|_2 \\
 q_1 &= \frac{c_1}{\|c_1\|_2}
 \end{aligned}$$

We have got c_1 , which is the first column of A; this is r_{11} times q_1 , so norm of c_1 - its two norm is equal to norm of r_{11} q_1 ; this will be modulus of r_{11} and then norm of q_1 norm and this is equal to one.

For modulus of r_{11} we have got a choice - you can either choose r_{11} to be equal to norm of c_1 or r_{11} is equal to minus norm of c_1 ; you get q_1 to be equal to c_1

divided by norm of c_2 , if you choose this. So, the matrix a is given to us; that means, I know what its column c_1 is; I am trying to write it as q into r where q is orthonormal and r is upper triangular.

If you want to consider q_1 - the first column, it will be nothing but the c_1 normalized like the first column of a which we are denoting by c_1 it need not have Euclidean norm to be equal to one, so you divide by its norm.

Looking at c_1 is equal to r_{11} into q_1 , we get q_1 will be nothing - first of all r_{11} , we have to make a choice either you choose it to be positive or you choose it to be negative.

For the sake of definiteness, let us choose r_{11} to be bigger than 0, then our r_{11} will be nothing but c_1 divided by its Euclidean norm - that is for the first. That means, we have determined what should be the first column of q and what should be the entry r_{11} in the upper triangular matrix.

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$$c_2 = r_{12}q_1 + r_{22}q_2$$

$$c_2 - r_{12}q_1 = r_{22}q_2$$

$$\langle c_2, q_1 \rangle = r_{12} \langle q_1, q_1 \rangle$$

$$\|c_2 - r_{12}q_1\|_2 = |r_{22}|$$

Now, in the second one, you have the relation c_2 is equal to $r_{12}q_1$ plus $r_{22}q_2$; we have already determined q_1 , so, we have c_2 minus $r_{12}q_1$ is equal to r_{22} into q_2 .

Now, I need to determine what is r_{12} what is r_{22} and what is q_2 ; q_1 is determined; these are the three things to be determined. I make use of the fact that q_1 and q_2 are perpendicular to each other; inner product of c_2 with q_1 will be r_{12} and inner product of q_1 with q_1 - this is going to be equal to 1.

This determines r_{12} , because c_2 is known q_1 is known take their inner product and that will be r_{12} ; now, after this go to this relation and then take norm of $c_2 - r_{12}q_1$ - its two norm - will be modulus of r_{22} because norm q_2 is 1. So, once again choose r_{22} to be bigger than 0 so that you would have determined r_{22} and then q_2 will be nothing but - we have determined $r_{22} - q_2$ will be $c_2 - r_{12}q_1$ divided by r_{22} .

In this manner we can determine the matrix q and matrix r . So, any invertible matrix can be written as product of q into r .

In our next lecture we will consider the relation between A is equal to QR and Gram-Schmidt Orthonormalization process, then I will describe what is a QR method and then we will consider an efficient way of finding QR decomposition matrix - QR decomposition of a matrix by using what are known as reflector.

So, this we are going to do in the next lecture. Thank you.