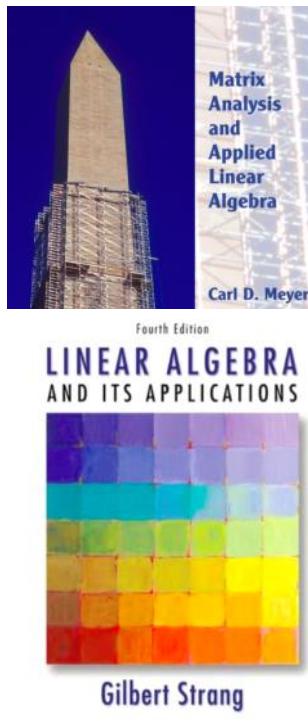


Lecture 13: Rotations and scaling

Admin:



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Concepts

Vector space

Basis

Inner products/ Norm /Orthogonality

Linear transformations

Projections

Rank

Techniques

Gaussian elimination

Gram-Schmidt

Decompositions

LU decomp.

QR decomp.

Next

Singular values

Eigenvalues/vectors

→ Singular-value decomposition

Spectral decomposition

This week: SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

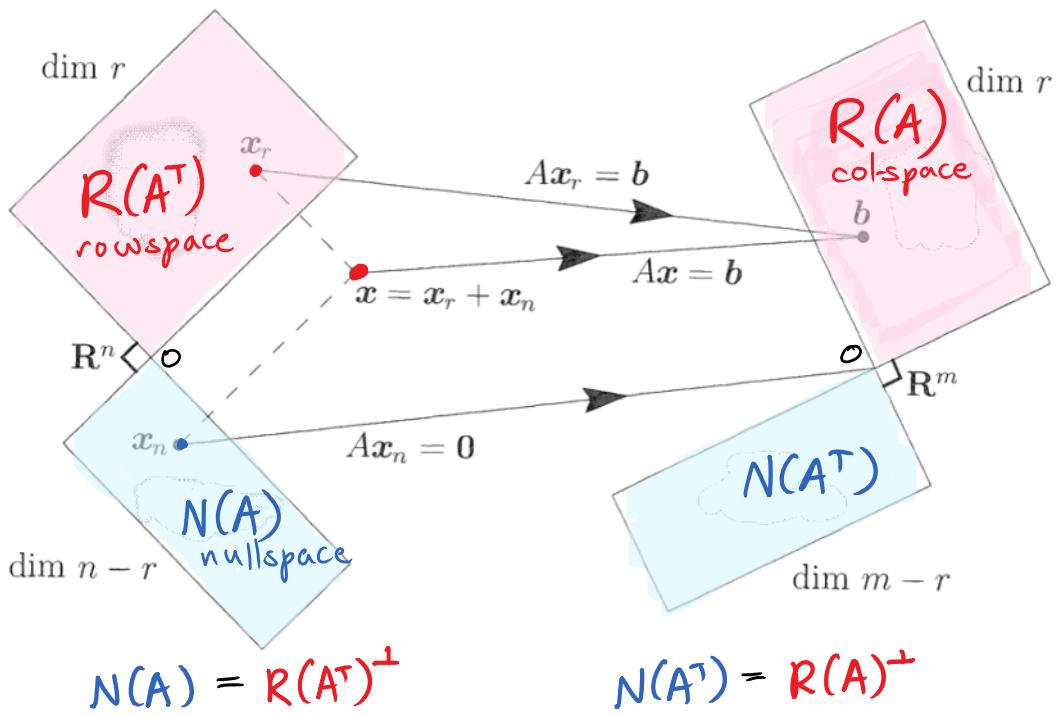
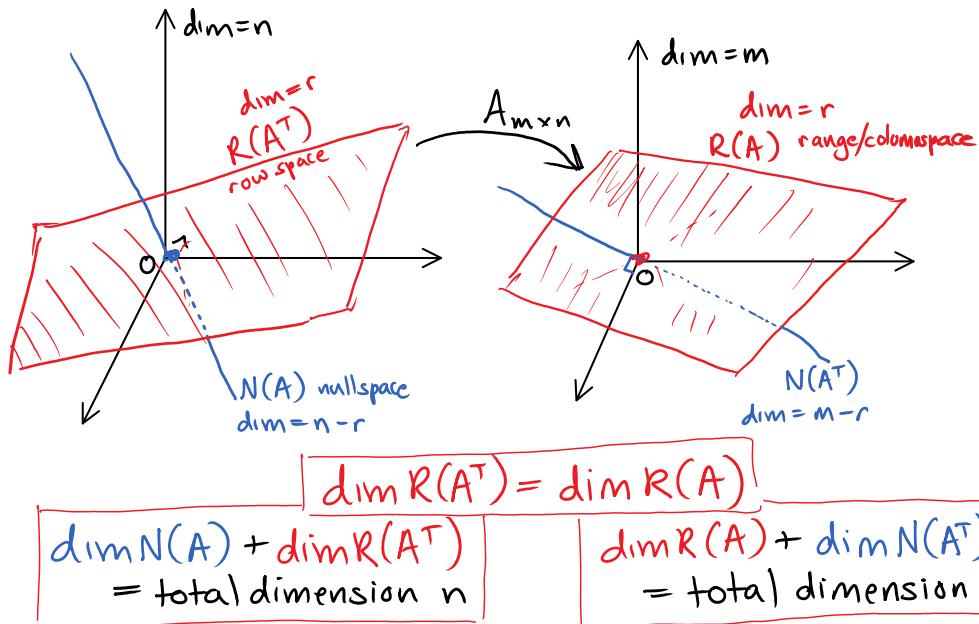
Theoretical motivation:

Any linear transformation A maps points in the rowspace $R(A^T)$ to distinct points in the columnspace $R(A)$. [Rank-Nullity thm.]

How??

↑ ↓ ← →

How??



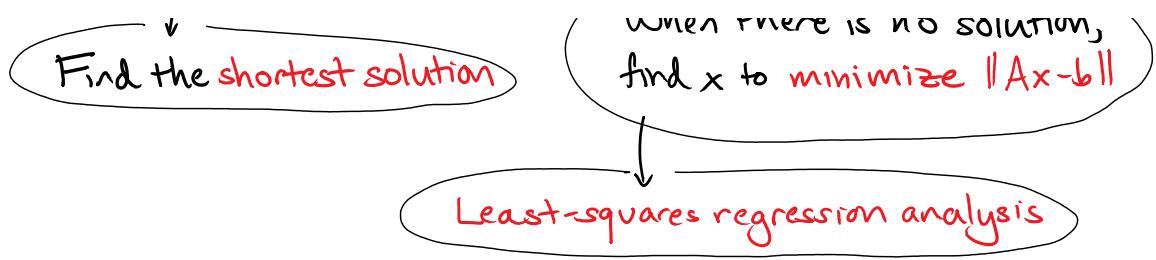
Practical motivation: Many applications, including

* Solving linear equations
 $Ax = b$

What is the **sensitivity**,
e.g., to numerical errors?

Find the shortest solution

When there is no solution,
find x to minimize $\|Ax - b\|$



* Rank minimization



Data mining, clustering, recommendation systems,...

SINGULAR-VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)

Informally: Any linear transformation can be split into:

- a **rotation**, followed by
- **scaling** vectors in or out

Before stating the theorem formally, we'll consider these pieces.

ISOMETRIES

Definition: An **isometry** is a linear transformation that **preserves length**. (iso = same metric = length/distance)
(That is, $\|A\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$ for all \vec{x} .)

Examples:

- Identity matrix I
- **Rotations**, e.g., $\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin\theta & 0 & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$
- **Reflections**, e.g., $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

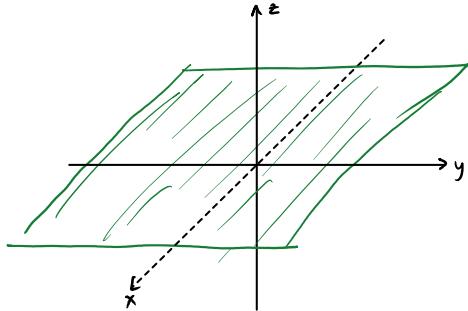
- Products of rotations and reflections

$$\|ABx\| = \|Bx\| = \|x\|$$

- Isometric "embeddings", e.g.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ puts } \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ into } \mathbb{R}^3 \text{ as the xy-plane}$$

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ puts \mathbb{R}^2 into \mathbb{R}^3
as the xy-plane



$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ also maps \mathbb{R}^2 to the xy-plane of \mathbb{R}^3
— but does not preserve lengths

- Not an isometry: anything that reduces the dimension

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} & & & n \\ m & & & \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with } m < n$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{rank}(A) = \# \text{ lin. indep. rows} \leq m$$

$$\Rightarrow \dim N(A) = n - \text{rank}(A) > 0$$

\Rightarrow lengths of nonzero vectors in $N(A)$
are sent to 0 — not preserved.

Claim: Preserves length \Rightarrow preserves angles.

Proof: Recall the angle θ between real vectors \vec{x} and \vec{y}

satisfies $\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}}{\|\vec{x}\| \cdot \|\vec{y}\|}$.

\Rightarrow We have to show that dot products are preserved.

Trick: Add the vectors, and use the cross-terms:

$$\begin{aligned} \|A(\vec{x} + \vec{y})\|^2 &= (A(\vec{x} + \vec{y})) \cdot (A(\vec{x} + \vec{y})) \\ &= (Ax) \cdot (Ax) + (Ax) \cdot (Ay) \\ &\quad + (Ay) \cdot (Ax) + (Ay) \cdot (Ay) \\ &= \|Ax\|^2 + \|Ay\|^2 + 2(Ax) \cdot (Ay) \\ &= \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 = \|\vec{x}\|^2 + \|\vec{y}\|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \quad \text{for seals, } (Ax) \cdot (Ay) = (Ay) \cdot (Ax) \\ &\Rightarrow (Ax) \cdot (Ay) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

How to tell if a matrix is an isometry?

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} & & & | \\ & & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \\ & & & | \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i e_i^T$$

The columns of an isometry are orthonormal

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i e_i^T \quad \text{isometry are orthonormal}$$

① $A\vec{e}_i = \vec{v}_i \Rightarrow \|v_i\| = 1$ all columns must have length one

$$\textcircled{2} \quad A(\vec{e}_1 + \vec{e}_2) = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$$

$$\|\vec{e}_1 + \vec{e}_2\|^2 = 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \|v_1 + v_2\|^2 = (v_1 + v_2) \cdot (v_1 + v_2) \\ &= \|v_1\|^2 + \|v_2\|^2 + (v_1 \cdot v_2 + v_2 \cdot v_1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\stackrel{\parallel}{=} 2 \operatorname{Re}(v_1 \cdot v_2) \quad \text{since } v_2 \cdot v_1 = \underset{\text{of } v_1 \cdot v_2}{\text{complex conj.}} \\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad = \operatorname{Re}(v_1 \cdot v_2) - \operatorname{Im}(v_1 \cdot v_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{Re}(v_1 \cdot v_2) = 0$$

Considering $A(\vec{e}_1 + \vec{e}_2)$ gives $\operatorname{Im}(v_1 \cdot v_2) = 0$

$\Rightarrow v_1 \cdot v_2 = 0$ different columns must be perpendicular.

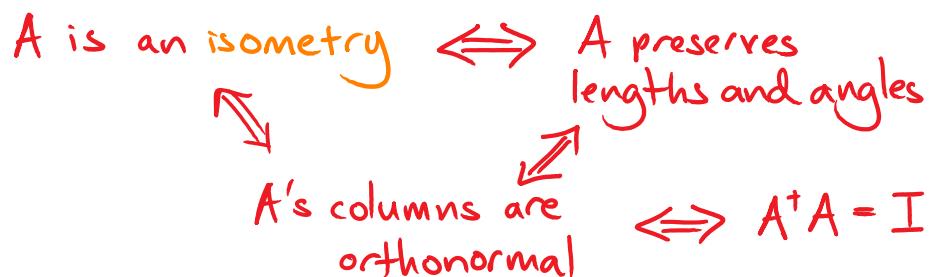
In matrix notation:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} & v_1 & & \\ \hline & \vdots & & \\ \hline & v_n & & \\ \hline \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} | & & | & \\ \hline v_1 & \cdots & v_n & \\ \hline | & & | & \\ \hline \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} v_1 \cdot v_1 & v_1 \cdot v_2 & v_1 \cdot v_3 & \cdots \\ v_2 \cdot v_1 & v_2 \cdot v_2 & v_2 \cdot v_3 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \end{array} \right) = I$$

Thus an isometry takes one orthonormal set of vectors (the standard basis) into another orthonormal set (the columns).

Exercise: Prove the converse implication:

If the columns of A are orthonormal, then A is an isometry.



Examples: $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & -\sin \theta \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Examples: $\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin\theta & 0 & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Exercise: Give an isometry from \mathbb{R} to the line $L = \{(x,y,z) \mid x=y=z\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.

Answer: The line L consists of all multiples of the unit vector $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1,1,1)$. Therefore, the matrices

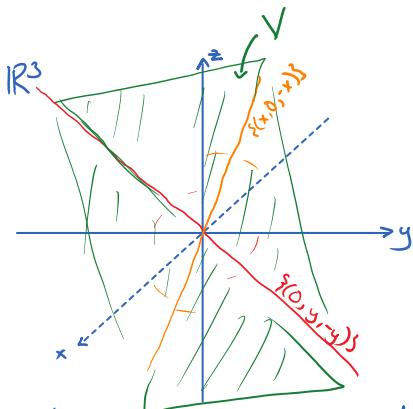
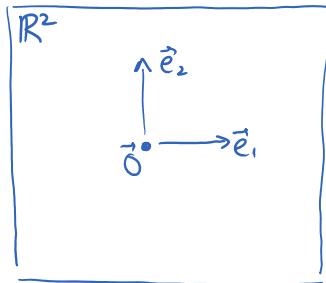
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

are both isometries from \mathbb{R} to L .

(And these are the only such isometries.) ✓

Exercise: Give an isometry from \mathbb{R}^2 to the plane $V = \{(x,y,z) \mid x+y+z=0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.

Answer: Here's a picture:



To map the plane \mathbb{R}^2 isometrically into the plane V , we just need to map \vec{e}_1 and \vec{e}_2 into two perpendicular unit vectors in V . The isometry will take

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{e}_1 &\mapsto \text{first unit vector in } V = \vec{u} \\ \vec{e}_2 &\mapsto \text{2nd unit vector in } V = \vec{v} \end{aligned}$$

How to find \vec{u} and \vec{v} ?

- \vec{u} can be an arbitrary unit vector

e.g., start with

$$(1,1,0) \in V,$$

and normalize:

$$\vec{a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -1, 0).$$

- $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ has to lie in V and be perpendicular to \vec{a} :

$$v_1 + v_2 + v_3 = 0 \quad (\vec{v} \in V)$$

$$v_1 - v_2 = 0 \quad (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{a} = 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v} = (1, 1, -2)/\sqrt{6} \quad \text{works}$$

↑ normalization

What is the matrix for our isometry?

$$\vec{e}_1 \mapsto \vec{u}, \vec{e}_2 \mapsto \vec{v}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} & & \\ \vec{u} & \vec{v} \\ & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ 0 & -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$

(Of course, this answer is not unique. We can also rotate or reflect the plane.)

Short answer:

An orthonormal basis for V is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -1, 0), \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(1, 1, -2).$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ 0 & -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{pmatrix} \text{ isometrically maps } \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ onto } V.$$

Of course, this answer is not unique. We could have rotated things around — and used any orthonormal basis for V . \checkmark

ORTHOGONAL AND UNITARY MATRICES

Definition: An "orthogonal" matrix is a square matrix isometry (ie., $n \times n$).

Recall: The columns of an isometry are orthonormal,
 $A^T A = I$.

Proposition: The rows of an orthogonal matrix are also orthonormal,
 $A A^T = I$.

Corollary:

Orthogonal matrix
 $A^T = A^{-1}$

rows are not orthogonal for isometric embeddings like $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Proof: Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix}$

A maps \vec{e}_i to \vec{v}_i

Equivalently, in more compact notation,

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^n \vec{v}_j \vec{e}_j^T \quad \left(\begin{matrix} \vec{v}_j \\ \vdots \\ \vec{v}_n \end{matrix} \right) (\vec{e}_j^T)$$

Why? Check it:

$$\begin{aligned} A \vec{e}_i &= \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \vec{v}_j \vec{e}_j^T \right) \vec{e}_i \\ &= \sum_j \vec{v}_j (\vec{e}_j^T \vec{e}_i) \\ &= \sum_j \vec{v}_j (\vec{e}_j \cdot \vec{e}_i) \quad " \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases} \\ &= \vec{v}_i \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow A^T A = \left(\sum_j \vec{v}_j \vec{e}_j^T \right)^T \left(\sum_k \vec{v}_k \vec{e}_k^T \right)$$

$$= \sum_{j,k} \vec{e}_j \underbrace{\vec{v}_j^T \vec{v}_k}_{\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{v}_k} \vec{e}_k^T$$

$$\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{v}_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j=k \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$= \sum_j \vec{e}_j \vec{e}_j^T$$

Note: $e_1 e_1^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (1 \ 0 \ 0 \ \cdots) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & & & \ddots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \end{pmatrix}$

$$e_2 e_2^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (0 \ 1 \ 0 \ \cdots 0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & & & \ddots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow e_1 e_1^T + e_2 e_2^T + \cdots + e_n e_n^T = I \text{ the identity!}$$

Next let's compute $A A^T$:

$$\begin{aligned} A A^T &= \begin{pmatrix} | & \cdots & | \\ v_1 & \cdots & v_n \\ | & \cdots & | \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1^T \\ \vdots \\ v_n^T \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \left(\sum_j v_j e_j^T \right) \left(\sum_k v_k e_k^T \right)^T \\ &= \sum_{j,k} v_j (e_j \cdot e_k) v_k^T \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n v_j v_j^T \end{aligned}$$

Claim: This is the identity again.

Why?

Call it M .

For any $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$,

$$M \vec{v}_i = \sum_j v_j v_j^T v_i = \vec{v}_i \quad \checkmark$$

so the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are all left alone.

Any other vector can be expanded out in terms of them, like

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u} &= \alpha_1 \vec{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{v}_n \\ \Rightarrow M \vec{u} &= \alpha_1 M \vec{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_n M \vec{v}_n \quad A^T = A^{-1} \quad \square \\ &= \vec{u} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Definition: An $n \times n$ complex isometry is called "unitary".

Orthogonal matrix

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

Unitary matrix

$$A^* = A^{-1}$$

More examples:

- Permutation matrices, e.g.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} : \begin{array}{l} e_1 \mapsto e_2 \\ e_2 \mapsto e_3 \\ e_3 \mapsto e_4 \\ e_4 \mapsto e_1 \end{array}$$

- Rotations, e.g.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \text{ rotates the plane } \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ counterclockwise by angle } \theta$$

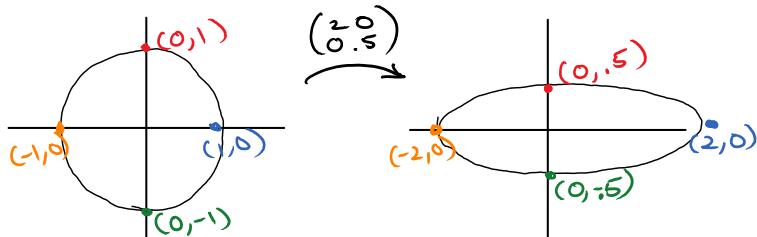
$\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$ rotates \mathbb{R}^2 by θ
 $\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ rotates \mathbb{R}^3 by θ
 about the z-axis

$$\cdot \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1+i & 1-i \\ 1+i & -1+i \end{pmatrix}$$

SCALING I.

$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ scales every vector up by 2

$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & .5 \end{pmatrix}$ scales by different amounts



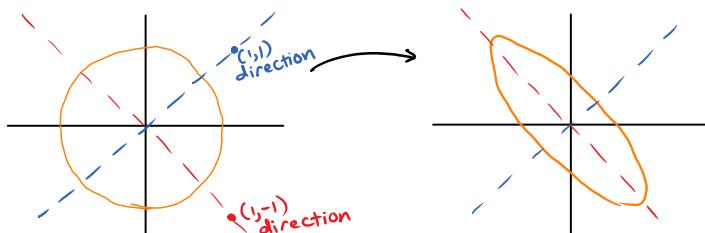
Need not be axis-aligned...

Exercise: Give a 2×2 matrix that maps

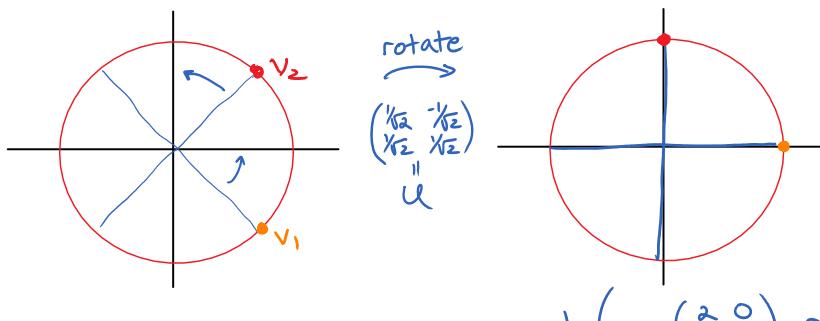
$$(1, -1) \mapsto (2, -2)$$

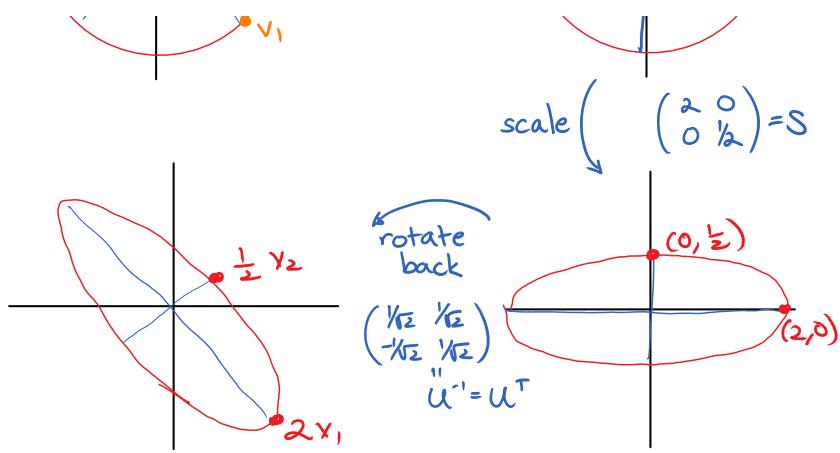
$$(1, 1) \mapsto (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$$

Answer: We want



This is the same as above, but rotated by $\pi/4$.





$\Rightarrow U^T S U$ works

Alternative answer:

Note $\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -1)^T, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, 1)^T \right\}$ is an orthonormal basis.

We want $Ax_1 = 2x_1$, $Ax_2 = \frac{1}{2}x_2$.

Set

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2x_1 x_1^T + \frac{1}{2}x_2 x_2^T \\ &= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 5/4 & -3/4 \\ -3/4 & 5/4 \end{pmatrix}. \quad A(1, -1)^T = (2, -2)^T, \\ &\quad A(1, 1)^T = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})^T \end{aligned}$$

SCALING II: MATRIX NORM

Definition: The **spectral norm** of a linear transformation

A is given by

$$\|A\| = \max_{\vec{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|}.$$

(It measures the maximum stretch of the matrix.)

(In finite dimensions, the max exists, is $< \infty$.)

Note: Often denoted $\|A\|_2$, for ℓ_2 /Euclidean norm.

Properties I:

- For any vector \vec{x} (of appropriate dimension),
 $\|A\vec{x}\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|\vec{x}\|$

- For any real/complex number α ,
 $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|A\|$.

- Triangle inequality:

$$\|A+B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|.$$

Proof: $\|A+B\| = \max_{x: \|x\|=1} \|Ax+Bx\|$

$$\leq \max_{\|x\|=1} (\|Ax\| + \|Bx\|) \quad (\Delta \text{ineq. for vectors})$$

$$\leq (\max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|) + (\max_{\|y\|=1} \|By\|)$$

$$= \|A\| + \|B\|. \quad \square$$

Examples:

- $\|I\| = 1$

- $\| \text{any isometry} \| = 1$

- $\| \text{any projection} \| = 1$, unless the projection is $\mathbf{0}$

- What is $\left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/100 \\ 1/100 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\|$?

Answer: A''

① Lower bound $\|A\vec{e}_1\| = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1/100 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{100^2}} = \|A\vec{e}_2\|$
 $\Rightarrow \|A\| \geq \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{100^2}}$

② Upper bound $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{100} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
 $\Rightarrow \|A\| \leq \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\| + \frac{1}{100} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\|$
 $= 1 + \frac{1}{100}$

③ Exact We want to find $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$, with $\|\vec{x}\| = 1$, to

maximize

$$\begin{aligned} \|A\vec{x}\|^2 &= \left\| \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + \frac{1}{100}x_2 \\ \frac{1}{100}x_1 + x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2 \\ &= (x_1 + \varepsilon x_2)^2 + (\varepsilon x_1 + x_2)^2 \\ &= (1 + \varepsilon^2)(x_1^2 + x_2^2) + 4\varepsilon x_1 x_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\|\vec{x}\|^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \Rightarrow x_2 = \pm \sqrt{1 - x_1^2}$$

We may assume that $x_1 \geq 0$ and $x_2 \geq 0$.

Why? If $x_1 < 0$, multiply \vec{x} by -1 , leaving $\|\vec{x}\|$ and $\|A\vec{x}\|$ unchanged.

If $x_1 > 0$ and $x_2 < 0$, then we can

increase $(x_1 + \varepsilon x_2)^2$ by switching the sign of x_2 .

$$\Rightarrow \|Ax\|^2 = 1 + \varepsilon^2 + 4\varepsilon x_1 \sqrt{1-x_1^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (\text{by calculus})$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A\| = \sqrt{1 + \varepsilon^2 + 2\varepsilon}$$

$$= 1 + \varepsilon$$

Observe: $\|A\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}\right)\| = 1 + \varepsilon > \|A\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right)\| = \|A\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)\| = \sqrt{1 + \varepsilon^2}$

Moral: Spreading out is good!

Problem: What are the operator norms of

$$\textcircled{a} \quad \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\varepsilon \end{pmatrix} \right) \quad \textcircled{b} \quad \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/\varepsilon \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) ?$$

Answer:

$$\textcircled{a} \quad \left\| \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\varepsilon \end{pmatrix} \right) \left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right) \right\|^2 = x_1^2 + \varepsilon^2 x_2^2$$

(Under the constraint $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$, this is largest for $|x_1| = 1$.

$$\Rightarrow \left\| \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \varepsilon \end{pmatrix} \right) \right\| = 1 \quad (\text{if } |\varepsilon| < 1).$$

$$\textcircled{b} \quad \left\| \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \varepsilon \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right) \right\| = |(1, \varepsilon) \cdot (x_1, x_2)|$$

To maximize the dot product between $(1, \varepsilon)$ and \vec{x} , subject to $\|\vec{x}\| = 1$, we should choose \vec{x} parallel to $(1, \varepsilon)$, i.e., $\vec{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\varepsilon^2}}(1, \varepsilon)$.

$$\Rightarrow \left\| \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \varepsilon \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \right\| = \frac{1+\varepsilon^2}{\sqrt{1+\varepsilon^2}} = \|(1, \varepsilon)\|$$

Observe:

- In (a), you don't want to spread out, since there is no interaction between the two blocks of the matrix.

- In general,

$$\left\| \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & B \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \max \{ \|A\|, \|B\| \}$$

$$\left\| \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & B & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & C \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \max \{ \|A\|, \|B\|, \|C\| \}, \text{ etc.}$$

- In (b), even though $\|Ae_2\| = \varepsilon \ll \|Ae_1\| = 1$, you still want to spread between the two columns to maximize the norm.

- Also, in general,

spectral matrix norm of a $1 \times n$ matrix

= Euclidean norm of the row vector

(to maximize $|\vec{v} \cdot \vec{x}|$, let $\vec{x} = \vec{v}/\|\vec{v}\|$.)

& spectral norm of an $n \times 1$ matrix
 = Euclidean norm of the column vector
 (just set $\vec{x} = (1)$)

Example: What is the spectral norm of
 $m \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ the $m \times n$ all-ones matrix?

Answer:

① Experiment numerically:

```
octave:1> m = 10;
octave:2> n = 15;
octave:3> A = ones(m,n)
A =
```

1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

```
octave:4> norm(A)
ans = 12.247
octave:5> norm(A)^2
ans = 150.00
```

\Rightarrow maybe $\|A\| = \sqrt{m \cdot n}$?

Mathematica code:

```
In[25]:= Table[
  Norm[ConstantArray[1, {m, n}]]^2,
  {m, 1, 5}, {n, 1, 5}
] // MatrixForm
```

Out[25]=

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 & 8 & 10 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 & 12 & 15 \\ 4 & 8 & 12 & 16 & 20 \\ 5 & 10 & 15 & 20 & 25 \end{pmatrix}$$

② Guess the best input:

Since the columns are all the same, it makes sense to spread out across them all, and equally:

Let $\vec{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(1, 1, 1, \dots, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 $\Rightarrow \|\vec{x}\| = 1.$

$$A\vec{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(n, n, n, \dots, n) \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A\vec{x}\|^2 = m \cdot n \quad \checkmark$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A\| \geq \sqrt{m \cdot n}$$

③ Prove that $\|A\| = \sqrt{mn}$:

One approach is to argue by symmetry that the above \vec{x} is optimal.

Alternatively, notice that $\text{rank}(A) = 1$.

Since all columns are the same,

$$\text{rank}(A) = \dim R(A) = \#\text{linearly independent columns} = 1.$$

A factors as

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | & \cdots & | \\ | & | & | & \cdots & | \\ | & | & | & \cdots & | \\ | & | & | & \cdots & | \\ | & | & | & \cdots & | \end{pmatrix} (1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \cdots \ 1) = \vec{u} \vec{v}^\top$$

$$\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\Rightarrow A\vec{x} = (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{x})\vec{u}$$

$$\|A\vec{x}\| = |\vec{v} \cdot \vec{x}| \cdot \|\vec{u}\|,$$

which reaches its maximum, $\|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$,

for $x = \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$.

$$\Rightarrow \|A\| = \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{m} \cdot \sqrt{n}. \quad \checkmark$$

Observe: Any rank-one matrix A can be factored as

$$A = \vec{u} \vec{v}^\top$$

for some vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} . Hence $\|A\| = \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$.

Spectral norm

Properties II.

- $\|A\| \geq 0$, and $\|A\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow A = 0$

- $\|A\vec{x}\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|\vec{x}\|$

matrix norm vector/matrix norm

- $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|A\| \quad \text{for } \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$

- $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|B\|$

(The amount you can stretch an input by multiplying

- $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|B\|$

(the amount you can stretch an input by applying AB is at most the stretch from applying B times the stretch from applying A .)

- If U and V are unitary, $\|U\| = \|V\| = 1$ and $\|UV\| = \|A\|$

(because unitaries don't change lengths).

- $\left\| \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & B \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \max\{\|A\|, \|B\|\}$

e.g., if A is a diagonal matrix,
 $\|A\| = \max_i |a_{ii}|$.

- If $\text{rank}(A)=1$, with $A = \vec{u}\vec{v}^T$, $\|A\| = \|u\| \cdot \|v\| = \sqrt{\sum_i u_i^2 \sum_j v_j^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{ij} A_{ij}^2}$

(extra material)

A fast (crude) estimate for the spectral norm:

Claim: For any $m \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$,

$$\max_{i,j} |a_{ij}| \leq \|A\| \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} |a_{ij}|^2} \quad \text{tight for rank-1}$$

$$= \sqrt{m \cdot n} \cdot \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|.$$

Observe: For the all-ones matrix, the upper bound (\sqrt{mn}) is tight, though the lower bound (1) is terrible.

Proof: Start by showing the lower bound, $\|A\| \geq \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|$.

Consider any fixed row i and column j . Since $\|\vec{e}_j\| = 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \|A\|^2 &\geq \|A\vec{e}_j\|^2 \\ &= \|(a_{1j}, a_{2j}, \dots, a_{mj})\|^2 \\ &= \sum_k |a_{kj}|^2 \geq |a_{ij}|^2 \\ &\geq |a_{ij}|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Since the inequality holds for all i, j , $\|A\| \geq \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|$. ✓

Next, let us show the upper bound.

Next, let us show the upper bound.

$$\|A\|^2 = \max_{x: \|x\|=1} \|Ax\|^2$$

Write $A = \left(\begin{array}{c} \quad \\ \vdots \\ \quad \end{array} \right)$, so $Ax = \left(\begin{array}{c} r_1 \cdot x \\ r_2 \cdot x \\ \vdots \\ r_m \cdot x \end{array} \right)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \max_{x: \|x\|=1} \sum_{i=1}^m |r_i \cdot x|^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^m \|r_i\|^2 \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|^2 \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

□

Example: Estimate the norm of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 & 12 & 11 & 12 & 0 \\ 7 & 11 & 12 & 0 & 8 & 0 \\ 2 & 8 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

One approach...

Observe that A splits into 3 blocks:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 & 12 & 11 & 12 & 0 \\ 7 & 11 & 12 & 0 & 8 & 0 \\ 2 & 8 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \|A\| = \max \left\{ \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \right\|, \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \right\|, \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 12 \\ 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \right\| \right\}$$

$$= \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 12 \\ 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \right\|$$

$$\stackrel{\text{A'}}$$

How to estimate $\|A'\|$.

We can try the Δ inequality, $\|B+C\| \leq \|B\| + \|C\| \dots$

$$\|A'\| \leq \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \right\| + \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 12 \\ 8 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{9^2 + 11^2} + 12\sqrt{2} \approx 31.18$$

$$\|A'\| \leq \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \right\| + \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 12 \\ 11 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = 12 + 12 = 24$$

$$\|A'\| \leq \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\| + \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 12 \\ 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = 2 + \sqrt{2(9^2 + 11^2)} \stackrel{\text{rank-1}}{\approx} 23.21$$

The Frobenius norm bound is better:

$$\|A'\| \leq \|A'\|_F = \sqrt{9^2 + 11^2 + 2 \cdot 12^2} \approx 22.14$$

Software to compute $\|A\|$:

Mathematica/Wolfram Alpha

WolframAlpha computational intelligence.

Norm[{{9,12},{11,12}}]

Matlab

>> norm([9 12; 11 12])

ans =

WolframAlpha computational intelligence.

Norm[{{9,12},{11,12}}]

Input: $\begin{vmatrix} 9 & 12 \\ 11 & 12 \end{vmatrix}$

Result: $\sqrt{245 + \sqrt{59449}} \approx 22.1093$

Alternate form: $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{442} + \sqrt{538})$

>> norm([9 12; 11 12])

ans =

22.1093

Python

```
import numpy as np

A = [[9,12],[11,12]]
np.linalg.norm(A, 2), np.linalg.norm(A), np.linalg.norm(A, 'fro')

(22.109311525557523, 22.135943621178654, 22.135943621178654)
```

Note that, unlike Matlab,
the default norm is the Frobenius norm.

When is a perturbed matrix invertible?

Lemma: If $\|A\| < 1$, then $(I+A)^{-1}$ exists.

Proof:

$I+A$ is not invertible $\Leftrightarrow N(I+A) \neq \{0\}$

$\Leftrightarrow (I+A)x = 0$ for some $x \neq 0$

$\Rightarrow Ax = -x$

$\Rightarrow \|A\| \geq 1$, a contradiction. \square

Lemma: Let A be an invertible matrix.

If $\|B\| < \frac{1}{\|A^{-1}\|}$, then $A+B$ is invertible.

Proof: $A+B = A(I+A^{-1}B)$. Now apply the previous lemma, \square
with $\|A^{-1}B\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \cdot \|B\|$

Example: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix}$, $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$

so if $\|B\| < \frac{1}{4}$, $A+B$ is invertible.

Lemma: If $\|A\| < 1$, then

$$(I+A)^{-1} = I + A + A^2 + A^3 + A^4 + \dots$$

Proof: Exercise.

OTHER MATRIX NORMS (extra material)

Just as we have defined multiple vector norms, like

$$\|v\| = \sqrt{\sum_i |v_i|^2} \quad \text{Euclidean}$$

$$\|v\|_1 = \sum_i |v_i| \quad l_1 \text{ norm}$$

$$\|v\| = \left(\sum_i |v_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \text{ Euclidean}$$

$$\|v\|_1 = \sum_i |v_i| \quad l_1 \text{ norm}$$

$$\|v\|_p = \left(\sum_i |v_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \quad l_p \text{ norm},$$

we can define many different matrix norms.

Example:

- $\|A\|_r = \max_{x: \|x\|_p=1} \|Ax\|_r$

- $\|A\|_{p \rightarrow q} = \max_{x: \|x\|_p=1} \|Ax\|_q$ see, e.g., arXiv: 1205.4484

Exercise: What is the matrix l_1 norm, $\|A\|_1$, for

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 9 \\ -6 & 1 \end{pmatrix} ?$$

What is it in general?

Answer:

$$\|A\|_1 = \max_{x: \|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1$$

To evaluate this, there are two steps:

① First, we need to find an upper bound, $\|A\|_1 \leq K$.

② Second, we need to show that this bound is achieved, i.e., find x with $\|x\|_1=1$ so $\|Ax\|_1 = K$.

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \quad \|A\|_1 &= \max_{\substack{x_1, x_2 \\ |x_1|+|x_2|=1}} ((5x_1 + 9x_2) + (-6x_1 + 1x_2)) \\ &\leq \max_{\substack{x_1, x_2 \\ |x_1|+|x_2|=1}} (5+6)|x_1| + (9+1)|x_2| \\ &\leq \max \{ 5+6, 9+1 \} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 11$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A\|_1 \leq 11$$

② The bound is achieved, $\|Ax\|_1 = 11$, for $x = (1, 0)$.

$$\Rightarrow \|A\|_1 = 11$$

In general, $\|A\|_1 = \max_{\text{columns } j} \sum_i |a_{ij}|$

the maximum l_1 norm of a column. ✓

General properties of matrix norms:

All the above norms satisfy:

- $\|A\| \geq 0$ and $\|A\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow A = 0$

All the above norms satisfy:

- $\|A\| \geq 0$, and $\|A\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow A = 0$
- $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$ for all scalars α
- triangle inequality:
 $\|A+B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$ for same-size matrices
- sub-multiplicativity:
 $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$ whenever AB is defined

Exercise: Is $f(A) = \max |a_{ij}|$ a matrix norm?

That is, does it satisfy the above properties?

Answer: It does satisfy the first three properties.

But sub-multiplicativity is harder

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow AB = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(AB) = 2 \quad f(A) = f(B) = 1 \quad \checkmark$$

So NO, f is not sub-multiplicative.

Example: **Frobenius norm**

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} |a_{ij}|^2} \quad \leftarrow \text{easy to compute!}$$

Exercise: This does satisfy sub-multiplicativity and the other properties.

Observe: $\|A\|_F^2 = \text{Trace}(A^T A)$
(sum of diagonal elements)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_i (A^T A)_{ii} \\ &= \sum_i (A^T)_{ji} (A)_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \underbrace{a_{ji}^* a_{ij}}_{|a_{ij}|^2} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Fact: The trace is cyclic:

$$\boxed{\text{Tr}(AB) = \text{Tr}(BA).}$$

Proof: $\text{Tr}(AB) = \sum_i (AB)_{ii}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} b_{ji} \\ &= \sum_{j,i} b_{ji} a_{ij} = \text{Tr}(BA) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Corollary: The Frobenius norm is basis-independent,

Corollary: The Frobenius norm is basis-independent,

i.e., $\|A\|_F = \|U A U^T\|_F$

for any unitary/orthogonal matrix U .

(The Frobenius norm is the same in all orthonormal bases.)

Proof: Since U is unitary, $U^T = U^{-1}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\|U A U^T\|_F &= \text{Tr}((U A U^T)^T (U A U^T)) \\ &= \text{Tr}(U A^T U^T U A U^T) \quad \text{since } (AB)^T = B^T A^T \\ &= \text{Tr}(A^T U^T U A U^T U) \quad \text{cyclic trace} \\ &= \text{Tr}(A^T A) \quad \text{since } U^T U = I \quad \checkmark \square\end{aligned}$$

The spectral norm is also basis-independent, $\|A\|_2 = \|U A U^T\|_2$, for any unitary U , since unitaries don't change lengths.

Relationships between matrix norms:

Any two matrix norms are the same up to dimension-dependent factors.

Example: For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,

$$\|A\|_2 \leq \|A\|_F \leq \min\{m, n\} \cdot \|A\|_2$$

Proof:

We have already shown $\|A\|_2 \leq \|A\|_F$.

$$\|A\|_F \leq \min\{m, n\} \cdot \|A\|_2$$

We can't prove this yet! Fortunately, it is less important.

Later, it will follow since

$$\|A\|_F^2 = \text{Tr}(A^T A) = \text{sum of eigenvalues of } A^T A$$

$$\|A\|_2^2 = \text{largest eigenvalue of } A^T A \dots$$

See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matrix_norm#Equivalence_of_norms for more.

Examples: Compute the norms of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 10i \\ i & 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 10i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

These all have tricks, but if you get stuck you can always use calculus (or Mathematica or Wolfram Alpha).

Brute-force examples:

You can always use calculus, but it gets ugly fast.

```
A = RandomInteger[10, {2, 2}];
A // MatrixForm
MatrixForm=

$$\begin{pmatrix} 7 & 4 \\ 5 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Norm[A]
% // N

$$\sqrt{\frac{5}{2}(23 + \sqrt{493})}$$

10.6306

v = {1, y};
Av = A.v
Simplify[D[(Av.Av)/(v.v), y]]
Solve[% == 0, y]
Av.Av / . %[[2]] // Simplify
v.v
{7 + 4 y, 5 + 5 y}

$$-\frac{2(-53 + 33 y + 53 y^2)}{(1 + y^2)^2}$$

minimum maximum

$$\left\{ \left\{ y \rightarrow \frac{1}{106} (-33 - 5 \sqrt{493}) \right\}, \left\{ y \rightarrow \frac{1}{106} (-33 + 5 \sqrt{493}) \right\} \right\}$$


$$\frac{5}{2}(23 + \sqrt{493})$$


A = RandomInteger[10, {3, 3}];
A // MatrixForm
MatrixForm=

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 8 \\ 5 & 9 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Norm[A]
% // N[#, 32] &

$$\sqrt{243\dots}$$

Root[-400 + 6172 #1 - 268 #1^2 + #1^3 &, 3]
15.574393384885795359784588279789

v = {1, y, z};
Av = A.v
Simplify[D[(Av.Av)/v.v, y]]
ysub = Solve[% == 0, y][[2]]
{2 + 4 y + 2 z, 3 + y + 8 z, 5 + 9 y + 8 z}

$$-\frac{4(4 y^2 (7 + 11 z) + y(-30 + 68 z + 17 z^2)) - 4(7 + 11 z + 7 z^2 + 11 z^3)}{(1 + y^2 + z^2)^2}$$


$$\left\{ y \rightarrow \frac{30 - 68 z - 17 z^2 + \sqrt{4036 + 5776 z + 14484 z^2 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4}}{8(7 + 11 z)} \right\}$$

Simplify[D[(Av.Av)/v.v /. ysub, z]]
Solve[% == 0, z] // FullSimplify
(Av.Av/v.v) /. ysub // FullSimplify

$$\sqrt{\%} // N[#, 32] &$$


$$-\left( \left( 128(7 + 11 z)\sqrt{4036 + 5776 z + 14484 z^2 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4} - 15780 z^2 + 22769 z^3 - 8(4286 + 71\sqrt{4036 + 5776 z + 14484 z^2 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4}) \right) / \left( 3z(1014 + 85\sqrt{4036 + 5776 z + 14484 z^2 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4}) \right) \right) / \left( 4036 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4 + 30\sqrt{4036 + 5776 z + 14484 z^2 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4} + z(5776 - 68\sqrt{4036 + 5776 z + 14484 z^2 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4}) - 17z^2(-852 + \sqrt{4036 + 5776 z + 14484 z^2 + 12168 z^3 + 8033 z^4}) \right)^2$$


$$\left\{ \left\{ z \rightarrow 1.79\dots \right\}, \left\{ z \rightarrow -\frac{7}{11} \right\} \right\}$$


$$\sqrt{243\dots}$$

Root[-400 + 6172 #1 - 268 #1^2 + #1^3 &, 3]
15.574393
```

Different parameterizations

Using $\|A\| = \max_{\vec{x} : \|\vec{x}\|=1} \|A\vec{x}\|$, we need to optimize over

length-one vectors —— except $\|A(-\vec{x})\| = \|A\vec{x}\|$.

\Rightarrow for an $m \times 2$ matrix, $\|A\| = \max_{\theta \in [0, \pi)} \|A(\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{pmatrix})\|$.

Using $\|A\| = \max_{\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}} \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|}$, we can use any parameterization that covers every direction (± 1).

