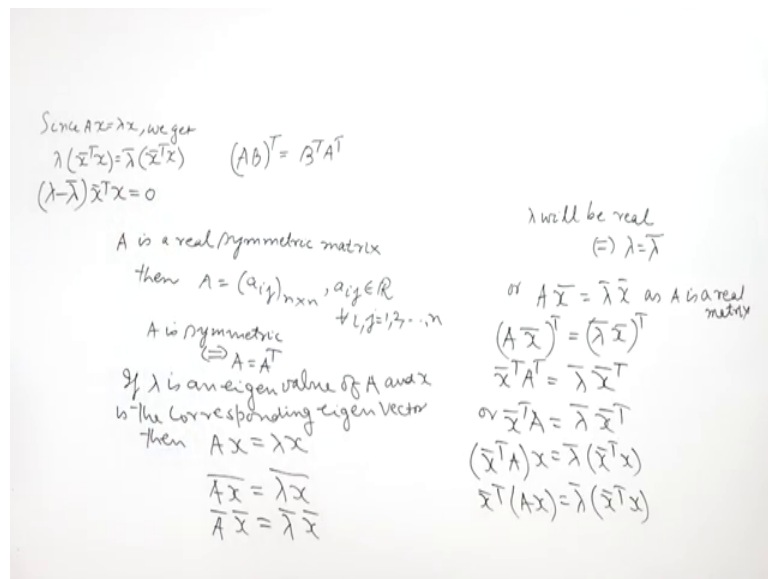


Numerical Linear Algebra
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Lecture – 59
Jacobi Method- I

Hello friends, I welcome you to my lecture on Jacobi method. There will be two lectures on this topic we now this is my first lecture. Jacobi method is an identity method we can calculate the eigen values and eigen vectors of a real symmetric matrix by a process known as diagonalization. Carl Gustav Jacobi first proposed this method in 1846, but it became widely used in 1950 when the computers where available. If A is a real symmetric matrix, then all the eigen values of A are real. This is a very well known result.

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If A is a real symmetric matrix then A equal to a i j. So, it is n by n matrix then a i j belong to R, for all i comma j. From 1 to n and A is symmetric so, we have A equal to A transpose. So, if A is a real symmetric matrix then, all the eigen values of A are real.

So, if lambda is an eigen value of A and x is the corresponding eigen vector then, we have the matrix equation A x equal to lambda x. Now, we can easily see that the eigen values of A are real. So, for that we will need to show that a conjugate lambda conjugate equal to lambda ok. Lambda will be real if an only if lambda equal to lambda conjugate.

So, you can take the conjugate of both sides, you can take the conjugate of both sides then, we will have A conjugate n x conjugate and we have lambda conjugate, x conjugate ok.

Since A is a real matrix, A conjugate is equal to A. So, we have as A real matrix ok. Now, let us take the transport on both sides. So, we have now, you know that a if A and B are two matrices, then AB transpose is equal to B transpose A transpose.

So, here we shall have x conjugate transpose A transpose equal to lambda is a scalar. So, lambda conjugate is also a scalar. So, it is transpose will give you the same thing. So, we have x conjugate transpose; here, I have not changed the order because lambda is a scalar. So, we can bring it before the vector. So, now A transpose is equal to A. So, we have we can write like this.

Now, let us post multiply by x then, we have. Now, matrix multiplication is associative so, we can write like this but we have A x equal to lambda x. So, we have lambda times x conjugate transpose, x equal to lambda conjugate x conjugate transpose x, or we may write this is equal to 0.

Now, in order to prove that lambda is real, we had to show that lambda equal to lambda conjugate, but for that we must prove that x conjugate transpose x is not equal to 0. And let us see how we prove that.

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Since $Ax = \lambda x$, we get
 $\lambda (\bar{x}^T x) = \bar{\lambda} (\bar{x}^T x)$
 $(\lambda - \bar{\lambda}) \bar{x}^T x = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \lambda = \bar{\lambda}$

Let $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$
 then $\bar{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{x}_1 \\ \bar{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{x}_n \end{pmatrix}$
 $\Rightarrow \bar{x}^T x = (\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \dots \bar{x}_n) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$
 $= |x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2$

Since x is an eigen vector of A , $x \neq 0$
 at least $\lambda_i \neq 0$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
 $\Rightarrow \bar{x}^T x \neq 0$

λ will be real
 $(\Rightarrow) \lambda = \bar{\lambda}$

or $A \bar{x} = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}$ as A is a real matrix
 $(A \bar{x})^T = (\bar{\lambda} \bar{x})^T$
 $\bar{x}^T A^T = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T$
 or $\bar{x}^T A = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T$
 $(\bar{x}^T A) x = \bar{\lambda} (\bar{x}^T x)$
 $\bar{x}^T (Ax) = \bar{\lambda} (\bar{x}^T x)$

X conjugate transpose let us say let x be equal to the column matrix x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . Then x conjugate is equal to x_1 conjugate, x_2 conjugate, x_n conjugate the column matrix or we can say λx conjugate transpose x is equal to x conjugate transpose will come rho matrix. So, x_1 conjugate, x_2 conjugate at x_n conjugate, and x is column vector x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .

Now, this is 1 by n matrix, this is n by 1 matrix. When we multiply we get 1 by 1 matrix or we get a scalar, which is x_1 into x_1 conjugate which means mod of x_1 square then, we have similarly mod of x_2 square and so on mod of x_n square. Now, since x is an eigen vector of the matrix A corresponding to eigen value λ . X is not equal to 0 .

Since, since x is an eigen vector of A , x is not equal to 0 . X is not equal to 0 means; at least one of the components of x is not equal to 0 . At least $1 \times x_i$ is not 0 , where i takes values and therefore, with this sum ok. Which is the sum of non-negative numbers mod of x_1 square, mod of x_2 square, mod of x_n square cannot be 0 . So, this implies this is not equal to 0 . So, this is not equal to 0 means, λ is equal to λ conjugate and therefore, we have the eigen values of A real symmetric matrix as real.

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It is an iterative method for the calculation of the eigen values and eigen vectors of a real symmetric matrix (a process known as diagonalization). Carl Gustav Jacob Jacobi first proposed this method in 1846 but it became widely used in 1950s with the advent of computers.

If A is a real symmetric matrix, then all the eigen values of A are real and there exists an orthogonal matrix P (consisting of the orthonormal eigen vectors of A) such that $P^T A P = D$, where D is a diagonal matrix.

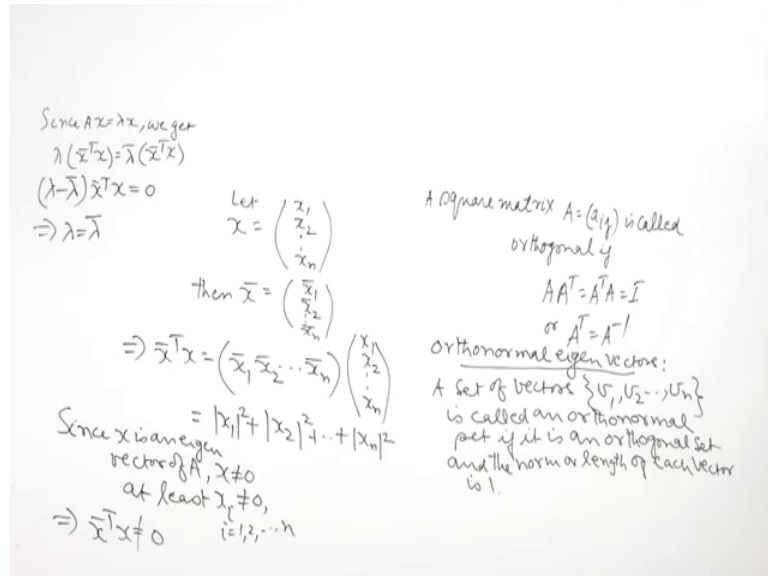
This method uses a series of orthogonal similarity transformations using rotation matrices to arrive at the diagonal matrix D i.e. the basic idea is to choose special orthogonal matrices that zero out specified off-diagonal elements. Givens rotations are used in this method.

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So, if A is a real symmetric matrix then, all the eigen values of A are real. And moreover it can be shown that there exists an orthogonal matrix P consisting of the orthonormal eigen vectors of A .

Now, what is an orthogonal matrix? A matrix is said to be orthogonal, if $A A^T$ is equal to identity matrix.

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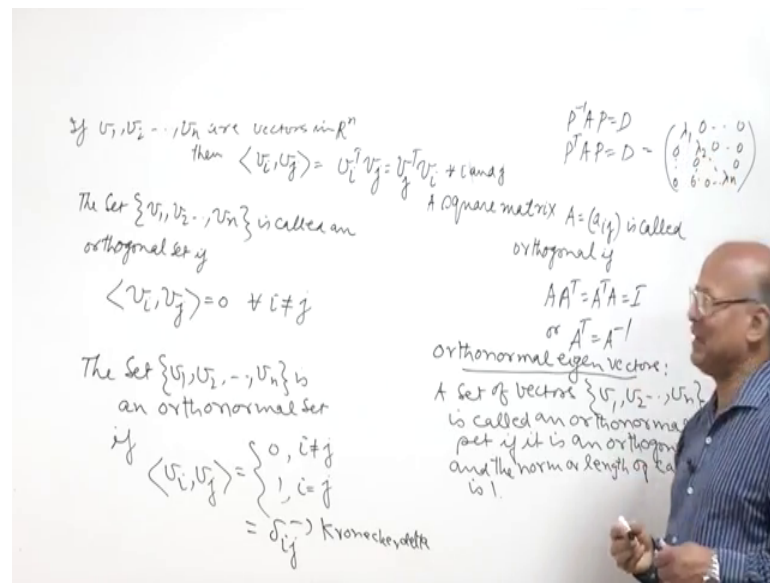


A square matrix A is called orthogonal, if $A A^T$ is equal to $A^T A$ equal to identity, or we can say $A^T = A^{-1}$.

Now, this orthogonal matrix consists of the orthonormal eigen vectors of A . What are orthonormal eigen vectors? Let us see, orthonormal eigen vectors ok. So, a set of vectors a set of vectors say v_1, v_2 and so on v_n is called an orthonormal set. If it is an orthogonal set and the norm of each element is 1, and the norm or length of each vector is 1. Now, when do we call a set up vectors to be orthogonal? If the inner product of any two vectors distinct vectors of the set is equal to 0.

So, let us see, how we define an orthogonal set.

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So, the set v_1, v_2, v_n is called an orthogonal set, if the inner product of v_i with v_j is equal to 0 for all i not equal to j . So, here, we are considering a inner productive. A inner productive space a set up vectors v_1, v_2, v_n is said to be an orthogonal set, if the inner product of any two distinct vectors of the set is equal to 0.

So, then it will be called orthogonal and then, it will become orthonormal provided the norm of each element say v_i of the z is equal to 1. So, we can say that the set of v_1, v_2, v_n is an orthonormal set, if in inner product of v_i with v_j is equal to 0 when i is not equal to j , and 1 when i is equal to j . Because, inner product of v_i with v_i is norm of v_i square. So, norm v_i square is equal to 1 means, norm of v_i equal to 1.

So, this can also be written as this is equal to δ_{ij} . δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta this is the Kronecker delta, which takes value 1 when i is equal to j , and 0 when i is not equal to j .

Now, when v_1, v_2, v_n are n tuples, that is they are vectors in R^n , then we can write. If v_1, v_2, v_n are vectors in R^n then, the inner product the inner product v_i, v_j can be written as this is equal to $v_i^T v_j$.

We can write as $v_i^T v_j$ or we can also write $v_j^T v_i$ because, $v_i^T v_j$ is real ok. $v_i^T v_j$ is a real number. So, we can write as $v_i^T v_j$ or $v_j^T v_i$ we can write $v_j^T v_i$ for every i and j . So, here the eigen vectors of the matrix A will turn out

to be orthogonal and moreover that, each eigen vector will have length 1. So, they will constitute a orthonormal set such that $P^T A P$ equal to D matrix ok.

When P when D matrix A is diagonalized by using the matrix orthogonal matrix P then, since P^T is equal to P^{-1} , we have a we when A is diagonalized by using the matrix P, we have the equation $P^{-1} A P$ equal to D, but since P is orthogonal. I can write P^{-1} as P^T . So, there exists orthogonal matrix p such that $P^T A P$ equal to D, where D is a the D is a diagonal then matrix.

Now, this method uses a series of orthogonal similarity transformations, which are found using the rotation matrices to arrive at the diagonal matrix. The a basic idea of the method is to chose a special orthogonal matrices that zero out is specified of diagonal elements, and for this purpose givens rotation matrices are used.

Now, in the let us discuss the outline of the algorithm.

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Algorithm: $A_1 = A$
 $A_2 = R_1^T A_1 R_1$
 \vdots
 $A_{i+1} = R_i^T A_i R_i$

where R_i is a rotation matrix chosen to eliminate the largest off-diagonal element in A_i . Then A_{i+1} tends to a diagonal matrix D, and hence the eigen values of A are given by the diagonal entries of D, while the eigen vectors of A are the column vectors (in order) of the matrix $R = R_1 R_2 \dots R_i \dots$. It is numerically reliable method to find all the eigen pairs for all real symmetric matrices of small order.

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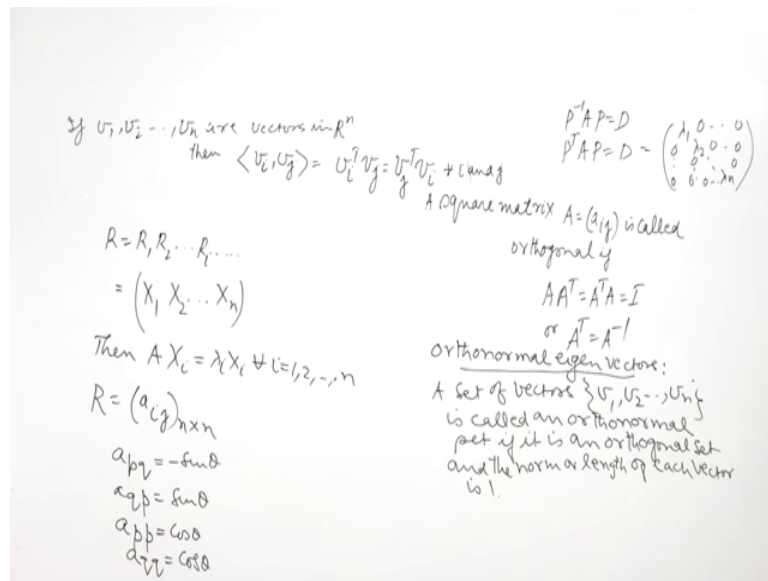
So, A_1 we take as the given matrix A, A_2 is $R_1^T A_1 R_1$ and so, on. A_{i+1} is $R_i^T A_i R_i$, where R_i is a rotation matrix, which is chosen in such a way that we want to eliminate the largest off diagonal element in A_i .

Now, A_{i+1} when we go on doing this A_{i+1} will tend to a diagonal matrix D. And we know that the eigen values of A, when A is similar to the diagonal matrix the D then, the eigen values of A R the diagonal entries of D. So, the eigen values of A R given

by the diagonal entries of D, while the eigen vectors of A will be the column vectors of in order of the matrix R equal to R 1, R 2, R i and so on.

So, first if you write say suppose for example, say this is your lambda 1, lambda 2, lambda n and here we have sub zeros ok. So, in the first column we have eigen value lambda 1. So, the matrix R which is R 1 into R 2 and R i and so on will be the matrix. Where the first column will correspond to the eigen vector of A corresponding to the eigen value lambda 1.

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Suppose the first column of R matrix is x 1, second column is x 2 and nth column is x n then, we shall have a lambda i equal to A x i equal to lambda i, x i for every i, that is x i will be the eigen vector of a corresponding to the eigen value lambda i for every i; i equal to 1 2 3 and so on up to n.

So, the columns of the matrix R or the eigen vectors of a matrix in order as the eigen values are written in the diagonal matrix.

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Algorithm: $A_1 = A$
 $A_2 = R_1^T A_1 R_1$
 \vdots
 $A_{i+1} = R_i^T A_i R_i$

where R_i is a rotation matrix chosen to eliminate the largest off-diagonal element in A_i . Then A_{i+1} tends to a diagonal matrix D , and hence the eigen values of A are given by the diagonal entries of D , while the eigen vectors of A are the column vectors (in order) of the matrix $R = R_1 R_2 \dots R_i \dots$. It is numerically reliable method to find all the eigen pairs for all real symmetric matrices of small order.

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Now, this method is numerically reliable method to find all the eigen pairs, for all real symmetric matrices of a small order.

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Jacobi's method can compete with more sophisticated algorithms for real symmetric matrices of order upto 10. If the slow convergence is not a problem, it can be used for real symmetric matrices of order upto 20.

Rotation matrices: Let us define a rotation matrix (also called Givens matrix after the scientist at Oak Ridge who pioneered their use more than fifty years ago). An $n \times n$ matrix R is given by

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Jacobi's method can compete with more sophisticated algorithms for a real symmetric matrices of order up to 10. And if the slow convergence is not a problem, then it can be used for real symmetric matrices of order up to 20.

Now, let us define rotation matrix, rotation matrix is also called as a given matrix given was a scientist at oak ridge who pioneered their use more than 50 years ago.



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$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & \cos\theta & \dots & -\sin\theta & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & \sin\theta & \dots & \cos\theta & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

p^{th} column q^{th} column

p^{th} row
 q^{th} row

Then we observe that all the off-diagonal entries in R are zero except for the values $-\sin\theta$ and $\sin\theta$ at the positions (p,q) and (q,p) and all the diagonal entries are 1 except for $\cos\theta$ at the positions (p,p) and (q,q).



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So, an n by n matrix R is given by this matrix. So, you can see in this matrix all the off-diagonal entries in R are 0 except for the values minus sin theta. Here, you can see minus sin theta which occurs in the p th row and q th column.

So, this is if you denote the entries of R by a i j notation then, a p q a p q is equal to minus sin theta because, it occurs in the p th column and p th row and q th column. And the entry in the q p th q p th entry a q p is equal to sin theta ok. Which occurs in the q th row and p th column, and the diagonal entries this this entry in the p th row and p th column that is a p p is equal to cos theta, a q q is equal to cos theta ok. All other diagonal entries are one and all other off diagonal entries are 0.

So, what we want to say that, the givens matrix are has p p th row q th element as minus sin theta, q th row p th column element as sin theta, and a p p element has cos theta, a q q element as cos theta. All the elements on the diagonal other than these two app and a q q are once, while all the off diagonal elements are 0 accepting a p q and a q p. So, we observed that all the off diagonal entry then RR0 except for the values minus sin theta and sin theta, which occur at the positions p q and q p, and all the diagonal entries are 1 except for cos theta which occurs at the position p p and q q.

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Now, let us consider the transformation

$$y = Rx \text{ then}$$

$$y_j = x_j \text{ when } j \neq p \text{ and } j \neq q$$

$$y_p = x_p \cos\theta - x_q \sin\theta$$

$$y_q = x_p \sin\theta + x_q \cos\theta.$$

Thus, the transformation $y = Rx$ is a rotation of the n -dimensional R^n in x_p, x_q - plane counterclockwise through the angle θ . Hence, by choosing θ suitably, we can make $y_p = 0$ or $y_q = 0$ in the image.

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Now, let us consider the transformation y is equal to Rx . So, let us consider y is equal to Rx .

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$D_n = (R_1 R_2 \dots R_n)^T A (R_1 R_2 \dots R_n)$
 If $R = R_1 R_2 \dots R_n$
 then $D_n = R^T A R$
 When $D_n \sim D$
 we have $D = R^T A R$
 $= R^T A R$
 $X = R^T y$
 Note that $R R^T = I$
 $D_0 = A_1$
 $D_1 = R_1^T D_0 R_1$
 $D_2 = R_2^T D_1 R_2$
 $D_n = R_n^T D_{n-1} R_n$
 $D_2 = R_2^T R_1^T D_0 R_1 R_2 = (R_1 R_2)^T D_0 (R_1 R_2)$
 $(PQ)(PQ)^T = (PQ)(Q^T P^T) = P(QQ^T)P^T = P I P^T = P P^T = I$
 If P and Q are orthogonal matrices i.e. $P P^T = I$ and $Q Q^T = I$ then PQ is also an orthogonal matrix.

Y is y_1, y_2, y_n and r is the given rotation matrix. So, 1 0 and then this is my p th column this q th column. And this is p th row and this is q th row so, this is 0 here. The element which occurs in the p th row p th column, which we take as let me write, this will be taken as $\cos \theta$ a $p p$ th column. So, this will be taken as $\cos \theta$ ok.

And here, we have the element which occurs in the p th row and q th column as $-\sin \theta$, and this we have here 0. And then the element which occurs in p th q th row and p th column we take as $\sin \theta$ and this element we take as $\cos \theta$. And all other elements are zeros and here, we have 0 0 and we have 1. So, all other entries are one on this diagonal ok. This matrix R and then the matrix x is x_1, x_2 and so on x_n , if you multiply the R n by x then what do you notice?

I suppose y_j means, j th row ok. Here y_j, y_j will be equal to x_j when j is not equal to p and j is not equal to q because, the change will occur only in the row j when j becomes equal to p and j becomes equal to q because all other places we have diagonal entries as 1 while the off diagonal entries are 0. So, y_j is equal to x_j when j is not equal to p and j is not equal to q . While y_p will be equal to what let us row, when you multiply p th row by this vector you will get y_p . So, y_p will be equal to you see y_p will be equal to you multiply the p th row here by $x_1 x_2 x_n$. And you will get $x_p \cos \theta x_p \cos \theta$ and then, minus $x_q \sin \theta$.

So, when you multiply that column to this row we get y_p equal to this and y_q when you multiply the q th row by that vector we get this is a p th column. So, we get $x_p \sin \theta$ plus $x_q \cos \theta$. So, we get this thus the transformation y is equal to $R x$ is a rotation of b and dimensional space R to the power n in the $x_p x_q$ plane. Counter clockwise through the angle θ and by choosing θ suitably, we can make y_p equal to 0 or y_q equal to 0 in the image.

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Suppose we wish to make $y_p = 0$, then we have to choose such that

$$x_p \cos\theta - x_q \sin\theta = 0$$

or

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x_p}{x_q}\right).$$

Similarly, if we decide to make $y_q = 0$, then $x_p \sin\theta + x_q \cos\theta = 0$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x_q}{x_p}\right).$$

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So, if you wish to make y_p equal to 0 then $x_p \cos \theta$ minus $x_q \sin \theta$ is equal to 0. So, we have to take θ equal to $\tan^{-1} x_p$ over x_q . Similarly, if we decide to make y_q equal to 0 then, we take then we have to put $x_p \sin \theta$ plus $x_q \cos \theta$ equal to 0. And which will give us θ equal to $\tan^{-1} x_q$ over x_p .

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Further, we observe that the transformation

$$x = R^{-1} y$$

rotates the n -dimensional R^n in the x_p, x_q -plane counterclockwise through the angle $-\theta$ and the rotation matrix (Givens matrix) is an orthogonal matrix i.e. $R^T = R^{-1}$.

The outline of Jacobi Method: Let A be a real symmetric matrix. We construct the sequence of rotation matrices R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n in the following manner: $D_0 = A$

$$D_j = R_j^T A R_j \text{ for } j=1, 2, \dots$$

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Now, first further we observe that, the transformation x is equal to R inverse y . X equal to R inverse y rotates the n dimensional space or to the power n in the x_p, x_q, x_p, x_q plane, counter wise clockwise through the angle minus θ and the rotation matrix that

is given matrix is an orthogonal matrix R transpose is equal to R inverse, you can see here if you find R transpose here. You will get the same as R inverse. So, R transpose is equal to R inverse or you can see that RR transpose. We notice that RR transpose is equal to identity matrix. Now, let us discuss the outline of the Jacobi method let A be a real symmetric matrix, we shall construct a sequence of rotation matrices $R_1 R_2 \dots R_n$ in the following manner.

Let us take D naught equal to the matrix A the given matrix A and D_j equal to R_j transpose $A R_j$ for j equal to 1 2 3 and so on.

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The sequence $\{R_j\}$ is constructed such that

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} D_j = D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n).$$

We stop the process when the diagonal entries are close to zero. Then

$$D_n \approx D.$$

By our construction procedure, we have

$$D_n = (R_n^T R_{n-1}^T \dots R_1^T) A (R_1 R_2 \dots R_{n-1} R_n)$$

Let $R = R_1 R_2 \dots R_n$ then R is an orthogonal matrix because it is a product of orthogonal matrices. Hence $R^{-1} A R = R^T A R$ which yields

$$D = R^{-1} A R$$

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The sequence R_j is constructed such that the limit of D_j as j goes to infinity. The limit of D_j as j goes to infinity becomes a diagonal matrix. And as you know the on the diagonal the entries of the eigen values of A will be displayed. So, D is equal to diagonal matrix $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_n$. We shall stop the process when the diagonal entries are off diagonal entries are close to 0.

So, we stop the process, when the off diagonal entries are close to 0 and then the, diagonal entries of the resulting matrix are become the eigen values of the given matrix A . And we say that D_n is close to D . Now, by our construction procedure we can see that D_n as we have written D_n is equal to A . D_1 equal to R_1 transpose D_n R_1 . D_2 equal to R_2 transpose D_1 R_2 and so on, D_{i+1} is equal to R_i transpose D_i R_i .

So, we can say that D_n is equal to D_n is equal to R_n minus 1 transpose. D_n minus 1 we have here sorry D_n here is R_n D_n is equal to A^{-1} . D_1 is R_1 transpose D_n is equal to R_2 transpose D_1 R_2 . So, D_{i+1} is R_i D_i is equal to or we can write D_n . D_n is equal to R_n transpose D_n minus 1 R_n we can write. Now, let us we can put the values here.

We can put the value of D_n minus 1 here then D_n minus 2 and so on. And we can say that D_n is equal to. So, D_n is equal to R_n R_n minus 1 R_n minus 2 and so on R_1 and we get R_1 transpose. So, R_n or I can say we can write like this. Using the fact that $A B$ transpose is equal to B transpose, A transpose, we can see here that B^2 is equal to R_2 transpose D_1 . D_1 is R_1 transpose D_n is a R_1 ok.

So, if you put here value then D_2 will be equal to R_2 transpose R_1 transpose. Then D_n and then R_1 R_2 which can be written as R_1, R_2 transpose D_n R_1 R_2 . So, in general D_n can be written as R_1, R_2, R_n transpose and D_n is equal to a ok. So, we have $D \cdot R_1 R_2 R_1 R_2 R_n$. Now, if R is equal to $R_1 R_2 R_n$ then, we can say that D_n is equal to R transpose $A R$. So, this is D_n when we say that when is when the matrix is close to the D_n is close to D , that is the diagonal matrix off diagonal elements are close to 0, then I can write D_n approximately as D ok.

So, when D_n is approximately the diagonal matrix D we have, D equal to R transpose $A R$. So, and R transpose is R inverse because, if A and B are 2 orthogonal matrices then, their product is also an orthogonal matrix we can easily prove that. If p and q are orthogonal matrices, that is $p p^T$ is equal to identity matrix, and q^T is equal to identity matrix then, $p q$ is also an orthogonal matrix ok. So, we can prove this easily.

Let us let us let us show that $p q$ into $p q^T$ is identity matrix. Let us show that $p q$ into $p q^T$ is identity matrix. I can write it as $p q$ and then $p q^T$ is $q^T p^T$ ok. So, matrix multiplication is associative. So, I can write it as p times $q q^T$ into p^T , but $q q^T$ is identity matrix. So, I have $p p^T$, but $p p^T$ is equal to identity. So, product of orthogonal matrices also orthogonal, here R is the product of orthogonal matrices $R_1 R_2 R_n$ and therefore, R is an orthogonal matrix. So, that is why we have written R transpose is equal to R inverse.

Now, or we can say AR is equal to, let us say AR is equal to RD . Now, R matrix has the columns of the matrix R are the eigen vectors of the matrix A in order in the same order in which eigen value is $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ occur in the diagonal matrix we are going to prove that. So, let us say, let say the columns of the matrix R be x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n each with n components.

So, R has columns x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n then let us see what do we get from the equation $AR = RD$. So, AR will be equal to AR will be equal to $A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$.

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or $AR = RD = R \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$.

Let $R = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$

$$AR = [Ax_1, Ax_2, \dots, Ax_n]$$

$$\Rightarrow [\lambda_1 x_1, \lambda_2 x_2, \dots, \lambda_n x_n]$$

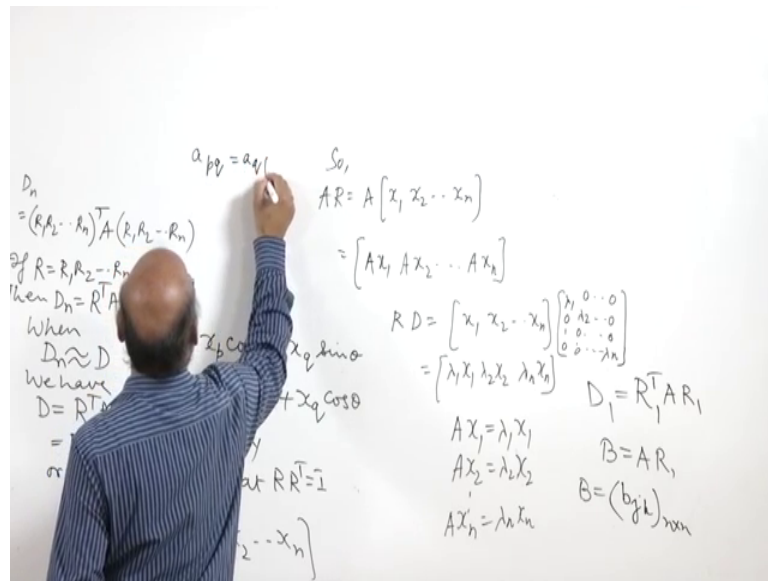
$$\Rightarrow Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

\Rightarrow the columns x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of the orthogonal matrix R are the orthonormal eigen vectors of A corresponding to eigen values $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ of A , respectively.

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So, AR will be the matrix A multiplied by the matrix R and we shall have.

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When the rows of the matrix A are multiplied by the first column of the matrix R we get the first column of the matrix AR so, we get $A \times 1$. First column as $A \times 1$ and then, when the all B rows of the matrix AR multiplied by the column x_2 ok. Second column we get the second column of the matrix AR so, we get $A \times 2$ and so on. The n th column of AR will be equal to $A \times n$ ok.

Now, what is RD what is RD ? RD is equal to x_1, x_2, x_n and the diagonal matrix D is $\lambda_1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ \lambda_2 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ \lambda_n$. So, when the first column is multiplied to the rows of the matrix. D what we get is $\lambda_1 \times 1 \ \lambda_2 \times 2$ this is the first column this is the second column and this is the n th column. So, what we get is. So, we get the following. So, now AR is equal to RD . So, what we get first column $A \times 1$ is same as first column here.

So, $A \times 1$ equal to $\lambda_1 \times 1$ second column $A \times 2$ is equal to $\lambda_2 \times 2$ and so on. $A \times n$ is equal to $\lambda_n \times n$. So, from here we can say that $A \times i$ is equal to $\lambda_i \times i$ for all i equal to $1 \ 2 \ 3$ and so on up to n and therefore, the columns x_1, x_2, x_n of the orthogonal matrix R .

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or $AR=RD=R \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$.

Let

$$R = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$
$$AR = [Ax_1, Ax_2, \dots, Ax_n]$$
$$\Rightarrow [\lambda_1 x_1, \lambda_2 x_2, \dots, \lambda_n x_n]$$
$$\Rightarrow Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

\Rightarrow the columns x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of the orthogonal matrix R are the orthonormal eigen vectors of A corresponding to eigen values $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ of A, respectively.

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These x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n these columns of the matrix R are the orthonormal eigen vectors of the matrix A corresponding to the eigen values $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ of A respectively the general step of Jacobi's method.

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The General Step of Jacobi's Method: In each iteration of the Jacobi's method to find the eigen pairs of a real symmetric matrix, our objective is to reduce the two largest off-diagonal entries to zero. Let us suppose that $a_{pq} = a_{qp}$ is the largest off-diagonal entry (in magnitude) of the real symmetric matrix A. Let R_1 be the first rotation (Givens) matrix. Then we use the orthogonal similarity transformation

$$D_1 = R_1^T A R_1$$

to reduce the elements a_{pq} and a_{qp} to zero, where the rotation matrix R_1 has the form

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Now, in each iteration of the Jacobi's method our objective is to reduce I mean we want to find the eigen pairs of a real symmetric matrix by using the Jacobi's method. So, in each iterations of our objective is to reduce the 2 largest off diagonal entries to 0. Let us suppose that the p q th entry in the given matrix A is the is numerically the or

numerically the largest off diagonal entry. And since, it is a symmetric matrix a_{pq} will be equal to a_{qp} . So, a_{pq} equal to a_{qp} is the largest off diagonal entry in magnitude of the real symmetric matrix A . Let R_1 be the first rotation matrix.

Then we use the orthogonal similarity transformation D_1 equal to R_1 transpose, $A R_1$ to reduce the elements a_{pq} a_{qp} to 0 where the rotation matrix R_1 has this form.

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$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & \cos\theta & \dots & -\sin\theta & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & \sin\theta & \dots & \cos\theta & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

p^{th} column q^{th} column

Here all the off-diagonal entries in R_1 are zero except for the entry $-\sin\theta$ located in the (p,q) position and the entry $\sin\theta$ located in (q,p) position.

So, see in the given matrix A , we are assuming that in among the all off diagonal entries in the matrix A the p q th entry a_{pq} is numerically the largest. And since, it is symmetric matrix if a_{pq} is numerically the largest then a_{qp} , a_{qp} is equal to a_{pq} . So, it is also the numerically largest. So, what we will do in the R th matrix in the p q th position in the p q th position we will take minus sin theta. In the q p th position that is q th row p th column we shall take sin theta.

And in the p p th position in the p p th position we take cos theta and q q th position also we take cos theta. All other entries on the diagonal are taken as one and remaining off diagonal entries are taken 0. So, corresponding to q th element a_{pq} in the rotation matrix R , we take minus sin theta corresponding to the q p th element a_{qp} in the q p th position in R we take sin theta. And then p , p th position, p th row, p th column, in the matrix R is taken as cos theta, q th row, q th element a_{qq} is also taken as cos theta. Remaining elements on the diagonal in RR taken as 1 all the remaining diagonal off diagonal elements are taken as 0.

So, this is how we construct the matrix R. And so, here all the off-diagonal entries in R are 0 except for the entry minus sin theta located in the p q th position, and the entry sin theta are located in the q p th position. All the diagonal entries in R are equal to 1 except for the entry cos theta located in p p th position and q q th position, thus R is a rotation matrix where theta is to be chosen in such a way that the entries d p q and d q p of D located at the p q th and q p th position respectively in D are 0.

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Further, all the diagonal entries in R_1 are 1 except for the entry $\cos\theta$ located in (p,p) and (q,q) positions. Thus, R_1 is a rotation matrix where θ is to be chosen in such a way that the entries d_{pq} and d_{qp} of D_1 located at the (p,q) and (q,p) positions respectively in D_1 are zero. We have

$$B = AR_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1p} & \dots & a_{1q} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{p1} & \dots & a_{pp} & \dots & a_{pq} & \dots & a_{pn} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{q1} & \dots & a_{qp} & \dots & a_{qq} & \dots & a_{qn} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{np} & \dots & a_{nq} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & c & \dots & -s & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & s & \dots & c & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

pth column qth column

pth row qth row

So, when you find the D matrix ok. R transpose D naught R the R you can say R transpose A R then, it should turn out that the element in the p q th position in D is equal to 0. And the element in q p th position is 0 or you can say close to 0. Now, so let us see what happens, A is the given matrix A 1 1 A 1 at 1 2, A 1 p this is p th for the p th column. This is q th column a 1 q, A 1 and this is p th row of the matrix A a p 1, a p p, a p q, a p n this q th row a q 1, a q p, a q q, a q 1, and this is nth row of the matrix a and this is the matrix R.

So, first we are finding what happens when the matrix because, we have to find D ok. D is equal to D is equal to R transpose A R 1. So, first we are finding A R 1 first we are multiplying the matrix ay the matrix R 1, and in the matrix R 1 for simplicity for convenience. We have represented cos theta by c and sin theta by s.

So, you can see here in the p q th position we are taking minus s in the q p th position we are taking s, in the p p th position and q q th position we have taken cc. So, this is how

we take write construct the matrix R and then multiply a by the matrix R. And let us see what happens then it will turn out that.

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Then $b_{jk} = a_{jk}$ when $k \neq q$ and $k \neq p$.

$b_{jp} = ca_{jp} + sa_{jq}$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

$b_{jq} = -sa_{jp} + ca_{jq}$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $c = \cos\theta$, $s = \sin\theta$.

Now, $D_1 = R_1^T A R_1$

$$D_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ p^{\text{th}} \text{ row} & 0 & \dots & c & \dots & s & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & & \\ q^{\text{th}} \text{ row} & 0 & \dots & -s & \dots & c & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & & \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ b_{p1} & b_{p2} & \dots & b_{pn} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ b_{q1} & b_{q2} & \dots & b_{qn} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \dots & b_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

pth column qth column

When k is not equal to q or k is not equal to p ok. K is not equal to p let us say see when you find the matrix v j B. Let us say, B matrix the matrix B the matrix B is equal to b j k. Let us say, the matrix B is equal to b j k n by n then, b j k will be equal to a j k whenever k is not equal to q and k is not equal to p and k is not equal to q.

Because, only in the p th and q th when k equal to p and k equal to q, there will be changes there will be no change. So, b j p equal to c a j p plus s a j q. We get this when you multiply j th row of the matrix A. J th row of the matrix A by the p th column of R 1 we get b j p. So, when you so, b j p it turns out to be c a j p plus s a j q similarly, when you multiply j th row of the matrix a by the a q th column of r ok. We get minus s a j p plus c a j q for j equal to 1 2 3 and so on up to n. Here c is cos theta s a sin theta.

And then when you find D 1 R 1 transpose A R 1 this is my R 1 transpose. You can see here, the position of c and c remains unchanged because, they are on the diagonal while the position of minus a and s gets interchanged minus s comes from here, to here and s goes from here to here ok. So, because of transpose so, then when we multiply this R 1 transpose by the A R 1 A R 1 is my B matrix A R 1 is B matrix.

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Then, we note that only the rows p and q are altered. Thus, the orthogonal similarity transformation will only alter the columns p and q and the rows p and q of A .

Now, let $D = (d_{ij})_{n \times n}$ then

$$d_{jp} = ca_{jp} + sa_{jq}, \quad j \neq p \text{ and } j \neq q$$

$$d_{jq} = -sa_{jp} + ca_{jq}, \quad j \neq p \text{ and } j \neq q$$

$$d_{pp} = c^2 a_{pp} + 2csa_{pq} + s^2 a_{qq}$$

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So, what I get is this we get the following. So, when we note that only the rows p and q are altered you see this is because, all other entries all other in all the other rows we have ones on the diagonal while other entries are 0. So, there will be no change except the except p and q th row p th row and q th row. So, only the p th and q th rows are altered does the orthogonal similarity transformation will only alter the columns p and q . When you find the matrix B columns are altered p and q , and then we find your R^{-1} transpose B then the rows p and q are altered.

So, D is equal to if we represented to d by matrix by d_{ij} n by n then, it is easy to see that d_{jp} d_{jq} is the. When we multiplied j th row of R^{-1} transpose by p th column of b , we get ca_{jp} plus sa_{jq} . This will be the case when j is not equal to p and j is not equal to q . Similarly, d_{jq} we can find when we multiply j th row of R^{-1} transpose by q th column of b . We get minus sa_{jp} plus ca_{jq} and d_{pp} , when we multiply p th row of the matrix R^{-1} transpose by p th column of the matrix we. We will get $c^2 a_{pp}$ plus $2cs$, $2cs$ a_{pq} plus $s^2 a_{qq}$.

Remember we here while finding the multiplication we have made use of the fact that a_{pq} equal to a_{qp} . So, when we made use of this fact that a_{pp} a_{pq} and a_{qp} are same, d_{pp} turns out to be this.

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$$d_{qq} = s^2 a_{pp} - 2cs a_{pq} + c^2 a_{qq}$$
$$d_{pq} = (c^2 - s^2) a_{pq} + cs(a_{qq} - a_{pp})$$

and the other entries of D_1 are obtained by symmetry.

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And similarly, we can find d_{qq} turns out to be $s^2 a_{pp} - 2cs a_{pq} + c^2 a_{qq}$. And d_{pq} is equal to $(c^2 - s^2) a_{pq} + cs(a_{qq} - a_{pp})$. The other entries of D_1 are obtained by symmetry ok.

So, this is what we do, we will in the next lecture we will determine the formulas to determine the values of certain parameters. When we determine those parameters we will be able to determine the angle θ , which is to be chosen in such a way that a_{pq} and a_{qp} entries of the matrix A_{R0} are the largest numerically largest off diagonal entries of the matrix A_{R0} so, that we will discuss. So, with this I would like to conclude my lecture.

Thank you very much for your attention.