# Applied Linear Algebra OTTO BRETSCHER 

 http://www.prenhall.com/bretscherChapter 8<br>Symmetric Matrices and Quadratic Forms

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### 8.1 SYMMETRIC MATRICES

In chapter 7, we are concerned with when is a given square matrix $A$ diagonalizable? That is, when is there an eigenbasis for $A$ ?

In geometry, we prefer to work with orthnomal bases, which raises the question:

For which matrices is there an orthonormal eigenbasis?

Example 1 If $A$ is orthogonally diagonalizable, what is the relationship between $A^{T}$ and $A$ ?

Solution We have

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

or

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

for an orthogonal matrix $S$ and a diagonal $D$. Then

$$
A^{T}=\left(S D S^{T}\right)^{T}=S D^{T} S^{T}=S D S^{T}=A
$$

We find that $A$ is symmetric.

## Fact 8.1.1 Spectral theorem

A matrix $A$ is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if $A$ is symmetric (i.e., $A^{T}=A$ ).

The set of eigenvalues of a matrix is called the spectrum of $A$, and the following description of the eigenvalues is called a spectral theorem.

## THEOREM

The Spectral Theorem For A Symmetric Matrix

- $A$ has $n$ real eigenvalues, counting mutiplicities. (Fact 8.1.3)
- The dimension of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue $\lambda$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of $\lambda$.
- The eigenspaces are mutually orthogonal, in the sense that eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal. (Fact 8.1.2)
- $A$ is orthogonally diagonalizable. (Fact 8.1.1)

Example 2 For the symmetric matrix $A=$ $\left[\begin{array}{ll}4 & 2 \\ 2 & 7\end{array}\right]$, find an orthogonal $S$ such that $S^{-1} A S$ is diagonal.

Solution See Figure 1.

$$
E_{3}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
2 \\
-1
\end{array}\right], E_{8}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
2
\end{array}\right]
$$



Figure 1

Note that the eigenspaces $E_{3}$ and $E_{8}$ are perpendicular. (This is no coincidence.) Therefore, we can find an orthonormal eigenbasis simply by dividing the given eigenvectors by their lengths:

$$
\vec{v}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
2 \\
-1
\end{array}\right], \vec{v}_{2}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
2
\end{array}\right]
$$

Define

$$
S=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mid & \mid \\
\vec{v}_{1} & \vec{v}_{2} \\
\mid & \mid
\end{array}\right]=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
2 & 1 \\
-1 & 2
\end{array}\right]
$$

then $S^{-1} A S=\left[\begin{array}{ll}3 & 0 \\ 0 & 8\end{array}\right]$

Fact 8.1.2 Consider a symmetric matrix $A$. If $\vec{v}_{1}$ and $\vec{v}_{2}$ are eigenvectors of $A$ with distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$, then $\vec{v}_{1} \cdot \vec{v}_{2}=0$; that is, $\vec{v}_{2}$ is orthogonal to $\vec{v}_{1}$.

Proof We compute the product $\vec{v}_{1}^{T} A \vec{v}_{2}$ in two ways:

- $\vec{v}_{1}^{T} A \vec{v}_{2}=\vec{v}_{1}^{T}\left(\lambda_{2} \vec{v}_{2}\right)=\lambda_{2}\left(\vec{v}_{1} \cdot \vec{v}_{2}\right)$
- $\vec{v}_{1}^{T} A \vec{v}_{2}=\vec{v}_{1}^{T} A^{T} \vec{v}_{2}=\left(A \vec{v}_{1}\right)^{T} \vec{v}_{2}=\left(\lambda_{1} \vec{v}_{1}\right)^{T} \vec{v}_{2}=$ $\lambda_{1}\left(\vec{v}_{1} \cdot \vec{v}_{2}\right)$

Comparing the results, we find

$$
\lambda_{1}\left(\vec{v}_{1} \cdot \vec{v}_{2}\right)=\lambda_{2}\left(\vec{v}_{1} \cdot \vec{v}_{2}\right)
$$

or

$$
\left(\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}\right)\left(\vec{v}_{1} \cdot \vec{v}_{2}\right)=0
$$

Since $\lambda_{1} \neq \lambda_{2}, \vec{v}_{1} \cdot \vec{v}_{2}$ must be zero.

Fact 8.1.3 A symmetric $n \times n$ matrix $A$ has $n$ real eigenvalues if they are counted with their algebraic multiplicites.

Proof of 8.1.3 For those who have studied Section 7.5. Consider two complex conjugate eigenvalues $p \pm i q$ of $A$ with corresponding eigenvectors $\vec{v} \pm i \vec{w}$. Compute the product

$$
(\vec{v}+i \vec{w})^{T} A(\vec{v}-i \vec{w})
$$

in two different ways:

$$
\begin{gathered}
(\vec{v}+i \vec{w})^{T} A(\vec{v}-i \vec{w})=(\vec{v}+i \vec{w})^{T}(p-i q)(\vec{v}-i \vec{w}) \\
=(p-i q)\left(\|\vec{v}\|^{2}+\|\vec{w}\|^{2}\right) \\
(\vec{v}+i \vec{w})^{T} A(\vec{v}-i \vec{w})=(A(\vec{v}+i \vec{w}))^{T}(\vec{v}-i \vec{w}) \\
=(p+i q)(\vec{v}+i \vec{w})^{T}(\vec{v}-i \vec{w})=(p+i q)\left(\|\vec{v}\|^{2}+\|\vec{w}\|^{2}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

Comparing the results, we find that $p+i q=$ $p-i q$, so $q=0$, as claimed.

Proof of 8.1.1 Even more technical.

Example 3 For the symmetric matrix

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

find an orthogonal $S$ such that $S^{-1} A S$ is diagonal.

## Solution

The eigenvalues are 0 and 3 , with
$E_{0}=\operatorname{span}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c}-1 \\ 1 \\ 0\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{c}-1 \\ 0 \\ 1\end{array}\right]\right)$ and $E_{3}=\operatorname{span}\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 1 \\ 1\end{array}\right]$
Note that the two eigenspaces are indeed perpendicular to one another (See Figure 2, 3).

We can construct an orthonormal eigenbasis for $A$ by picking an orthonormal basis of each eigenspace.

Perform Gram-Schmidt process to the vectors

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
-1 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{c}
-1 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

we find

$$
\vec{v}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
-1 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right], \vec{v}_{2}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
-1 \\
-1 \\
2
\end{array}\right]
$$

For $E_{3}$, we get

$$
\vec{v}_{3}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Therefore, the orthogonal matrix
$S=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}\mid & \mid & \mid \\ \vec{v}_{1} & \vec{v}_{2} & \overrightarrow{v_{3}} \\ \mid & \mid & \mid\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}-1 / \sqrt{2} & -1 / \sqrt{6} & 1 / \sqrt{3} \\ 1 / \sqrt{2} & -1 / \sqrt{6} & 1 / \sqrt{3} \\ 0 & 2 / \sqrt{6} & 1 / \sqrt{3}\end{array}\right]$
diagonalizes the matrix $A$ :

$$
S^{-1} A S=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 3
\end{array}\right]
$$



Figure 2 The eigenspaces $E_{0}$ and $E_{3}$ are orthogonal complements.

Algorithm 8.1.4 Orthogonal diagonalization of a symmetric matrix $A$

1. Find the eigenvalues of $A$, and find a basis of each eigenspace.
2. Using the Gram-Schmidt process, find an orthonormal basis of each eigenspace.
3. Form an orthonormal eigenbasis $\vec{u}_{1}, \vec{u}_{2}, \ldots, \vec{u}_{n}$ for $A$ by combining the vectors you find in the last step, and let

$$
P=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\mid & \mid & & \mid \\
\vec{u}_{1} & \vec{u}_{2} & \ldots & \vec{u}_{n} \\
\mid & \mid & & \mid
\end{array}\right]
$$

$P$ is orthogonal, and $P^{-1} A P$ will be diagonal.

## Spectral Decomposition

Suppose that $A=P D P^{-1}$, where the columns of $P$ are orthonormal eigenvectors $\vec{u}_{1}, \vec{u}_{2}, \ldots, \vec{u}_{n}$ of $A$ and the corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ are in the diagonal matrix $D$. Then, since $P^{-1}=P^{T}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A=P D P^{T}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\vec{u}_{1} & \cdots & \vec{u}_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\lambda_{1} & & 0 \\
& \cdots & \\
0 & & \lambda_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
\vec{u}_{1}^{T} \\
\vdots \\
\vec{u}_{n}^{T}
\end{array}\right] \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\lambda_{1} \vec{u}_{1} & \cdots & \lambda_{n} \vec{u}_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
\vec{u}_{1}^{T} \\
\vdots \\
\vec{u}_{n}^{T}
\end{array}\right]=\lambda_{1} \vec{u}_{1} \vec{u}_{1}^{T}+\cdots+\lambda_{n} \vec{u}_{n} \vec{u}_{n}^{T}
\end{aligned}
$$

This representation of $A$ is called a spectral decomposition of $A$ because it breaks up $A$ into pieces determined by the spectrum (eigenvalues) of $A$. Each term is an $n \times n$ matrix of rank 1. Furthermore, each matrix $\vec{u}_{j} \vec{u}_{j}^{T}$ is a projection matrix onto the subspace spanned by $\vec{u}_{j}$.

Example 4 Consider an invertible symmetric $2 \times 2$ matrix $A$. Show that the linear transformation $T(\vec{x}=A \vec{x}$ maps the unit circle into an ellipse, and find the lengths of the semimajor and the semiminor axes of the ellipse in terms of the eigenvalues of $A$.

## Solution

The spectral theorem tells us there is an orthonormal eigenbasis $u_{1}, u_{2}$ for $T$, with associated real eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}$. Suppose that $\left|\lambda_{1}\right|>\left|\lambda_{2}\right|$. These eigenvalues will be nonzero, since $A$ is invertible. The unit circle consists of all vectors of the form

$$
\vec{v}=\cos (t) u_{1}+\sin (t) u_{2}
$$

. The image of the unit circle will be

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(\vec{v}) & =\cos (t) T\left(u_{1}\right)+\sin (t) T\left(u_{2}\right) \\
& =\cos (t) \lambda_{1} u_{1}+\sin (t) \lambda_{2} u_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

an ellipse whose semimajor axis has the length $\left\|\lambda_{1} u_{1}\right\|=\left|\lambda_{1}\right|$, while the length of the semiminor axis is $\left\|\lambda_{2} u_{2}\right\|=\left|\lambda_{2}\right|$. (See Figure 4).


