



## 8 Symmetric Matrices

### 8.1 Properties of Symmetric matrix

We know that an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix  $A$  has only real eigenvalues

$$\underbrace{(A - \lambda I)}_{\text{real}} x = 0,$$

so the eigenvectors are also real. They are, in fact, *perpendicular*.

#### Example .

(symmetric)

$$\cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors } \begin{matrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \rightarrow \lambda_1 = 8 & \rightarrow \lambda_2 = 2 \end{matrix}$$

$$\cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors } \begin{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, & \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} = 1 \end{matrix}$$

(Not symmetric)

$$\cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has only one eigenvector } \begin{bmatrix} c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Theorem** An  $n \times n$  real symmetric matrix has an orthonormal basis of eigenvector for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\uparrow \uparrow x_i^T x_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

**Partial Proof** (Eigenvectors of a real sym.matrix corresponding to different eigenvalues are perpendicular) :

$$\text{Let } Ax = \lambda_1 x, \quad Ay = \lambda_2 y, \quad \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2, \quad A = A^T.$$

$$\text{Then } (\lambda_1 x)^T y = (Ax)^T y = x^T A^T y = x^T Ay = x^T \lambda_2 y$$

$$\begin{matrix} \parallel & & \parallel \\ \lambda_1 x^T y & & \lambda_2 x^T y. \end{matrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \Rightarrow x^T y = 0. \quad \#$$

**Recall** Diagonalization  $A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$

For a symmetric matrix  $A$ , construct  $X$  using  $n$  orthonormal eigenvectors.

Then

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} & x_1^T & \text{---} \\ & \vdots & \\ \text{---} & x_n^T & \text{---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ x_1 & \cdots & x_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}.$$

$$\therefore \mathbf{X}^{-1} = \mathbf{X}^T.$$

**Theorem** [Spectral Theorem or Principal Axis Theorem]

Every symmetric matrix has the factorization  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{X}^T$  with real eigenvalues in  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  and orthonormal eigenvectors in  $\mathbf{X}$ .

Consider a quadratic form :

$$q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Set  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x}$ . Then  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}$ , and  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{y}^T$

$$\therefore q = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i^2 \quad \leftarrow \text{(This is called the principal axis form)}$$

**Example .** Find the axes of the tilted ellipse

$$5x_1^2 + 8x_1x_2 + 5x_2^2 = 1$$

||  
 $q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$  where  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

The eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  :

$$\lambda_1 = 9, \lambda_2 = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & \\ & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Corresponding eigenvectors :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{X} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

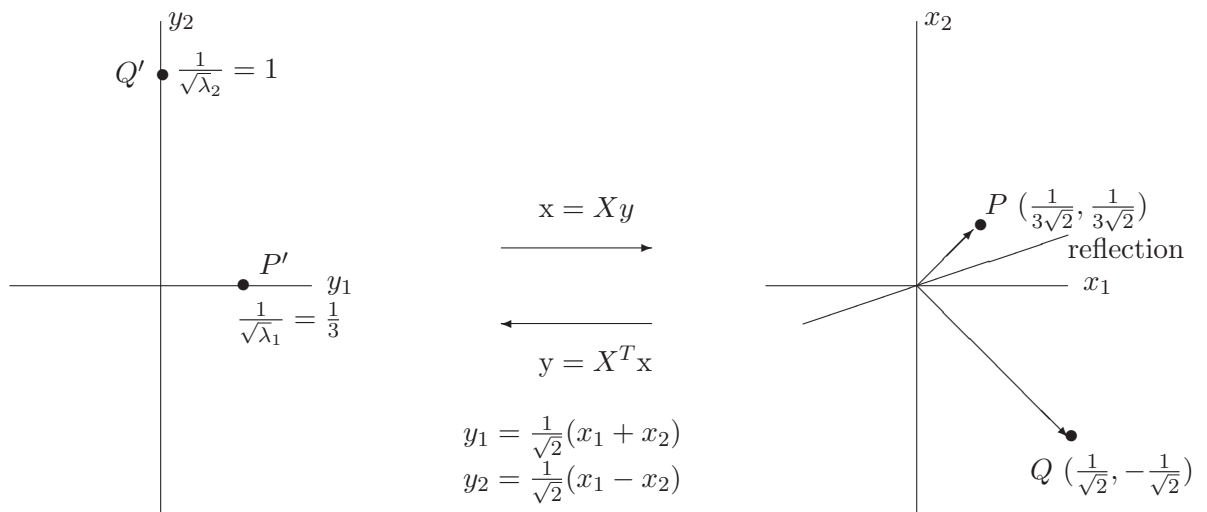
Set

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow y_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x_1 + x_2), \quad y_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x_1 - x_2)$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} q &= 9 \left( \frac{x_1 + x_2}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{x_1 - x_2}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 \\ &= \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 \end{aligned}$$



The axes of the tilted ellipse point along the eigenvectors of A.

This example shows why the previous theorem is called the principal axis theorem.

## 8.2 Positive Definite Matrices

**Note** In the above example, for any nonzero vector  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,

$$q = x^T A x = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 > 0$$

Such a matrix A is called positive definite. (Strang, page331)

**Definition** A symmetric matrix A is positive definite if  $x^T A x > 0$  for every nonzero vector x.

**Recall**  $q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \lambda_i$  where  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  are eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

· Suppose that  $\lambda_k \leq 0$ . Then for  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow k^{th}$ ,

$q = \lambda_k \leq 0$ . Thus, there exists a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}$  s.t.  $q \leq 0$ .

· If all  $\lambda_i >$ , then  $q > 0$  for every nonzero  $\mathbf{x}$ .

Therefore we have the following theorem :

**Theorem A :  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix. Then,**

All  $n$  eigenvalues are positive

$\Updownarrow$

$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$  except at  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  ( $\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite).

2x2 case  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}$ , when is  $\mathbf{A}$  positive definite?

$$|\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}| = (a - \lambda)(c - \lambda) - b^2 = \lambda^2 - (a + c)\lambda + ac - b^2 = 0$$

· If  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0$ ,  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = a + c > 0$   
 $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = ac - b^2 > 0$

If  $a > 0$  and  $c \leq 0$ , then  $ac - b^2 \leq 0$

If  $a \leq 0$  and  $c > 0$ , then  $ac - b^2 \leq 0$

Therefore, we have  $a > 0, c > 0$  and  $ac - b^2 > 0$

· Now, suppose  $a > 0$  and  $ac - b^2 > 0$   
 1x1 upperleft      2x2 determinant  
 determinant

This forces  $c > 0$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 > 0, \quad \lambda_1 \lambda_2 > 0$$

$$\therefore \lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} &= [x_1 \quad x_2] \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= ax_1^2 + 2bx_1x_2 + cx_2^2 \\ &= a \left( x_1 + \frac{b}{a}x_2 \right)^2 + \left( \frac{ac - b^2}{a} \right) x_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + \frac{b}{a}x_2 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & \\ & \frac{ac-b^2}{a} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + \frac{b}{a}x_2 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{b}{a} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & \\ & \frac{ac-b^2}{a} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{x}
\end{aligned}$$

Recall the factorization of a symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{L}^T$   
 $\mathbf{D}$  contains the diagonal elements of the upper triangular matrix, and they are pivots!

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\uparrow \text{ first pivot (if } a > 0) & & \\
\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} & \longrightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c - \frac{b}{a}b \end{bmatrix} \\
& & \text{second pivot}
\end{array}$$

Thus,  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$  except at  $\mathbf{x} = 0$  mean positive pivots and vice versa.

The above analysis holds for  $n \times n$  symmetric matrices.

**Theorem** For an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , the following are equivalent.

1. All  $n$  eigenvalues are positive.
2. All  $n$  upperleft determinants are positive.
3. All  $n$  pivots are positive.
4.  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$  except at  $\mathbf{x} = 0$ . ( $\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite)

• Suppose  $\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite. Then,

- (i)  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = 1$  is an ellipse. ( $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{y} = 1$ )
- (ii) the quadratic function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$  has a minimum at  $\mathbf{x} = 0$ .

