

Lecture IV

Key Issues:

Real symmetric matrices and canonical forms

Symmetric Matrices

Recall that a symmetric matrix $A = (a_{ij})$

satisfies: $a_{ij} = a_{ji}, \quad \forall 1 \leq i, j \leq n.$

It is a **real symmetric matrix** if, additionally, all a_{ij} 's are real.

Notation :

$$A = A^T, A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

Fact 1 about Symmetric Matrices

The eigenvalues of a real symmetric matrix are always real.

Proof of Fact 1

By contradiction, assume that a real symmetric A has a complex eigenvalue, say, λ . Then,

$$Ax = \lambda x \Rightarrow A\bar{x} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}, \text{ or } \bar{x}^T A = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}^T.$$

because A is symmetric. This further implies that

$$\bar{x}^T Ax = \lambda \bar{x}^T x \text{ and } \bar{x}^T Ax = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T x.$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = (\lambda - \bar{\lambda}) x^T \bar{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - \bar{\lambda}) = 0, \text{ a contradiction.}$$

Fact 2 about Symmetric Matrices

For any real symmetric matrix, its eigenvectors associated with distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

Remark: Orthogonal vectors are linearly independent.

Proof of Fact 2

For a real symmetric A , consider a pair of eigenvectors (x, y) associated with distinct eigenvalues λ, μ , respectively, i.e.,

$$Ax = \lambda x \text{ and } Ay = \mu y.$$

This further implies that

$$y^T Ax = \lambda y^T x \text{ and } x^T Ay = \mu x^T y.$$

$$A \text{ symmetric} \Rightarrow y^T Ax = x^T Ay \Rightarrow 0 = (\lambda - \mu) x^T y$$

$$\Rightarrow x^T y = 0, \text{ as wished.}$$

Canonical Form – First Pass

Consider a real symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$,

with *distinct* (real, by Fact 1) eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n$.

Then, there is an *orthogonal* matrix O , i.e., $O^T O = I$, such that

$$O^T A O = \text{diag}(\lambda_i) \triangleq \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Constructive Proof

For each eigenvalue λ_i , take an eigenvector x^i , which has unit norm, i.e., $\|x^i\| = \sqrt{(x^i)^T x^i} = 1$.

Define a matrix O as:

$$O \triangleq (x^1, \dots, x^n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

$$\text{Then, } O^T = \begin{bmatrix} (x^1)^T \\ \vdots \\ (x^n)^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

Constructive Proof (cont'd)

It is directly checked using Fact 2 that $O^T O = I$,
i.e., O is an orthogonal matrix.

In addition, $O^T A O = \text{diag}(\lambda_i) \triangleq \Lambda$.

Exercise

Compute the eigenvalues λ_1, λ_2 of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

and find a transformation matrix O s.t.

$$O^T A O = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

What if A is not necessarily symmetric

In general, there may be a **nonsingular**,
not necessarily orthogonal, matrix P such that

$$P^{-1}AP = \text{diag}(\lambda_i).$$

As said previously, in this case, A is said to be
similar to $\text{diag}(\lambda_i)$, denoted $A \sim \text{diag}(\lambda_i)$,
and $\text{diag}(\lambda_i)$ is the **canonical diagonal form** of A .

Comment

When A is similar to a diagonal matrix $\text{diag}(\lambda_i)$,
i.e., $P^{-1}AP = \text{diag}(\lambda_i)$,

the eigenvalues of A are simply $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Indeed, } \det(\lambda I - P^{-1}AP) &= \det(P^{-1}(\lambda I - A)P) \\ &= \det P^{-1} \det(\lambda I - A) \det P = \det(\lambda I - A), \end{aligned}$$

noting that $\det P^{-1} \det P = \det(P^{-1}P) = 1$.

Exercise 1

Can the following matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

be transformed into the canonical diagonal form

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Two matrices having the same eigenvalues may not be similar.

Exercise 2

Can the following matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

be transformed into a canonical diagonal form?

Remark: A non symmetric matrix may not be diagonalizable.

Question (Necessity and Sufficiency):

When is a matrix similar to a diagonal matrix?

Necessary and Sufficient Condition for the Canonical Diagonal Form

- An $n \times n$ matrix A is similar to a diagonal matrix **iff** A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.
- When A has n distinct eigenvalues, it is similar to a diagonal matrix.

Proof

First, note that Statement 2 follows from Statement 1 and a result proved previously.

Assume A is similar to a diagonal matrix $\Lambda = \text{diag} \{ \lambda_i \}$.

Then, $\exists P$ nonsingular s.t. $P^{-1}AP = \Lambda$.

Let $P = \begin{pmatrix} p^1 & p^2 & \dots & p^n \end{pmatrix}$, with $\{p^i\}$ linearly independent.

$$AP = P\Lambda \quad \Rightarrow \quad Ap^i = \lambda_i p^i, \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

implying that p^i is an eigenvector for eigenvalue λ_i .

Proof (cont'd)

Conversely, assume that A has n linearly independent eigenvectors $\{p^i\}_{i=1}^n$, i.e., $Ap^i = \lambda_i p^i$.

Then, $P = \begin{pmatrix} p^1 & p^2 & \dots & p^n \end{pmatrix}$ is nonsingular and satisfies (by direct computation) that

$$P^{-1}AP = \Lambda.$$

Comment

From the proof of Part 1, it follows that the following is an equivalent condition for diagonalization of A :

$$\dim N(A - \lambda_1 I) + \cdots + \dim N(A - \lambda_k I) = n$$

where

$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ are the distinct eigenvalues of A , $k \leq n$.

An Example

Bring the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
into a diagonal form.

The eigenvalues of A are $\lambda_1 = -j$, $\lambda_2 = j$.

As it can be directly checked, the associated independent eigenvectors are:

$$c^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ j \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad c^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -j \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, $P = (c^1 \ c^2)$, implying that

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} -j & 0 \\ 0 & j \end{pmatrix}.$$

Diagonalizable Matrix

A matrix is said to be "**diagonalizable**", if it is similar to a diagonal matrix.

Are the following statements true or false:

(1) Two diagonalizable matrices always commute.

(2) The block-diagonal matrix

$$B = \text{block diag} \{ B_i \}, B_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i \times n_i}$$

is diagonalizable if and only if each B_i is diagonalizable.

Let's stop for a short review...

- **Review of the results on nontrivial solutions to homogeneous equations:**

$$Ax = 0, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

- **How about inhomogeneous systems?**

A Quiz?

- Any set of vectors $x^i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, with $1 \leq i \leq N$, are always linearly dependent, if $N > n$.

Real and Symmetric Matrices

- The eigenvalues are always real.
- Eigenvectors associated with distinct eigenvalues are always orthogonal.
- Any matrix *with no repeated eigenvalues* is diagonalizable.
- How to transform a real and symmetric matrix into a diagonal form?

A General Result for General Symmetric Matrices

For any real and symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$,
there always exists an orthogonal matrix, say O ,
 $O^T O = I$, such that

$$O^T A O = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Special case: A Trivial Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Clearly, the identity matrix is an orthogonal matrix.

Before proving this general and fundamental result, let us introduce some useful tools.

The Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization Process

Question :

How to generate a set of mutually orthogonal vectors $\{y^i\}_{i=1}^N$ *successively*, from a set of N real linearly independent n -dimensional vectors $\{x^i\}_{i=1}^N$?

Let us start with a set of **real-valued** vectors $\{x^i\}_{i=1}^N$. Here is the systematic procedure.

First,

$$y^1 := x^1$$

$$y^2 := x^2 + a_{11}x^1$$

where a_{11} is a scalar to be determined so that

inner product $\langle y^1, y^2 \rangle \triangleq (y^1)^T y^2 = 0$

$$\Leftrightarrow \langle x^1, x^2 + a_{11}x^1 \rangle = 0.$$

$$\langle x^1, x^2 + a_{11}x^1 \rangle = 0 \iff a_{11} := -\langle x^1, x^2 \rangle / \langle x^1, x^1 \rangle$$

with $D_1 := \langle x^1, x^1 \rangle > 0$.

Next, construct y^3 as:

$$y^3 := x^3 + a_{21}x^1 + a_{22}x^2$$

where a_{21} , a_{22} are scalars to be determined s.t.

$$\langle y^3, y^1 \rangle = 0, \quad \langle y^3, y^2 \rangle = 0$$



$$\langle y^3, x^1 \rangle = 0, \quad \langle y^3, x^2 \rangle = 0.$$

$$\langle y^3, x^1 \rangle = 0, \quad \langle y^3, x^2 \rangle = 0$$



$$\begin{cases} \langle x^3, x^1 \rangle + a_{21} \langle x^1, x^1 \rangle + a_{22} \langle x^2, x^1 \rangle = 0 \\ \langle x^3, x^2 \rangle + a_{21} \langle x^1, x^2 \rangle + a_{22} \langle x^2, x^2 \rangle = 0 \end{cases}$$

which has a (unique) solution a_{21}, a_{22} if

$$D_2 := \det \begin{pmatrix} \langle x^1, x^1 \rangle & \langle x^1, x^2 \rangle \\ \langle x^2, x^1 \rangle & \langle x^2, x^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} \neq 0.$$

By contradiction, assume that

$$D_2 := \det \begin{pmatrix} \langle x^1, x^1 \rangle & \langle x^1, x^2 \rangle \\ \langle x^2, x^1 \rangle & \langle x^2, x^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

Then, there are two scalars r_1, s_1 , **not both 0**, such that

$$r_1 \langle x^1, x^1 \rangle + s_1 \langle x^1, x^2 \rangle = 0$$

$$r_1 \langle x^2, x^1 \rangle + s_1 \langle x^2, x^2 \rangle = 0$$

\Rightarrow

$$\langle x^1, r_1 x^1 + s_1 x^2 \rangle = 0, \quad \langle x^2, r_1 x^1 + s_1 x^2 \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle x^1, r_1 x^1 + s_1 x^2 \rangle = 0, \quad \langle x^2, r_1 x^1 + s_1 x^2 \rangle = 0$$

\Rightarrow

$$\langle r_1 x^1 + s_1 x^2, r_1 x^1 + s_1 x^2 \rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow r_1 x^1 + s_1 x^2 = 0.$$

Contradiction with x^1, x^2 being linearly independent. Thus,

$$D_2 := \det \begin{pmatrix} \langle x^1, x^1 \rangle & \langle x^1, x^2 \rangle \\ \langle x^2, x^1 \rangle & \langle x^2, x^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} \neq 0.$$

So, we have obtained three mutually orthogonal vectors:

$$y^1 := x^1$$

$$y^2 := x^2 + a_{11}x^1$$

$$y^3 := x^3 + a_{21}x^1 + a_{22}x^2$$

Continuing this process, we can find other mutually orthogonal vectors:

$$y^i := x^i + \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} a_{(i-1)k} x^k$$

with the scalars $a_{(i-1)k}$ chosen to achieve the **mutual orthogonality** condition:

$$\langle y^i, y^j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j,$$

or equivalently, $\langle y^i, x^j \rangle = 0, \quad \forall 1 \leq j \leq i-1.$

Orthogonal Vectors

They are defined as follows:

$$u^i := y^i / \|y^i\|, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

It is easy to show that, if $n = N$,

$$O = \begin{pmatrix} u^1, & u^2, & \dots, & u^N \end{pmatrix}$$

is an orthogonal matrix.

An Example

Consider the linearly independent vectors:

$$x^1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

By means of the Gram-Schmidt process,
find a set of orthonormal vectors u^1, u^2 .

Exercise

Show that if $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ is a set of k linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then there exists an invertible upper triangular matrix $T \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ such that the matrix $U = VT$ has orthonormal columns.

Comment

During the Gram-Schmidt process, we proved that the determinants D_k , called *Gramians*, are nonzero. Indeed, we can prove that

$$D_k = \det \left(\langle x^i, x^j \rangle \right) > 0, \quad 1 \leq k \leq N,$$

for any set of linearly independent vectors $\{x^i\}_{i=1}^k$.

Indeed,

Leading principle minor

Each Gramian $D_k = \det(\langle x^i, x^j \rangle)$ is associated with a positive-definite quadratic form:

$$\begin{aligned} Q(u) &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^k u_i x^i, \sum_{j=1}^k u_j x^j \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^k \langle x^i, x^j \rangle u_i u_j \end{aligned}$$

Q **positive definite** in $u \doteq (u_1, \dots, u_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$.

$\Leftrightarrow Q(u) \geq 0$, where equality holds only when $u = 0$.

An Interesting Result

For any **positive-definite** quadratic form

$$Q = \sum_{i,j=1}^N a_{ij} u_i u_j,$$

the associated determinant

$$D = \det(a_{ij})$$

is always positive.

Proof

- First, we prove that $D \neq 0$. By contradiction, assume otherwise, there is a nontrivial solution to

$$\sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} u_j = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

Then, it follows that

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^N u_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} u_j \right) = 0$$

a contradiction.

- **Second**, we prove that $D > 0$. For $\lambda \in [0,1]$, consider a family of quadratic forms defined as

$$P(\lambda) = \lambda Q + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^N u_i^2.$$

Clearly, $P(\lambda) > 0$, for all nontrivial u . Then, based on the above analysis, the associated determinants are nonzero.

At $\lambda = 0$, the determinant is $\det I > 0$.

So, by continuity, at $\lambda = 1$, the determinant is D which cannot be negative.

General 2x2 Symmetric Matrices

We begin with the two-dimensional case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \doteq \begin{pmatrix} a^1 \\ a^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

which is symmetric, i.e., $a_{12} = a_{21}$.

Consider a pair of eigenvalue λ_1 and associated

(normalized) eigenvector $x^1 := \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{12} \end{pmatrix}$, i.e.

$$Ax^1 = \lambda_1 x^1 \Leftrightarrow \langle a^1, x^1 \rangle = \lambda_1 x_{11}, \quad \langle a^2, x^1 \rangle = \lambda_1 x_{12}$$

General Symmetric Matrices (Cont'd)

Using the Gram-Schmidt process, take a 2×2 orthogonal matrix $O_2 = \begin{pmatrix} y^1 & y^2 \end{pmatrix}$, with $y^1 := x^1$ the **given normalized** eigenvector.

It will be shown that

$$O_2^T A O_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

General Symmetric Matrices (Cont'd)

First, show that

$$O_2^T A O_2 = O_2^T \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 y_{11} & \langle a^1, y^2 \rangle \\ \lambda_1 y_{12} & \langle a^2, y^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & b_{12} \\ 0 & b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Then, $b_{12} = 0$ using symmetry;

$$\left(O_2^T A O_2\right)^T = O_2^T A O_2.$$

and $b_{22} = \lambda_2$ because the eigenvalues are unchanged under O .

Exercise 1

Try to reduce the real symmetric matrix

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

to a diagonal form.

Exercise 2

Define the real **bilinear form**

$$Q(x, y) = y^T A x = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} y_i x_j, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

that reduces to the inner product when $A = I$.

Prove that Q is symmetric, i.e., $Q(x, y) = Q(y, x)$ if and only if A is symmetric.

See the text (Horn & Johnson, 2nd edition, 2013; page 226)

Homework #4

1. Does the singular matrix

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

have two independent eigenvectors?

2. Show that A and A^T have the same eigenvalues.

Homework #4

3. Show by direct calculation for A and B , 2×2 matrices, that AB and BA have the same characteristic equation.
4. Can you give two matrices that are reducible to the following canonical diagonal matrix

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

Justify your answer.