

Symmetric Matrices and Quadratic Forms

Linear Algebra

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Symmetric Matrix

Symmetric Matrix



 $\ \square$ A symmetric matrix is a matrix A such that $A^T = A$. Such a matrix is necessarily square. Its main diagonal entries are arbitrary, but its other entries occur in pairs – on opposite sides of the main diagonal.

Symmetric:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & 8 \\ 0 & 8 & -7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{bmatrix}$$

Nonsymmetric:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 & 0 \\ -6 & 1 & -4 \\ 0 & -6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Eigenvectors of a Symmetric Matrix



Theorem

Orthogonality of Eigenvectors of a Symmetric Matrix Corresponding to Distinct Eigenvalues. If A is symmetric, then any two eigenvectors from different eigenspace are orthogonal.

$$\begin{vmatrix}
Av_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 \\
Av_2 = \lambda_2 v_2 \\
\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2
\end{vmatrix} \Rightarrow v_1^T v_2 = 0$$

Orthogonally Diagonalizable



Definition

A square matrix A is orthogonally diagonalizable if its eigenvectors are orthogonal

Orthogonally Diagonalizable



Theorem

An $n \times n$ matrix A is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if A is a symmetric matrix.

$$(\Rightarrow): A = A^T \Rightarrow A = Q\Lambda Q^T, \Lambda = diag\{\lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_n\}$$

$$(\Leftarrow):$$

$$A = A^{T} \Leftarrow A = Q\Lambda Q^{T}, \Lambda = diag\{\lambda_{1}, \dots, \lambda_{n}\}, Q \text{ is orthogonal } \Rightarrow Q^{T} = Q^{-1}$$

$$A^{T} = (Q\Lambda Q^{-1})^{T} = (Q\Lambda Q^{T})^{T} = Q\Lambda^{T}Q^{T} = Q\Lambda Q^{T} = A$$

Spectral Decomposition (complex and real)



Theorem

Suppose $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$. Then there exists an orthogonal matrix $U \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ and diagonal matrix $D \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$A = UDU^T$$
.

if and only if A is symmetric (i.e., $A = A^T$).

Theorem

Suppose $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there exists a unitary matrix $U \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ and diagonal matrix $D \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that

$$A = UDU^*$$
.

if and only if A is normal (i.e., $A^*A = AA^*$).

Real eigenvalues



Theorem

All the eigenvalues of matrix A (a real symmetric matrix) are real.

Relationship between eigenvalue and pivot signs



Theorem

For a symmetric matrix the signs of the pivots are the signs of the eigenvalues.

number of positive pivots=number of positive eigenvalues

- We know that determinant of matrix is product of pivots.
- We know that determinant of matrix is product of eigenvalues.

Conclusion: Spectral Theorem



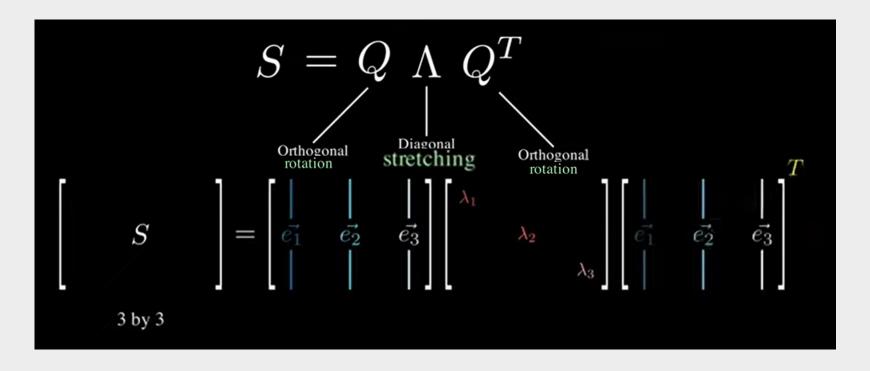
The Spectral Theorem for Symmetric Matrices

An $n \times n$ symmetric matrix A has the following properties:

- a. A has n real eigenvalues, counting multiplicities.
- b. The dimension of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue λ equals the multiplicity of λ as a root of the characteristic equation.
- c. The eigenspaces are mutually orthogonal, in the sense that eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.
- d. A is orthogonally diagonalizable.

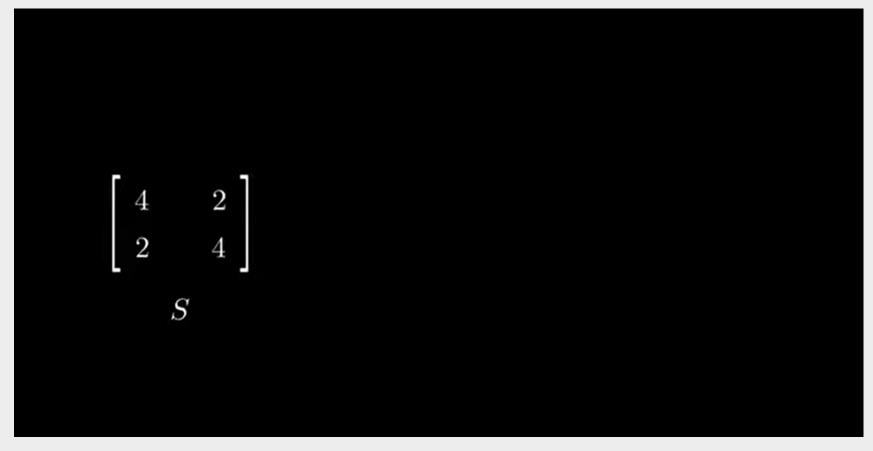
Spectral Decomposition (Real)





Visualization of Spectral Decomposition





Important Note



 Spectral Decomposition is nice and pretty, but with loss of generality:

Real Field: For square and symmetric matrices!

Complex Field: For square and normal matrices!

For General?? SVD!!!



- □ A quadratic form is any homogeneous polynomial of degree two in any number of variables. In this situation, homogeneous means that all the terms are of degree two.
 - For example, the expression $7x_1x_2 + 3x_2x_4$ is homogeneous, but the expression $x_1 3x_1x_2$ is not.
 - The square of the distance between two points in an inner-product space is a quadratic form.



• Given a square symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the scalar value $x^T A x$ is called a quadratic form.

$$x^{T}Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}(Ax)_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_{j} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_{i} x_{j}$$

A quadratic form on \mathbb{R}^n is a function Q defined on \mathbb{R}^n whose value at a vector x in \mathbb{R}^n can be computed by an expression of the form $Q(x) = x^T A x$, where A is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix. The matrix A is called the matrix of the quadratic form.



Definition

• Suppose \mathcal{X} is a vector space over \mathbb{R} . Then a function $\mathcal{Q}: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is called a quadratic form if there exists a bilinear form $f: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that:

$$Q(x) = f(x, x)$$
 for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$

Example

Simplest example of a nonzero quadratic form is ...



Example

Without cross-product term:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

With cross-product term:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Tip

 Quadratic forms are easier to use when they have no cross-product terms; that is, when the matrix of the quadratic form (A) is a diagonal matrix.



Example

For x in \mathbb{R}^3 , let $Q(x) = 5x_1^2 + 3x_2^2 + 2x_3^2 - x_1x_2 + 8x_2x_3$. Write this quadratic form as $x^T A x$.

Change of Variable in QF



• If x represents a variable in \mathbb{R}^n , then a **change of variable** is an equation of the form:

$$x = Py$$
 or equivalently, $y = P^{-1}x$

where P is an invertible matrix and y is a new variable vector in \mathbb{R}^n .

Note

y can be regarded as the **coordinate vector** of x relative to the basis of \mathbb{R}^n determined by the columns of P.

Change of Variable in QF



 \Box If the change of variable is made in a quadratic form x^TAx , then

$$x^T A x = (P y)^T A (P y) = y^T P^T A P y = y^T (P^T A P) y$$

- The new matrix of the quadratic form is P^TAP .
- A is symmetric, so there is an orthogonal matrix P such that P^TAP is a diagonal matrix D.
- Then the quadratic form $x^T A x$ becomes $y^T D y$. There is no cross-product.



 \Box If A and B are $n \times n$ real matrices connected by the relation

$$B = \frac{1}{2} \left(A + A^T \right)$$

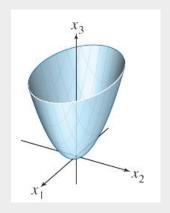
then the corresponding quadratic forms of A and B are identical, and B is symmetric

Classifying Quadratic Forms

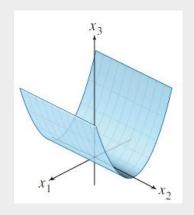


□ When A is an $n \times n$ matrix, the quadratic form $Q(x) = x^T A x$ is a realvalued function with domain \mathbb{R}^n .

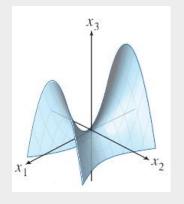
point
$$(x_1, x_2, z)$$
 where $z = Q(x)$



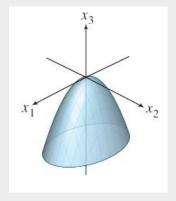
(a)
$$z = 3x_1^2 + 7x_2^2$$



(b)
$$z = 3x_1^2$$



(c)
$$z = 3x_1^2 - 7x_2^2$$



(d)
$$z = -3x_1^2 - 7x_2^2$$

Classifying Quadratic Forms



- A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is **positive definite (PD)** if for all non zero vectors $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T A x > 0$. This is usually denoted A > 0, and often times the set of all positive definite matrices is denoted \mathbb{S}^n_{++} .
- A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is **positive semidefinite (PSD)** if for all vectors $x^T A x \ge 0$. This is written $A \ge 0$, and the set of all positive semidefinite matrices is often denoted \mathbb{S}^n_+ .
- Likewise, a symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is negative definite (ND), denoted A < 0 if for all non-zero $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T A x < 0$.
- Similarly, a symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is negative semidefinite (NSD), denoted $A \leq 0$ if for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T A x \leq 0$.
- Finally, a symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is **indefinite**, if it is neither positive semidefinite nor negative semidefinite; i.e., if there exists $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $x_1^T A x_1 > 0$ and $x_2^T A x_2 < 0$.

Classifying Quadratic Forms



Definition

$$Q(x) = x^T A x$$

A quadratic form Q is:

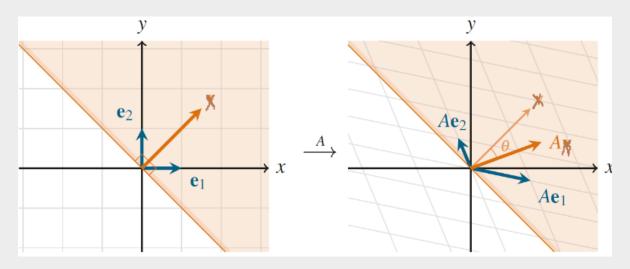
- positive definite if Q(x) > 0 for all $x \neq 0$;
- negative definite if Q(x) < 0 for all $x \neq 0$;
- indefinite if Q(x) assumes both positive and negative values;
- positive semidefinite if $Q(x) \ge 0$ for all x;
- negative semidefinite if $Q(x) \le 0$ for all x;

For diagonal matrix
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow x^T A x = a_1 x_1^2 + a_2 x_2^2 + \dots + a_n x_n^2.$$

Geometric Interpretation



$$Q(x) = x^T A x$$



Characterization of Positive Definite Matrices



Suppose $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is self-adjoint $(A^* = A)$.. The following are equivalent:

- a) A is positive definite.
- b) All of the eigenvalues of A are strictly positive.
- There is an *invertible* matrix $B \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $A = B^*B$
- d) There is a diagonal matrix $D \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ with *strictly positive* diagonal entries and a unitary matrix $U \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $A = UDU^*$.

You can extend these facts to other categories!

Characterization of Positive Semidefinite Matrices



Suppose $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is self-adjoint $(A^* = A)$. The following are equivalent:

- a) A is positive semidefinite.
- b) All of the eigenvalues of A are non-negative.
- c) There is a matrix $B \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $A = B^*B$, and
- There is a diagonal matrix $D \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ with non-negative diagonal entries and a unitary matrix $U \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $A = UDU^*$.



Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix. Then a quadratic form $x^T A x$ is:

- positive definite if and only if the eigenvalues of A are all positive;
- **negative definite** if and only if the eigenvalues of A are **all negative**;
- **indefinite** if and only if A has **both positive and negative** eigenvalues;

□ How about semidefinite?

Positive Definite Tests



Five tests to see whether a matrix is positive definite or not:

- 1. $x^T A x > 0$ for all x (other than zero-vector)
- 2. If A is positive definite, $A = S^T S$ (S must have independent columns.)
- 3. All eigen values are greater than 0
- 4. Sylvester's Criterion: All upper left determinants must be > 0.
- 5. Every pivot must be > 0

Note

A positive definite matrix A has positive eigenvalues, positive pivots, positive determinants, and positive energy $v^T A v$ for every vector $v \cdot A = S^T S$ is always positive definite if S has independent columns.



For positive definite matrices we had:

• If A is positive definite, $A = S^T S$ (S must have independent columns.)

Theorem

If S is positive definite $S = A^T A$ (A must have independent columns): $A^T A$ is positive definite iff the columns of A are linearly independent.

□ Proof?



For positive definite matrices we had:

All eigen values are greater than 0

Theorem

If a matrix is positive definite, then its eigenvalues are positive.

□ Proof?

Theorem

If a matrix has positive eigenvalues, then it is positive definite.



For positive definite matrices we had:

• Sylvester's Criterion: All upper left determinants must be > 0.

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

Theorem

If a matrix is positive definite, then it has positive determinant.

Sylvester's Criterion



Theorem

Then A is positive definite if and only if, for all $1 \le k \le n$, the determinant of the top-left $k \times k$ block of A is strictly positive.

Sylvester's Criterion for Positive Semidefinite Matrices



- □ A principal minor of a square matrix is the determinant of a submatrix of *A* that is obtained by deleting some (or none) of its rows as well as the corresponding columns.
- A matrix is positive semidefinite if and only if all of its principal minors are non-negative.

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ \bar{b} & d & e \\ \bar{c} & \bar{e} & f \end{bmatrix}$$

are $a, d, f, \det(B)$ itself, as well as

$$det\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ \overline{b} & d \end{bmatrix}\right) = ad - |b|^2$$

$$det\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ \bar{c} & f \end{bmatrix}\right) = af - |c|^2$$

$$det\left(\begin{bmatrix} d & e \\ \bar{e} & f \end{bmatrix}\right) = df - |e|^2$$

Pivots & Positive Definite Matrices



Theorem

If a matrix has positive pivots, then it is positive definite.

Properties



Important

- If A is positive definite, A^{-1} will also be positive definite.
- If A and B are positive definite matrices, A + B will also be a positive definite matrix.
- Positive definite and negative definite matrices are always full rank, and hence, invertible.
- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ gram matrix is always positive semidefinite. Further, if $m \ge n$ (and we assume for convenience that A is full rank), then gram matrix is positive definite.

Properties



Important

Suppose $A, B \in \mathcal{M}_n$ are positive (semi)definite, $P \in \mathcal{M}_{n,m}$ is any matrix, and c > 0 is real scalar. Then

- a) A + B is positive (semi)definite.
- b) *cA* is positive (semi)definite.
- c) A^T is positive (semi)definite, and
- d) P^*AP is positive semidefinite. Furthermore, if A is positive definite then P^*AP is positive definite if and only if rank(P) = m.

Gram Matrix

Gram Matrix



- $Gram(A) : A^T A$
- symmetric
- □ non-negative eigenvalues
- □ real eigenvalues
- orthonormal eigenvectors
- positive semi-definite