

Symmetric Matrices to Characterization of Eigenvalues

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1 Symmetric Matrices

Definition

Matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called a symmetric matrix if $A = A^T$

Matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is called a Hermitian matrix if $A = \bar{A}^T$

Proposition

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be Hermitian then all eigen values of A are real valued.

Eigenvectors that corresponds to distinct eigenvalue are orthogonal.

Proof

$$\lambda \langle x, x \rangle = \langle \lambda x, x \rangle = \langle Ax, x \rangle$$

Because $Ax = \lambda x$

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle x, \lambda x \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle$$

$$\lambda = \bar{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R} \text{ (Unless } x=0 \text{ vector, it has to be real)}$$

Consider: (λ_1, x_1) and (λ_2, x_2) are eigenvalue-eigenvector pairs of A

$$\lambda_1 \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle = \langle \lambda_1 x_1, x_2 \rangle = \langle Ax_1, x_2 \rangle$$

$$= \langle x_1, Ax_2 \rangle = \langle x_1, \lambda_2 x_2 \rangle$$

$$= \bar{\lambda}_2 \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$$

$$0 = \lambda_1 \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle - \lambda_2 \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$$

$$0 = (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$$

Either $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$

or if $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, then $\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle = 0$

$\Rightarrow x_1 \perp x_2$

Definition

An operator T in $L(V)$ on a Pre-Hilbert space V is called self-adjoint if $\langle v, Tw \rangle = \langle Tv, w \rangle$

Sometimes it's called a Hermitian Operator (on C^n) or a Symmetric Operator (on \mathbb{R}^n).

Remarks:

Over C^n , self adjoint operators are represented by Hermetian Matrices. Similarly. Over \mathbb{R}^n , self adjoint operators are represented by Symmetric Matrices.

Proposition

Let T in $\mathcal{L}(V)$ be self adjoint. Then, T has atleast one eigen value and it's real value (holds both on C^n and \mathbb{R}^n)

Proof(Sketch)

Let $n := \dim V$ and choose $v \neq 0$.

Consider the vectors v, Tv, T^2v, \dots, T^nv . These vectors are linearly dependent ($n + 1$ vectors, $\dim V = n$). There exist coefficients a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n .

So, vectors with coefficients are:

$$a_0v + a_1Tv + \dots + a_nT^nv$$

Consider the polynomial with these coefficients:

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n = 0 = \underbrace{C(x^2 + b_1x + c_1) \dots (x^n + b_mx + c_m)}_{\text{(quadratic terms)}} \times \underbrace{(x - \lambda_1) \dots (x - \lambda_m)}_{\text{(linear terms)}}$$

Replace x by T :

$$0 = a_0 + a_1Tv + \dots + a_nT^nv = \underbrace{C(T^2 + b_1T + c_1) \dots (T^n + b_mT + c_m)}_{\text{(quadratic terms)}} \times \underbrace{(T - \lambda_1I) \dots (T - \lambda_mI)}_{\text{(linear terms)}}v$$

Now, we can show that the quadratic terms are invertible, and we are left with at least one linear factor:

$$0 = (T - \lambda_1I) \dots (T - \lambda_nI)v$$

There needs to exist at least one i such that $(T - \lambda_i I)$ is not invertible.
 So $(T - \lambda_i I)v = 0$.
 This implies $Tv = \lambda_i v$.
 which means λ_i is an eigenvalue of T .

2 Spectral Theorem for Symmetric/ Hermitian Matrices

Theorem 1 A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonally diagonalizable: there exists an orthogonal matrix $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and a diagonal matrix $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ s.t.

$$A = QDQ^T, D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \underbrace{q_i q_i^T}_{\hookrightarrow \text{rank-1 matrices}}$$

Theorem 2 A Hermitian matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitarily diagonalizable: there exists a unitary matrix U and a diagonal matrix D . s.t.

$$A = UD\bar{U}^T$$

The entries of D are real-valued.

3 Positive Definite Matrices

Definition 3 A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called a **positive definite** (PD) if $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$x \neq 0 \quad x^T A x > 0$$

For **positive semi-definite** (PSD) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad x \neq 0, \quad x^T A x \geq 0$

Definition 4 A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is called a Gram matrix if there exists a set of vectors $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$. *Note: Gram matrices are Hermitian (Similarly on $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then Gram matrices are symmetric).*

$$G = V^T V, \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & 1 \\ V_1 & \ddots & V_n \\ 1 & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$CV^T$$

△ Over \mathbb{C} , we have that $PD \Rightarrow$ self adjoint.

Over \mathbb{R} , this is **not** true!

⇒ there are matrices which are *PD* but not symmetric.

Example:

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

$$x^T Ax = x_1^2 + x_2^2 > 0$$

→ So *A* is *PD* but not symmetric

→ over \mathbb{C} , the same matrix is not *PD* since $x_1^2 + x_2^2$ can be negative!

Theorem 5 $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ Hermitian. Then equivalent:

(i) *A* is PSD (*PD*)

(ii) All eigenvalues of *A* are ≥ 0 (> 0)

(iii) The mapping $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_A : \mathbb{C}^n \times \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with

$$\langle x, y \rangle_A := \bar{y}^T Ax$$

satisfies all properties of an inner product except one: if $\langle x, x \rangle_A = 0$, this does not imply $x = 0$

(This mapping is an inner product)

(iv) *A* is a Gram matrix of *n* vectors which are not necessarily linearly independent (which are linearly independent).

$$a_{ij} = \langle x_i, x_j \rangle$$

4 Roots of PSD matrices

Theorem 6 Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric, PSD. Then there exists a matrix $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, *B* is PSD such that $A = B^2$. Sometimes *B* is called the square root of *A*,

$$B = (A)^{1/2}$$

Proof: Spectral theorem ⇒

$$A = UDU^T, D \text{ diagonal}$$

PSD ⇒ eigenvalues ⇒ 0

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}, \lambda_i \geq 0$$

Define

$$\sqrt{D} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

and set

$$B := U\sqrt{D}U^\top$$

This matrix satisfies the property that $B^2 = A$

5 Variational Characterization of Eigenvalues

Definition 7 Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a symmetric matrix.

$$R_A : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$x \mapsto \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}$$

is called the Rayleigh coefficient.

Proposition 8 Let A be symmetric, let $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$ be the eigenvalues and v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n the eigenvectors of A . Then:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} R_A(x) = \min_{\|x\|=1} x^T A x = \lambda_1, \text{ attained at } x = v_1$$

$$\max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} R_A(x) = \max_{\|x\|=1} x^T A x = \lambda_n, \text{ attained at } x = v_n$$

Intuition:

Assume A is expressed in terms of the basis v_1, \dots, v_n

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Let y be a vector, also represented in the same basis.

$$y = y_1 v_1 + y_2 v_2 + \dots + y_n v_n$$

$$y^T A y = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2$$

Among the vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \dots \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \dots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, the smallest result of $y^T A y$ would be given by the vector $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, (v_1) , and the value would be λ_1 .

More general proof (sketch):

Assume we start with the standard basis. Let $Q = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{pmatrix}$ be the basis transformation.

Observe: Q is orthogonal, we have

$$A = Q^T \Lambda Q, \text{ where } \Lambda \text{ is diagonal.}$$

For a vector $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$ in the original basis, we now consider $y := Q^T x$.

$$\begin{aligned} R_A(y) &= \frac{y^T A y}{y^T y} \\ &= \frac{(Q^T x)^T A (Q^T x)}{(Q^T x)^T (Q^T x)} \\ &= \frac{x^T Q Q^T \Lambda Q Q^T x}{x^T Q Q^T x} \text{ Note: } (Q^T x)^T = x^T Q \\ &= \frac{x^T \Lambda x}{x^T x} \text{ Note: Because } Q \text{ is orthogonal, } Q Q^T = I \\ &= \frac{\lambda_1 x_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n^2}{\|x\|^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\min_{\|y\|=1} R_A(y) = \min_{\|x\|=1} \lambda_1 x_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n^2$$

Note: Q is orthogonal, which means norms are preserved

This minimum is attained for $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, that is $y = Q^T x = v_1$, with value

$$\min_{\|y\|=1} R_A(y) = \lambda_1$$

Proposition 9 Consider the problem

$$\min_{\substack{\|x\|=1 \\ x \perp v_1}} R(x).$$

The solution to this problem is $x = v_2, R(x) = \lambda_2$.

Intuition: Consider operator A restricted to the space $V_1^\perp := (\text{span}\{v_1\})^\perp$. We know that on this space, A is invariant and symmetric, so we can apply Rayleigh to this "smaller" space.

$$V_1^\perp = \text{span}\{v_2, v_3, \dots, v_n\}$$

If we apply Rayleigh to V_1^\perp , we get the solution λ_2, v_2 .

Theorem 10 (*Min-Max Theorem*):

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric, with eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_k &= \min_{\substack{U \text{ subspace} \\ \dim U = k}} \max_{x \in U \setminus \{0\}} R_A(x) \\ &= \max_{\substack{U \text{ subspace} \\ \dim U = n - k + 1}} \min_{x \in U \setminus \{0\}} R_A(x) \end{aligned}$$

Intuition: for $k=3$,

Consider the subspace U , spanned by v_1, v_2, v_3 . As we saw before,

$$\max_{x \in U} R_A(x) = \lambda_3, \text{ attained by } v_3.$$

Consider another subspace U , spanned by v_9, v_{10}, v_{11} .

$$\max_{x \in U} R_A(x) = \lambda_{11}$$