



## Spectral theorem

A symmetric matrix is an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  with  $A = A^T$ . They arise as matrices of inner products on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and more generally, "symmetric bilinear forms"  $\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = \vec{x}^T A \vec{y}$ .

$$\underline{\text{ex}} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{\text{nonex}} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

("skew-symmetric")

Thm If  $A$  symmetric and  $\vec{v}, \vec{w}$  are vectors in two distinct eigenspaces,  $\vec{v}$  and  $\vec{w}$  are orthogonal.

pf Suppose  $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ ,  $A\vec{w} = \mu\vec{w}$ , and  $\lambda \neq \mu$ .

$$\vec{v} \cdot A\vec{w} = \vec{v} \cdot \mu\vec{w} = \mu(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w})$$

$$\text{" } \vec{v}^T A \vec{w} = \vec{v}^T A^T \vec{w} = (A\vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w} = \lambda \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$$

$$\text{so, } (\mu - \lambda)(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}) = 0. \text{ Since } \mu - \lambda \neq 0, \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 0.$$

Notice the general fact about symmetric matrices:

$$\vec{v} \cdot A\vec{w} = A\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$$

A matrix is orthogonally diagonalizable if it can be diagonalized as  $A = PDP^{-1}$  with  $P$  an orthogonal matrix. So,  $A = PDPT$  is equivalent.

If  $A = PDP^T$ ,  $A^T = (PDP^T)^T = PDP^T$ , so orthogonally diagonalizable matrices are symmetric.

Suppose a symmetric matrix is diagonalizable. We have different eigenspaces being orthogonal to each other, so by doing Gram-Schmidt on each eigenspace, we can get an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors, and

hence an orthonormal P matrix.

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

$$|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda-1 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (2-\lambda)((2-\lambda)(1-\lambda) - (\lambda-1))$$

$$- ((1-\lambda) - (\lambda-1))$$

$$= (2-\lambda)(3-\lambda)(1-\lambda) + 2\lambda$$

$$\cdots \quad \lambda = 1, 1, 4.$$

$$\text{Null}(A - 4I) = \text{Null} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = \text{Null} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 \end{pmatrix} = \text{Null} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  e-vector       $\begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}$  normalized

$$\text{Null}(A - I) = \text{Null} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ eigenvectors.}$$

Gram-Schmidt:

$$\frac{\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

orthonormal basis of eigenspace:  $\begin{pmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix}$

$$\text{So } A = PDPT \quad \text{with} \quad P = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & -1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 & 2/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If isn't a coincidence that this can always be done.

## Spectral theorem for diagonal matrices

If  $n \times n$   $A$  is symmetric, then

1.  $A$  has  $n$  real eigenvalues, with multiplicity
2. If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue, the multiplicity of  $\lambda$  is the dimension of eigenspace  $\lambda$ .
3. The eigenspaces are mutually orthogonal.
4.  $A$  is orthogonally diagonalizable.

partial proof:

for 1, suppose  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue,  $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$  for some  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ . (!)

In  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\overline{\vec{v}^T \vec{v}}$  is length.

$$\overline{\vec{v}^T A \vec{v}} = \overline{\vec{v}^T \lambda \vec{v}} = \lambda \overline{\vec{v}^T \vec{v}}$$

$$\overline{\overline{\vec{v}^T A^T \vec{v}}} = \overline{(A\vec{v})^T \vec{v}} = \overline{(\lambda \vec{v})^T \vec{v}} = \overline{\lambda} \overline{\vec{v}^T \vec{v}}$$

$A$  has real entries

so  $\lambda = \overline{\lambda}$ . This means  $\lambda$  is real.

for 4, Ch 6 supp.ex. 1b describes Schur Factorization:

if  $A$  is  $n \times n$  with  $n$  real eigenvalues (with mult.), there is orthogonal  $U$  and upper triangular  $R$  with  $A = URU^T$ .

Since  $A^T = U R^T U^T$ , then  $R = R^T$ , so is diagonal.

This is an orthogonal diagonalization!

for 3, we've already spoken about it

for 2, it is because  $A$  is diagonalized. III

### Spectral decomposition

Given  $A = P D P^T$  an orthogonal diagonalization,

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= (\vec{u}_1 \cdots \vec{u}_n) \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \vec{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{u}_n \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= (\lambda_1 \vec{u}_1 \cdots \lambda_n \vec{u}_n) \begin{pmatrix} \vec{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{u}_n \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \lambda_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_1^T + \cdots + \lambda_n \vec{u}_n \vec{u}_n^T
 \end{aligned}$$

is the spectral decomposition of  $A$ . Notice  $\vec{u}_i \vec{u}_i^T$  is the matrix of  $\text{proj}_{\vec{u}_i}$ , so

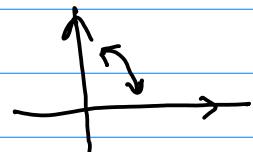
$$A\vec{v} = \lambda_1 \text{proj}_{\vec{u}_1} \vec{v} + \cdots + \lambda_n \text{proj}_{\vec{u}_n} \vec{v}.$$

ex If  $A[1] = [1]$  and  $A[-1] = -[-1]$

$$\vec{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_1^T - \vec{u}_2 \vec{u}_2^T.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$



For inner products,  $\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle_A = \vec{x}^T A \vec{y}$ , then since  $A = P D P^T$ ,  $\vec{x}^T A \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T P D P^T \vec{y} = (P^T \vec{x})^T D (P^T \vec{y}) = \langle P^T \vec{x}, P^T \vec{y} \rangle_D$ . Since  $P$  is like a rotation, this is saying every inner product can be "rotated" into an inner product with a diagonal matrix. Positive definiteness implies the entries on the diagonal of  $D$  are positive (so eigenvalues are positive).

### Schur factorization

Say  $A$   $n \times n$  with  $n$  real eigenvalues. Want orthogonal  $U$  and upper triangular  $R$  with  $A = U R U^T$ .

1. If  $n=1$ , then  $A = I, A I^T$  is a Schur factorization.
2. If  $n > 1$  and Schur factorization works for  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrices:

Since  $A$  has an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  let  $\vec{v}$  be an eigenvector. Let  $\vec{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \vec{v}$ . Let  $\vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_n$  complete an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $U = (\vec{u}_1 \dots \vec{u}_n)$

The matrix of  $A$  in this basis looks like

$$\left( \begin{array}{c|cccc} \lambda_1 & * & \cdots & * \\ \hline 0 & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \end{array} \right) A'$$

$|A - \lambda I| = (\lambda_1 - \lambda) |A' - \lambda I|$ , so  $A'$  has  $n-1$  real eigenvalues.

$A' = P' R' (P')^T$  Schur factorization ( $A'$  is  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ )

$$A = U \left( \begin{array}{c|cccc} \lambda_1 & * & \cdots & * \\ \hline 0 & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & & & & P' R' (P')^T \end{array} \right) = U \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \hline P' \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c|cccc} \lambda_1 & * & \cdots & * \\ \hline 0 & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & & & & R' \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \hline P' \end{array} \right)^T U^T$$