# Section 7.1 Diagonalization of symmetric matrices and 7.2 Quadratic forms 

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- 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.
- Theorem: If $A$ is symmetric, then any two eigenvectors from different eigenspaces are orthogonal.
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$$
A v_{1}=\lambda_{1} v_{1}
$$

Proof: Let $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ be eigenvectors that correspond to distinct eigenvalues, say $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$. We show that $v_{1} \cdot v_{2}=0$. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda_{1} v_{1} \cdot v_{2} & =\left(\lambda_{1} v_{1}\right)^{T} v_{2}=\left(A v_{1}\right)^{T} v_{2}=\left(v_{1}^{T} A^{T}\right) v_{2} \\
& =v_{1}^{T}\left(A^{T} v_{2}\right)=v_{1}^{T}\left(A v_{2}\right)=v_{1}^{T}\left(\lambda_{2} v_{2}\right)=\lambda_{2}\left(v_{1}^{T} v_{2}\right) \\
& =\lambda_{2} v_{1} \cdot v_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $\left(\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}\right)\left(v_{1} \cdot v_{2}\right)=0$. So $v_{1} \cdot v_{2}=0$.

## Orthogonally diagonalizable matrix

- An $n \times n$ matrix $A$ is said to be orthogonally diagonzlizable if there are orthogonal matrix $P$ (with $P^{-1}=P^{T}$ ) and a diagonal matrix $D$ such that

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A=P D P^{T}=P D P^{-1}
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- When is this possible?
- If $A$ is orthogonally diagonalizable, then

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A^{T}=\left(P D P^{T}\right)^{T}=\left(P^{T}\right)^{T} D^{T} P^{T}=P D P^{T}=A
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- So $A$ should be symmetric.
- Theorem: An $n \times n$ matrix $A$ is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if $A$ is symmetric.


## Example

- Ex: Orthogonally diagonalize the matrix $\left[\begin{array}{ccc}3 & -2 & 4 \\ -2 & 6 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 3 .\end{array}\right]$


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- First of all, its charateristic equation is $\operatorname{det}(A-\lambda I)=(\lambda-7)^{2}(\lambda+2)$. So its eigenvalues are 7 (with multiplicity 2 ) and -2 .
$\operatorname{det}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ccc}3-\lambda & -2 & 4 \\ -2 & 6-\lambda & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 3-\lambda\end{array}\right)\right)$


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- The bases for the eigenspaces are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda=7: v_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right), v_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
-\frac{1}{2} \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right) ; \quad \lambda=-2: v_{3}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
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- The projection of $v_{2}$ onto $v_{1}$ is $\frac{v_{2} \cdot v_{1}}{v_{1} \cdot v_{1}} v_{1}$, so the component of $v_{2}$ orthogonal to $v_{1}$ is $z_{2}=v_{2}-\frac{v_{2} \cdot v_{1}}{v_{1} \cdot v_{1}} v_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{c}-\frac{1}{4} \\ 1 \\ \frac{1}{4}\end{array}\right)$
- So $\left\{v_{1}, z_{2}\right\}$ is an orthogonal set in the eigenspace for $\lambda=7$.
- Normalize $v_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ to get $\begin{aligned} & \text { northonormal basis for the eigenspace for }\end{aligned}$ $\lambda=7$ :
$u_{1}=\frac{v_{1}}{\left\|v_{1}\right\|}$

$$
u_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
1 / \sqrt{2} \\
0 \\
1 / \sqrt{2}
\end{array}\right), u_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
-1 / \sqrt{18} \\
4 / \sqrt{18} \\
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\end{array}\right)
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- Normalize $v_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ to get a orthonormal basis for the eigenspace for $\lambda=7$ :

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- An orthonormal basis for the eigenspace for $\lambda=-2$ is

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u_{3}=\frac{v_{3}}{\left\|v_{3}\right\|}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
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- Let

$$
P=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
u_{1} & u_{2} & u_{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} & -\frac{2}{3} \\
0 & \frac{4}{\sqrt{18}} & -\frac{1}{3} \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} & \frac{2}{3}
\end{array}\right], \quad D=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
7 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 7 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -2
\end{array}\right]
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- then $P$ orthogonally diagonalizes $A$, and $A=P D P^{\top}$.


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(2) The dimension of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue $\lambda$ equals the multiplicity of $\lambda$ as a root of the characteristic equation.
(3) The eigenspaces are mutually orthogonal, in the sense that eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.
(9) $A$ is orthogonally diagonalizable.


## Spectral decomposition

- Suppose that $A=P D P^{-1}$, where the columns of $P$ are orthonormal eigenvectors $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ of $A$ and the corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ are in the diagonal matrix $D$. Then



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$$
\begin{aligned}
A & =P D P^{T}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
u_{1} & u_{2} & \ldots & u_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\lambda_{1} & 0 \ldots & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{2} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left(\begin{array}{c}
u_{1}^{T} \\
u_{2}^{T} \\
\ldots \\
u_{n}^{T}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\lambda_{1} u_{1} u_{1}^{T}+\lambda_{2} u_{2} u_{2}^{T}+\ldots+\lambda_{n} u_{n} u_{n}^{T}
\end{aligned}
$$

- The expression $A=\lambda_{1} u_{1} u_{1}^{T}+\lambda_{2} u_{2} u_{2}^{T}+\ldots+\lambda_{n} u_{n} u_{n}^{T}$ is called a spectral decomposition of $A$, because if breaks $A$ into pieces determined by the spectrum (eigenvalues) of $A$.


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\lambda_{1} & 0 \ldots & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{2} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left(\begin{array}{c}
u_{1}^{T} \\
u_{2}^{T} \\
\ldots \\
u_{n}^{T}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\lambda_{1} u_{1} u_{1}^{T}+\lambda_{2} u_{2} u_{2}^{T}+\ldots+\lambda_{n} u_{n} u_{n}^{T}
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- Each term in the decomposition is an $n \times n$ matrix of rank 1 .


## Example

- Ex:

$$
\begin{gathered}
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
7 & 2 \\
2 & 4
\end{array}\right]= \\
{\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ll}
8 & 0 \\
0 & 3
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \\
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\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \\
-\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- Then

$$
A=8 u_{1} u_{1}^{T}+3 u_{2} u_{2}^{T}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{32}{5} & \frac{16}{5} \\
\frac{16}{5} & \frac{8}{5}
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{3}{5} & -\frac{6}{5} \\
-\frac{6}{5} & \frac{12}{5}
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Quadratic forms

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

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- The matrix $A$ is called the matrix of the quadratic form.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 x_{1}^{2}+3 x_{1} x_{2}-2 x_{1} x_{3}+4 x_{2} x_{3}+x_{2}^{2}+5 x_{3}^{2} \\
& A=\underbrace{1}_{x_{2}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
x_{1} \\
x_{3} \\
22^{2} 3 / 2 \\
3 / 2 & 1 & -1 \\
-1 & 2 & 5
\end{array}\right)} \\
& 11 \\
& x^{T} A x \\
& x=\left(\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
x_{6}
\end{array}\right) \\
& \begin{array}{lll}
x_{1} & x_{2} & x_{3}
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
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- The matrix $A$ is called the matrix of the quadratic form.
- Ex: let $x=\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}}$. Compute $x^{T} A x$ for the following matrices:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& { }_{x}^{\top} A_{x} \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
4 & 0 \\
0 & 3
\end{array}\right)
\end{array}\right)\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}} \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
4 & 0 \\
0 & 3
\end{array}\right], \quad B=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
3 & -2 \\
-2 & 7
\end{array}\right] \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
4 & x_{1}
\end{array} \quad 3 x\right)\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}}=\left(4 x_{1}^{2}+\right) x_{2}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

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- $x^{\top} A x=4 x_{1}^{2}+3 x_{2}^{2}$.


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- $x^{T} B x=3 x_{1}^{2}-4 x_{1} x_{2}+7 x_{2}^{2}$.


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- The matrix $A$ is called the matrix of the quadratic form.
- Ex: let $x=\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}}$. Compute $x^{T} A x$ for the following matrices:
- $x^{T} A x=\left(4 x_{1}^{2}+(3) x_{2}^{2}\right.$. $\left.\begin{array}{cc}(4) & 0 \\ 0 & 3\end{array}\right]$,

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
3) \\
-2 & -2 \\
\hline
\end{array}\right]
$$

- $x^{T} B x=(3) 1_{1}^{2}\left(-4 x_{1} x_{2}+(7) x_{2}^{2}\right.$.
- The term $-4 x_{1} x_{2}$ is called a cross-product term.


## Change of variable in a quadratic form

- If $x$ represents a variable vector in $\mathbf{R}^{n}$, then a change of variable is an equation of the form $x=P y$, or $y=P^{-1} x$, where $P$ is an invertible matrix and $y$ is a new variable vector in $\mathbf{R}^{n}$.


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- By make a change of variable on $x^{T} A x$, we have

$$
x^{T} A x=(P y)^{T} A(P y)=y^{T} P^{T} A P y=y^{T}\left(P^{T} A P\right) y
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we obtain a new matrix of the quadratic form $P^{T} A P$.

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- Since $A$ issymmetric, there is an orthogonal matrix $P$ such that
$P^{T} A P$ is a diagonal matrix $D$, and the quadratic form above becomes $y^{T} D y$, which contains no cross-product terms.


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x^{T} A x=(P y)^{T} A(P y)=y^{T} P^{T} A P y=y^{T}\left(P^{T} A P\right) y
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we obtain a new matrix of the quadratic form $P^{T} A P$.

- Since $A$ is symmetric, there is an orthogonal matrix $P$ such that $P^{T} A P$ is a diagonal matrix $D$, and the quadratic form above becomes $y^{T} D y$, which contains no cross-product terms.
- Theorem: Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix. Then there is an orthogonal change of variable, $\bar{x}=P y$, that transforms the quadratic form $x^{T} A x$ into a quadratic form $y^{\top} D y$ with no cross-product term.


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- then $A=P D P^{T}$ and $D=P^{T} A P$. Let $x=P y$, then

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x_{1}^{2}-8 x_{1} x_{2}-5 x_{2}^{2}=y^{T} D y=3 y_{1}^{2}-7 y_{2}^{2}
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- Finding the principal axes (determined by the eigenvectors of $A$ ) amounts to finding a new coordinate system with respect to which the graph is in standard position.


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