

Math 304-504

Linear algebra

**Lecture 35:**

**Symmetric and orthogonal matrices.**

**Problem.** Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . Find  $e^{tA}$ .

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \dots$$

$$e^{tA} = I + tA + \frac{t^2}{2!}A^2 + \dots + \frac{t^n}{n!}A^n + \dots = \begin{pmatrix} a(t) & b(t) \\ c(t) & d(t) \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\text{where } a(t) = 1 - \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} - \dots = \cos t,$$

$$b(t) = -t + \frac{t^3}{3!} - \frac{t^5}{5!} + \dots = -\sin t,$$

$$c(t) = -b(t) = \sin t, \quad d(t) = a(t) = \cos t.$$

$$\text{Thus } e^{tA} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos t & -\sin t \\ \sin t & \cos t \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let  $A_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$ .

- $A$  is the matrix of rotation by angle  $\phi$
- $A_\phi A_\psi = A_{\phi+\psi}$
- $A_\phi^T = A_{-\phi}$
- $A_\phi^{-1} = A_{-\phi} = A_\phi^T$
- Columns of  $A_\phi$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$
- Rows of  $A_\phi$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$

**Proposition** For any  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  and any vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $A\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot A^T\mathbf{y}$ .

*Proof:*  $A\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^T A\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{y}^T A\mathbf{x})^T = \mathbf{x}^T A^T\mathbf{y} = A^T\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \cdot A^T\mathbf{y}$ .

*Definition.* An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is called

- **symmetric** if  $A^T = A$ ;
- **orthogonal** if  $AA^T = A^T A = I$ , that is, if  $A^T = A^{-1}$ ;
- **normal** if  $AA^T = A^T A$ .

Clearly, symmetric and orthogonal matrices are normal.

**Theorem** If  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix  $A$  associated with different eigenvalues, then  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ .

*Proof:* Suppose  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  and  $A\mathbf{y} = \mu\mathbf{y}$ , where  $\lambda \neq \mu$ . Then  $A\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \lambda(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \cdot A\mathbf{y} = \mu(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})$ .  
But  $A\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot A^T\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot A\mathbf{y}$ .  
Thus  $\lambda(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) = \mu(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) \implies \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ .

**Theorem** Suppose  $A$  is a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix. Then (a) all eigenvalues of  $A$  are real;  
(b) there exists an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  consisting of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

*Example.*  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$

- $A$  is symmetric.
- $A$  has three eigenvalues: 0, 2, and 3.
- Associated eigenvectors are  $\mathbf{v}_1 = (-1, 0, 1)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 0, 1)$ , and  $\mathbf{v}_3 = (0, 1, 0)$ .
- Vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$  form an orthogonal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Theorem** If  $A$  is a normal matrix then  
 $N(A) = N(A^T)$  (that is,  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \iff A^T\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ ).

*Proof:*  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \iff A\mathbf{x} \cdot A\mathbf{x} = 0 \iff \mathbf{x} \cdot A^T A\mathbf{x} = 0$   
 $\iff \mathbf{x} \cdot A A^T \mathbf{x} = 0 \iff A^T \mathbf{x} \cdot A^T \mathbf{x} = 0 \iff A^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

**Proposition** If a matrix  $A$  is normal, so are matrices  $A - \lambda I$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof:* Let  $B = A - \lambda I$ , where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  
 $B^T = (A - \lambda I)^T = A^T - (\lambda I)^T = A^T - \lambda I$ .

We have  $BB^T = (A - \lambda I)(A^T - \lambda I) = AA^T - \lambda A - \lambda A^T + \lambda^2 I$ ,  
 $B^T B = (A^T - \lambda I)(A - \lambda I) = A^T A - \lambda A - \lambda A^T + \lambda^2 I$ .

Hence  $AA^T = A^T A \implies BB^T = B^T B$ .

Thus any normal matrix  $A$  shares with  $A^T$  all real eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors.

*How about complex eigenvalues?*

## Dot product of complex vectors

Dot product of real vectors

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n:$$

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n.$$

Dot product of complex vectors

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n:$$

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 \bar{y}_1 + x_2 \bar{y}_2 + \dots + x_n \bar{y}_n.$$

If  $z = r + it$  ( $r, t \in \mathbb{R}$ ) then  $\bar{z} = r - it$ ,

$$z\bar{z} = r^2 + t^2 = |z|^2.$$

Hence  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = |x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2 \geq 0$ .

Also,  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

Since  $\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$  and  $\overline{zw} = \bar{z} \bar{w}$ , it follows that

$$\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \overline{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}.$$

*Definition.* Let  $V$  be a complex vector space. A function  $\beta : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , denoted  $\beta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ , is called an **inner product** on  $V$  if

- (i)  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \geq 0$ ,  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$  only for  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  (positivity)
- (ii)  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \overline{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$  (conjugate symmetry)
- (iii)  $\langle r\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = r\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$  (homogeneity)
- (iv)  $\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$  (additivity)

$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$  is complex-linear as a function of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

The dependence on the second argument is called *half-linearity*:  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \lambda\mathbf{y} + \mu\mathbf{z} \rangle = \bar{\lambda}\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \bar{\mu}\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$ .

*Example.*  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)\overline{g(x)} dx$ ,  
 $f, g \in C([a, b], \mathbb{C})$ .

**Theorem** Suppose  $A$  is a normal matrix. Then for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  one has

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \iff A^T\mathbf{x} = \bar{\lambda}\mathbf{x}.$$

**Corollary** All eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are real. All eigenvalues  $\lambda$  of an orthogonal matrix satisfy  $|\lambda| = 1$ .

**Theorem** Suppose  $A$  is a normal  $n \times n$  matrix. Then there exists an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{C}^n$  consisting of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

## Orthogonal matrices

**Theorem** Given an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i)  $A$  is orthogonal:  $A^T = A^{-1}$ ;
- (ii) columns of  $A$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ;
- (iii) rows of  $A$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

[Entries of the matrix  $A^T A$  are the dot products of columns of  $A$ . Entries of  $AA^T$  are the dot products of rows of  $A$ .]

Thus an orthogonal matrix is the transition matrix from one orthonormal basis to another.