



## Symmetric Matrices and Quadratic Forms

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# Symmetric Matrix

### Symmetric Matrix

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

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### 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.

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

$$\begin{aligned} (\Leftarrow): \\ A &= A^T \Leftarrow A = Q \Lambda Q^T, \Lambda = diag\{\lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_n\}, Q \text{ is orthogonal} \Rightarrow Q^T = Q^{-1} \\ A^T &= (Q \Lambda Q^{-1})^T = (Q \Lambda Q^T)^T = Q \Lambda^T Q^T = Q \Lambda Q^T = A \end{aligned}$$

### Orthogonally Diagonalizable

#### Theorem

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

Proof?

# 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.



- 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 innerproduct 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 X is a vector space over R. Then a function Q: X → R is called a quadratic form if there exists a bilinear form f: X × X → 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.

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#### 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*.

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### Change of Variable in QF

□ If the change of variable is made in a quadratic form  $x^T A x$ , then

$$x^{T}Ax = (Py)^{T}A(Py) = y^{T}P^{T}APy = y^{T}(P^{T}AP)y$$

• The new matrix of the quadratic form is  $P^T A P$ .

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

□ 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 real-valued function with domain  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

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



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### **Classifying Quadratic Forms**

- □ A symmetric matrix  $A \in S^n$  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  $S_{++}^n$ .
- □ A symmetric matrix  $A \in S^n$  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  $S^n_+$ .
- □ Likewise, a symmetric matrix  $A \in S^n$  is **negative definite (ND)**, denoted  $A \prec 0$  if for all non-zero  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $x^T A x < 0$ .
- □ Similarly, a symmetric matrix  $A \in S^n$  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  $A \in S^n$  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  $x_2^T A x_2 < 0$ .

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### **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 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow x^T A x = a_1 x_1^2 + a_2 x_2^2 + \dots + A x_n^2 = a_n x_n^2 + a_n x_n^2 + a_n x_n^2 + \dots + A x_n^2 = a_n x_n^2 + a_n x_n^2 + \dots + A x_n^2 = a_n x_n^2 + \dots + A x_n^2 + \dots + A x_n^2 = a_n x_n^2 + \dots + A x_n^2 + \dots$$

 $a_n x_n^2$ .

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### **Geometric Interpretation**

$$\Box \quad Q(x) = x^T A x$$

$$\Box \quad \theta = \arccos(\frac{(Ax).x}{\|x\| \|Ax\|})$$



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### **Characterization of Positive Definite Matrices** $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is self-adjoint ( $A^* = A$ ).. The following are equivalent:

- a) A is positive definite.
- b) All of the eigenvalues of A are strictly positive.
- c) 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!

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### **Characterization of Positive Definite Matrices** $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ 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
- d) 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

### Change of Variable in QF

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  $v.A = S^T S$  is always positive definite if S has independent columns.

### **Positive Definite Matrices**

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?

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### **Positive Definite Matrices**

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.

#### □ Proof?

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### **Positive Definite Matrices**

For positive definite matrices we had:

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



#### Theorem

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

#### □ Proof?

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### 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.

Proof?

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### Sylvester's Criterion for Positive Semidefinite

**Mat fices** al 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.

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

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

$$det\left(\begin{bmatrix}a & b\\ \bar{b} & d\end{bmatrix}\right) = ad - |b|^2 \qquad \qquad det\left(\begin{bmatrix}a & c\\ \bar{c} & f\end{bmatrix}\right) = af - |c|^2 \qquad \qquad det\left(\begin{bmatrix}d & e\\ \bar{e} & f\end{bmatrix}\right) = df - |e|^2$$

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### **Pivots & Positive Definite Matrices**

#### Theorem

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

Proof?

### **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.

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### **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.

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# **Gram Matrix**

### **Gram Matrix**

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

#### Proof?

non-negative eigenvaluesreal eigenvalues



Use the inner product. For an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  and eigenvector x of  $B^*B$ 

$$\lambda {||x||}^2 = \langle B^*Bx,x 
angle = {||Bx||}^2.$$

Hence  $\lambda$  is real and nonnegative.