

6 The spectral theorem

Let us add $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ to our notations for the dot product: $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$.

- In our story of orthogonality, the important player has been the dot product. However, one could argue that the fundamental quantity is actually the norm:

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \frac{1}{4}(\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2). \text{ See Example 19.}$$

- Accepting the dot product as immensely important, we see that symmetric matrices (i.e. matrices A such that $A = A^T$) are of interest.

For any matrix A , $\langle A\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, A^T \mathbf{w} \rangle$.

It follows that, a matrix A is symmetric if and only if $\langle A\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, A\mathbf{w} \rangle$ for all vectors \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} .

- Similarly, let Q be an orthogonal matrix (i.e. Q is a square matrix with $Q^T Q = I$).

Then, $\langle Q\mathbf{v}, Q\mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$.

In fact, a matrix A is orthogonal if and only if $\langle A\mathbf{v}, A\mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ for all vectors \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} .

Example 82. What are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$?

Solution. The characteristic polynomial is $\begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 3 \\ 3 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda-4)(\lambda+2)$, and so A has eigenvalues $4, -2$.

The 4 -eigenspace is $\text{null}\left(\begin{bmatrix} -3 & 3 \\ 3 & -3 \end{bmatrix}\right)$ has basis $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

The -2 -eigenspace is $\text{null}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}\right)$ has basis $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

In summary, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 4 -eigenvector, and $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a -2 -eigenvector.

Review. The product of all eigenvalues $-2 \cdot 4 = -8$ always equals the determinant $\det(A) = 1 - 9 = -8$.

Super important observation. The eigenvectors in the previous example are orthogonal! This is actually true for every symmetric matrix.

Theorem 83. (spectral theorem) A symmetric matrix A can always be diagonalized: $A = PDP^{-1}$. Moreover, all eigenvalues are real and the matrix P can chosen to be orthogonal. In that case, $A = PDP^T$.

More on the spectral theorem next time.

Example 84. Sketch the effect of $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ with $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ in the following two ways:

- Where are the standard basis vectors $\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ being sent? Also sketch where the square spanned by these two vectors is sent.

- Repeat using the orthonormal basis $\mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution. See blackboard. Of course, $A\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $A\mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. This means that the square spanned by $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2$ (a square) is sent to the parallelogram spanned by $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Moreover, if we keep track of the sides, we see that the parallelogram is flipped.

In the second case, the vectors \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 just get stretched (by a factor of 4 and -2 , respectively). In particular, the square spanned by $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ is sent to a rectangle.

Important comment. The second sketch makes the geometric interpretation of the determinant ($\det(A) = -8$) plainly visible. Namely, areas get increased by a factor of 8 (the 1×1 square is mapped to a 4×2 rectangle). The negative sign indicates that the square also gets flipped.