

SIMPLE GEOMETRIC PROOFS IN LINEAR ALGEBRA

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The orthogonal decomposition of symmetric, skew-symmetric matrices etc. is usually established by computational type proofs. The following geometric approach I feel is easier and more illuminating.

Preliminary ideas: Let (V, \langle, \rangle) be a finite dimensional inner-product space over \mathbb{R} . If $A: V \rightarrow V$ is linear and we express everything with respect to some orthonormal basis, then $\langle AX, Y \rangle = \langle X, A^t Y \rangle$ for all X, Y in V , where A^t is the transpose of the matrix A . By definition the map A is symmetric with respect to \langle, \rangle if and only if $\langle AX, Y \rangle = \langle X, AY \rangle$ for all X, Y in V and is skew-symmetric with respect to \langle, \rangle if and only if $\langle AX, Y \rangle = -\langle X, AY \rangle$ for all X, Y in V .

Thus the notions of (skew)-symmetric maps and (skew)-symmetric matrices are equivalent provided the maps are represented with respect to an orthonormal basis. We note that the same ideas follow through in the Hermitian case with A^t replaced by A^{-t} . The crucial point is contained in the following lemma.

Lemma 1: If the linear map $A: V \rightarrow V$ is symmetric and leaves the subspace U invariant (i.e. $AU \subseteq U$), then it also leaves U^\perp , the orthogonal complement of U , invariant.

Proof: If $Y \in U^\perp$, then for all $X \in U$ we have $0 = \langle AX, Y \rangle = \langle X, AY \rangle$ so $AY \in U^\perp$.

Remark: Of course this lemma also holds if A is skew-symmetric and correspondingly in the (skew)-Hermitian case.

The equation $(A - \lambda B)X = 0$: We consider this generalised eigenvalue problem when A and B are symmetric matrices and in addition B is positive definite. (The Hermitian case is identical.) Throughout \langle, \rangle will denote the usual inner product on \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n , the context will make clear which is being used. We define a new inner product on \mathbb{R}^n (or \mathbb{C}^n) by $\langle X, Y \rangle := \langle BX, Y \rangle$.

Lemma 2: The eigenvalues of $(A - \lambda B)X = 0$ are all real.

Proof: If the eigenvector $X \in \mathbb{C}^n$ has eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then $\lambda \langle X, X \rangle = \lambda \langle BX, X \rangle = \langle AX, X \rangle = \langle X, AX \rangle = \langle X, \lambda BX \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle X, X \rangle$. Thus $\lambda = \bar{\lambda}$ so that $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and in particular $X \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Theorem 3: If A and B are symmetric $n \times n$ -matrices with B positive definite, then there exists a basis of eigenvectors X_1, \dots, X_n of the equation $(A - \lambda B)X = 0$ which are orthonormal with respect to B (i.e. $\langle BX_i, X_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$).

Proof: We remark that since B is positive definite B^{-1} exists, so we can define $A^1 := B^{-1}A$ and observe

- (i) X_1 is an eigenvector of $(A - \lambda B)X = 0$ with eigenvalue λ_1 , if and only if it is an eigenvector of $(A - \lambda I)X = 0$ with eigenvalue λ_1 .
- (ii) A^1 is symmetric with respect to $(,)$ because $\langle A^1 X, Y \rangle = \langle BA^{-1} X, Y \rangle = \langle AX, Y \rangle = \langle X, AY \rangle = \langle X, BA^{-1} Y \rangle = \langle BX, A^{-1} Y \rangle = \langle X, A^1 Y \rangle$.
- (iii) By lemma 2 there exists an eigenvector X_1 of A^1 which we may assume to have unit length with respect to $(,)$. If $[X_1]$ denotes the subspace spanned by X_1 , then $[X_1]$ is invariant under A^1 and therefore (by lemma 1) $[X_1]^\perp$ (its orthogonal complement with respect to $(,)$) is also invariant under A^1 .
- (iv) The argument is now completed by induction with A^1 restricted to $[X_1]^\perp$.

Corollary 4: If A and B are as in theorem 3 then there exists a matrix Q such that

$$Q^t A Q = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

and $Q^t B Q = I$.

Proof: Let $Q = [X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$ the matrix whose i^{th} column is X_i the i^{th} eigenvector (as in theorem 3) with eigenvalue λ_i .

Remarks: 1° If $B = I$, then corollary 4 is the usual statement that every symmetric matrix can be orthogonally diagonalized. That symmetry is necessary here is obvious since $Q^t A Q = D$ where D is diagonal and $Q^t Q = I$ imply $A = Q D Q^t = (Q D Q^t)^t = A^t$.

2° While symmetry is used to show that the eigenvalues are real it is not the key point. Indeed, $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ has real distinct eigenvalues but cannot be orthogonally diagonalized. Of course we see that $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector whose orthogonal complement, i.e. the line $\{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is not invariant under A.

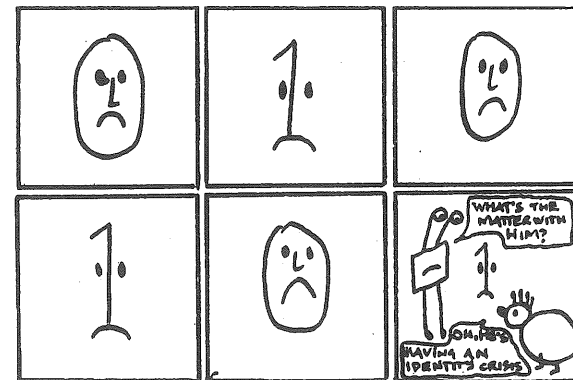
Theorem 5: If A is an $n \times n$ skew-symmetric matrix, then there exists an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n with respect to which A is tri-diagonal. That is there exists Q satisfying $Q^t A Q = I$ and

$$Q^t A Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -b_1 & & & \\ b_1 & 0 & & & \\ & & 0 & -b_2 & \\ & & b_2 & 0 & \dots \\ & & & & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof: By the argument of lemma 2 one sees that all the eigenvalues of A are pure imaginary. If $m(t)$ denotes the minimal polynomial for A (over \mathbb{R}) and if ib , $b \neq 0$, is an eigenvalue of A with eigenvector X, then $0 = m(A)X = m(ib)X$ implies ib is a root of $m(t) = 0$. Accordingly $m(t) = q(t)(t^2 + b^2)$. Therefore, since $m(t)$ is minimal, there exists a unit vector $X_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $(A^2 + b^2 I)X_1 = 0$. If we define $X_2 = (AX_1)/b$ then

- (i) $AX_1 = bX_2$ and $AX_2 = (A^2 X_1)/b = -bX_1$.
- (ii) $\langle X_2, X_2 \rangle = \langle (AX_1)/b, (AX_1)/b \rangle = -\langle X_1, A^2 X_1 \rangle / b^2 = \langle X_1, X_1 \rangle = 1$.
- (iii) $\langle X_1, X_2 \rangle = \langle X_1, (AX_1)/b \rangle = -\langle (AX_1)/b, X_1 \rangle = -\langle X_2, X_1 \rangle$ implies $\langle X_1, X_2 \rangle = 0$
- (iv) The subspace $[X_1, X_2]$ spanned by X_1 and X_2 is invariant under A and therefore (by lemma 1) so also is its orthogonal complement $[X_1, X_2]^\perp$. We now continue by induction on A restricted to $[X_1, X_2]^\perp$.
- (v) The case of zero eigenvalues is easily taken care of and it is clear that the basis produced is the required one with Q being the change of basis matrix.

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