Recall:

1) A square matrix A is diagonalizable if there exists an invertible matrix P and a diagonal matrix D such that

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

2) If *A* is diagonalizable then it is easy to compute powers of *A*:

$$A^k = PD^kP^{-1}$$

3) An $n \times n$ matrix A is a diagonalizable if and only if it has n linearly independent eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$. In such case we have:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{l} \lambda_1 = \text{eigenvalue corresponding to } \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \lambda_2 = \text{eigenvalue corresponding to } \mathbf{v}_2 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \lambda_n = \text{eigenvalue corresponding to } \mathbf{v}_n \end{array}$$

4) Not every square matrix is diagonalizable.

Definition

An orthogonal matrix is square matrix Q such that $Q^TQ = I$ (i.e. $Q^T = Q^{-1}$).

Example.

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & -2/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/3 & 2/3 & 2/3 \\ 2/3 & 1/3 & -2/3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} 2/_3 & 1/_3 & 1/_3 \\ -2/_3 & 2/_3 & 2/_3 \\ 1/_3 & 1/_3 & -2/_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2/_3 & -2/_3 & 1/_3 \\ 1/_3 & 2/_3 & -2/_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2/_3 & -2/_3 & 1/_3 \\ 1/_3 & 2/_3 & -2/_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proposition

A square matrix $Q = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_n]$ is an orthogonal matrix if and only if $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ is an orthonormal set of vectors, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Note. If \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n then

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w}$$

Example.

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot 4 + 2 \cdot 5 + 3 \cdot 6 = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$$

Proof of Proposition:

$$Q^{T}Q = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1}^{T} \\ u_{2}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ u_{n}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} u_{1} & u_{2} & \cdots & u_{n}^{T} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ u_{n}^{T}u_{1} & u_{n}^{T}u_{2} & \cdots & u_{n}^{T}u_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1}^{0}u_{1} & u_{1}^{0}u_{2} & \cdots & u_{1}^{0}u_{n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ u_{n}^{0}u_{1} & u_{n}^{0}u_{2} & \cdots & u_{n}^{0}u_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition

A square matrix A is *orthogonally diagonalizable* if there exists an orthogonal matrix Q and a diagonal matrix D such that

$$A = QDQ^{-1} = QDQ^{T}$$

Proposition

An $n \times n$ matrix A is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if it has n orthogonal eigenvectors.

Proof: Let v,,..., vn - orthogonal eigenvectors of A.

Take: $u_i = \frac{v_i}{\|v_i\|}, ..., u_n = \frac{v_n}{\|v_n\|}$.

Then u,,..., un are also eigenvectors of A and we have

$$u_i \cdot u_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

This means that $Q = [u, u_2 \cdots u_n]$ is an orthogonal matrix.

We have:

where:

$$\mathcal{D} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} O & \cdots & y^n \\ y & y^2 & O \end{array} \right\}$$

 $D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$ $\lambda_1 = \text{eigenvalue of A corresponding to } u_1$ \vdots $\lambda_n = \text{eigenvalue of A corresponding to } u_n$

Definition

A square matrix A is symmetric if $A^T = A$

Example.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 & 8 \\ 4 & 6 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proposition

If a matrix A is orthogonally diagonalizable then A is a symmetric matrix.

Proof: If
$$A = QDQ^T$$
 then
$$A^T = (QDQ^T)^T = (Q^T)^TD^TQ^T = QDQ^T = A$$



Spectral Theorem

Every symmetric matrix is orthogonally diagonalizable.

Theorem

If A is a symmetric matrix and λ_1, λ_2 are two different eigenvalues of A, then eigenvectors corresponding to λ_1 are orthogonal to eigenvectors corresponding to λ_2 .

Recall: If v, w are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n then

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w}$$

Proof of Theorem:

Let $v = aigenvector of A corresponding to <math>\Re$ $w = aigenvector of A corresponding to <math>\Re$

We have:

$$\lambda_{1}(v \circ w) = (Av) \circ w = (Av)^{T}w = (v^{T}A^{T})w = v^{T}Aw$$

$$= v^{T}(\Lambda_{2}w) = \lambda_{2}(v^{T}w) = \lambda_{2}(v \circ w)$$

$$= v^{T}(\Lambda_{2}w) = \lambda_{2}(v \circ w)$$

This gives:

$$\lambda_1(v \circ w) = \lambda_2(v \circ w)$$

$$(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)(v \cdot w) = 0$$

Since $\alpha_1 \neq \alpha_2$ we have $\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 \neq 0$, so $v \cdot w = 0$.

Example.

Find three orthogonal eigenvectors of the following symmetric matrix:

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

Solution:

i) Find eigenvalues of A:

$$P(\lambda) = \det (A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= -\lambda^3 + 6\lambda^2 - 9\lambda + 4$$
(eigenvalues of A) = (noots of P(\lambda))
$$= (\lambda_1 = 4, \lambda_2 = 1)$$

2) Find a basis of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue:

(eigenspace) = Nul (A-4I) basis:
$$\{[1]\}$$

(eigenspace) = Nul (A-4I) basis: $\{[-1]\}$
for $n_z=1$ = Nul (A-4I)

Upshot: We have 3 lin. independent eigenvectors:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 4 \qquad \lambda_2 = 1$$

Note: i) v_i is orthogonal to v_2 and v_3 (since it corresponds to a different eigenvalue).

2) $v_{21}v_{3}$ are not orthogonal to each other: $v_{1} \cdot v_{2} = 1 \neq 0$. To fix this, we need to use the find an orthogonal bosis of the eigenspace of $\lambda_{1} = 1$

$$W_2 = V_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$W_3 = W_3 - \left(\frac{W_2 \cdot V_3}{W_2 \cdot W_2} \right) W_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ 1 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

We obtain 3 orthogonal eigenvectors:

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
V_1 & W_2 & W_3 \\
\hline
\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ 1 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \\
\hline
\chi_2 = 1
\end{array}$$

Upshot. How to find n orthogonal eigenvectors for a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A:

- 1) Find eigenvalues of A.
- 2) Find a basis of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue.
- 3) Use the Gram-Schmidt process to find an orthogonal basis of each eigenspace.

Example. Find an orthogonal diagonalization of the following symmetric matrix:

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

Solution:

The previous example gives a diagonalization of A;

$$A = PDP''$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is not an orthogonal diagonalization since P is not an orthogonal matrix:

$$P^{\mathsf{T}}P = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

To get an orthogonal matrix take $Q = \left[\frac{V_1}{\|V_2\|} \frac{V_2}{\|V_3\|}\right]$ $\|V_1\| = \overline{3}$, $\|V_2\| = \overline{12}$ $\|V_3\| = \overline{3/2} = \overline{6/2}$

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{13} & -\frac{1}{12} & -\frac{1}{16} \\ \frac{1}{13} & 0 & \frac{2}{16} \\ \frac{1}{13} & \frac{1}{12} & -\frac{1}{16} \end{bmatrix}$$

We get:

A = QDQ'' = QDQT

where is the same as before:
$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
.