

Diagonalisations and ON-Bases

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- 1 What is Diagonalization?
- 2 Theorems
- 3 Orthonormal Bases
- 4 Exam Question

What is Diagonalization?

Diagonalization of a matrix

Consider matrix A . Let $\vec{e}_1 \dots \vec{e}_n$ be a basis of its **eigenvectors** associated with **eigenvalues** $\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n$. Then,

$$AP = P \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

where P is

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} | & & | \\ \vec{e}_1 & \dots & \vec{e}_n \\ | & & | \end{pmatrix}$$

We can use it to:

- Identify shape such as an ellipsoid even if was rotated.
- Compute A^{1000} .

Example from previous lesson (part B)

In [Eigenvectors \(slide 13\)](#), we got that T matrix had eigenvalues λ_0 and $\lambda_{0.5}$, with eigenvectors shown below:

$$\lambda_0 : \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & -0.5 & 1.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\text{span}\{(-0.25, 1, 0), (0.75, 0, 1)\}$$

$$\lambda_{0.5} : \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} -0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -0.5 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\text{span}\{(0, 1, 0)\}$$

Problem. Can we now express T as $T = PDP^{-1}$?

Theorems

If we can write A as $A = PDP^{-1}$, then we know that:

- $\det A = \det D$
- Both A and D have the same eigenvalues
- $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(D)$

A matrix A is only diagonalizable if it has n unique eigenvectors. Furthermore, the eigenvectors should span up \mathbb{R}^n .

We can also compute high powers much easier:

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

Example

Problem. Given P , can A be diagonalized?

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 6 \\ 9 & -4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Step 1: Use the definition $A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$, i.e. compute $A\vec{x}$ and check that it's a multiple of \vec{x} .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 11 & 6 \\ 9 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 28 \\ 14 \end{pmatrix} = 14 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \implies \text{yes}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 11 & 6 \\ 9 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ -21 \end{pmatrix} = -7 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \implies \text{yes}$$

Step 2: Find D (i.e. eigenvalues in the diagonal).

$$\begin{pmatrix} 14 & 0 \\ 0 & -7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Step 3: Confirm that $\det A = \det D$.

OrthoNormal Bases

There are two terms worth distinguishing:

- **orthogonal** - 'perpendicular', i.e. \vec{a}, \vec{b} are orthogonal if $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$
- **orthonormal** - orthogonal and normalized vectors such that $\|\vec{a}\| = \|\vec{b}\| = 1$

Caution. Orthogonal matrix means that the set of column and row vectors is an orthonormal set.

Another useful property is that if a matrix is orthogonal, its inverse is the same as its transpose, i.e.

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

What does this mean in the context of base change and rotation?

Example

Problem. Convert the vector $\vec{x} = (4, 3, 5)$ to base spanned by $\{\frac{1}{3}(1, -2, 2), \frac{1}{3}(2, 2, 1), \frac{1}{3}(-2, 1, 2)\}$.

Step 1: Use the fact that $b_i = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{v}_i$

$$\frac{1}{3}(4, 3, 5)(1, -2, 2) = \frac{8}{3}$$

$$\frac{1}{3}(4, 3, 5)(2, 2, 1) = \frac{19}{3}$$

$$\frac{1}{3}(4, 3, 5)(-2, 1, 2) = \frac{5}{3}$$

$$\therefore [\vec{w}]_B = \left(\frac{8}{3}, \frac{19}{3}, \frac{5}{3}\right)$$

Exam Question

Problem. Show that 1 and -1 are the only eigenvalues of orthogonal matrices.

Prerequisite.

- $x^T \cdot x$ - square of the magnitude of x (expressed using dot product).
- If A is orthogonal, then $A^{-1} = A^T$

Exam question

Problem. Show that 1 and -1 are the only eigenvalues of orthogonal matrices.

Step 1: Show that if let $A\vec{y} = \vec{x}$, then $\|A\vec{y}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$

$$\vec{x}^T \cdot \vec{x} = (A\vec{y})^T \cdot A\vec{y} = \vec{y}^T A^T \cdot A\vec{y} = \vec{y}^T \vec{y}$$

\therefore An orthogonal matrix does not affect the magnitude

Step 2: Let \vec{y} be an eigenvector with eigenvalue λ

$$\|\vec{x}\| = \|A\vec{y}\| = \|\lambda\vec{y}\| = \|\lambda\vec{x}\| = |\lambda|\|\vec{x}\|$$

$\therefore \lambda$ can either be 1 or -1 .