

Orthogonal diagonalizability

Symmetric matrices can be diagonalized by an
orthogonal matrix

Orthogonal similarity

- If P is orthogonal, then $P^{-1} = P^T$.

Definition 8.3.1 If A and C are square matrices with the same size, then we say that C is *orthogonally similar to A* if there exists an orthogonal matrix P such that $C = P^T A P$.

Theorem 8.3.2 *Two matrices are orthogonally similar if and only if there exist orthonormal bases with respect to which the matrices represent the same linear operator.*

The Orthogonal Diagonalization Problem Given a square matrix A , does there exist an orthogonal matrix P for which $P^T A P$ is a diagonal matrix, and if so, how does one find such a P ? If such a matrix P exists, then A is said to be *orthogonally diagonalizable*, and P is said to *orthogonally diagonalize A* .

- A must be symmetric so that A is orthogonally diagonalizable.
- $D = P^T A P$. $A = P D P^T$.
- $A^T = P D^T P^T = A$ since $D^T = D$.

Theorem 8.3.3 *An $n \times n$ matrix A is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if there exists an orthonormal set of n eigenvectors of A.*

- Proof: \rightarrow) Let $P = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n]$ be the orthogonal matrix. Then $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis and are eigenvectors of A.
- (\leftarrow): Given an orthonormal set of eigenvectors, we can form P. P diagonalizes A.

Theorem 8.3.4

- (a) *A matrix is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if it is symmetric.*
- (b) *If A is a symmetric matrix, then eigenvectors from different eigenspaces are orthogonal.*

- Proof: (a) \rightarrow done
- (a) \leftarrow (not prove.)
- (b) $l_1 v_1 \cdot v_2 = (l_1 v_1)^T v_2 = (A v_1)^T v_2 = v_1^T A^T v_2 = v_1^T A v_2 = v_1^T l_2 v_2 = l_2 v_1 \cdot v_2$. Since l_1 is different from l_2 , this means $v_1 \cdot v_2 = 0$.

A method of diagonalization

Orthogonally Diagonalizing an $n \times n$ Symmetric Matrix

Step 1. Find a basis for each eigenspace of A .

Step 2. Apply the Gram–Schmidt process to each of these bases to produce orthonormal bases for the eigenspaces.

Step 3. Form the matrix $P = [\mathbf{p}_1 \ \mathbf{p}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{p}_n]$ whose columns are the vectors constructed in Step 2. The matrix P will orthogonally diagonalize A , and the eigenvalues on the diagonal of $D = P^T A P$ will be in the same order as their corresponding eigenvectors in P .

- Example 1. From any symmetric matrix, we find eigenvalues and eigenvectors and this will work.

Spectral decompositions

- A symmetric. Orthogonally diagonalizable.
- $P=[u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n]$ u_i eigenvector corr to λ_i .
- $D=P^TAP$.
- Then $A=PD P^T=$

$$\begin{aligned} & [u_1 \quad u_2 \quad \dots \quad u_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1^T \\ u_2^T \\ \vdots \\ u_n^T \end{bmatrix} \\ & = [\lambda_1 u_1 \quad \lambda_2 u_2 \quad \dots \quad \lambda_n u_n] \begin{bmatrix} u_1^T \\ u_2^T \\ \vdots \\ u_n^T \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- $A = \lambda_1 u_1 u_1^T + \lambda_2 u_2 u_2^T + \dots + \lambda_n u_n u_n^T$.
- This is called the spectral decomposition of A .
- $u_i u_i^T$ is a projection to $\text{Span}\{u_i\}$.
- There are eigenspaces...
- If A is not symmetric, the eigenspaces are not necessarily orthogonal.
- Example 2:

Power of a diagonalizable matrices

- Suppose that A is diagonalizable.
- Then $A = PDP^{-1}$.
- $A^2 = PDP^{-1}PDP^{-1} = PD^2P^{-1}$
- $A^k = PDP^{-1}PDP^{-1} \dots PDP^{-1} = PD^kP^{-1}$.
- If A is symmetric, and $A = \lambda_1 u_1 u_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n u_n u_n^T$.
 - $A^k = \lambda_1^k u_1 u_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n^k u_n u_n^T$. (This follows by middle cancellations also.)
- Example 3:

Cayley-Hamilton theorem

Theorem 8.3.5 (Cayley–Hamilton Theorem) *Every square matrix satisfies its characteristic equation; that is, if A is an $n \times n$ matrix whose characteristic equation is*

$$\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + c_n = 0$$

then

$$A^n + c_1A^{n-1} + \cdots + c_nI = 0 \tag{14}$$

We $A(-A^{n-1}/c_n - \dots - c_{n-1}I/c_n) = I$. We can obtain the inverse of A .

- Example 4.

Exponent of a matrix

Theorem 8.3.6 *Suppose that A is an $n \times n$ diagonalizable matrix that is diagonalized by P and that $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A corresponding to the successive column vectors of P . If f is a real-valued function whose Maclaurin series converges on some interval containing the eigenvalues of A , then*

$$f(A) = P \begin{bmatrix} f(\lambda_1) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & f(\lambda_2) & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & f(\lambda_n) \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} \quad (21)$$

- Example 5:

- A symmetric with a spectral decomposition:
- $A = \lambda_1 u_1 u_1^T + \lambda_2 u_2 u_2^T + \dots + \lambda_n u_n u_n^T.$
- $f(A)$
 $= f(\lambda_1) u_1 u_1^T + f(\lambda_2) u_2 u_2^T + \dots + f(\lambda_n) u_n u_n^T.$

Diagonalization and linear systems

- $Ax=b$. A diagonalizable
- $P^{-1}AP=D$
- $x=Py$ substitute
- $APy=b$, $P^{-1}APy=P^{-1}b$.
- $Dy=P^{-1}b$. This is easy to solve.
- Such algorithms are time saving once we know the diagonalizability and P .

The nondiagonalizable case

- $A = P S P^T$, S upper triangular matrix.

Theorem 8.3.7 (Schur's Theorem) *If A is an $n \times n$ matrix with real entries and real eigenvalues, then there is an orthogonal matrix P such that $P^T A P$ is an upper triangular matrix of the form*

$$P^T A P = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \times & \times & \cdots & \times \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \times & \cdots & \times \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (24)$$

in which $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of the matrix A repeated according to multiplicity.

- $A=PHPT^T$.

Theorem 8.3.8 (Hessenberg's Theorem) *Every square matrix with real entries is orthogonally similar to a matrix in upper Hessenberg form; that is, if A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then there is an orthogonal matrix P such that P^TAP is a matrix of the form*

$$P^TAP = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \cdots & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \cdots & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \ddots & \times & \times & \times \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \quad (26)$$

- There are algorithmically different.
- Hessenberg->Schur->Eigenvalues...