

ENGINEERING MATHEMATICS II

010.141

MODULE 2: Matrix Eigenvalue Problem



EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS



SOME DEFINITIONS

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix and consider

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \quad (1)$$

λ , such that (1) has solution $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$ is an **eigenvalue** or characteristic value of A .

\mathbf{x} are **eigenvectors** or characteristic vectors of A .

- The **spectrum** of A is the set of eigenvalues of A ;
- $\max|\lambda|$ is the **spectral radius** of A .
- The set of eigenvectors corresponding to λ (including 0) is the **eigenspace** of A for λ .



SOME DEFINITIONS (cont)

Homogeneous linear system in x_1, x_2

| → **Cramer's theorem**

$$D(\lambda) = \det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) = 0$$

$D(\lambda)$ is the characteristic determinant, and

$D(\lambda) = 0$ is the characteristic equation



DETERMINATION OF EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS

➤ Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-5x_1 + 2x_2 = \lambda x_1$$

$$2x_1 - 2x_2 = \lambda x_2$$

$$(-5 - \lambda)x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$2x_1 + (-2 - \lambda)x_2 = 0$$

$$2x_1 + (-2 - \lambda)x_2 = 0$$

$$(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= \begin{vmatrix} -5 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & -2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (-5 - \lambda) \cdot (-2 - \lambda) - 4 \\ &= \lambda^2 + 7\lambda + 6 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta = 49 - (4)(6) = 25$$

$$\lambda = \frac{-7 \pm 5}{2} \rightarrow \lambda = -1, -6$$



DETERMINATION OF EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS (cont)

Eigenvector for $\lambda = -1$

$$(-5 + 1)x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$2x_1 + (-2 + 1)x_2 = 0$$

$$-4x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$2x_1 - x_2 = 0$$

$$-2x_1 + x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 = \frac{x_2}{2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



DETERMINATION OF EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS (cont)

Eigenvector for $\lambda = -6$

$$(-5 + 6)x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$2x_1 + (-2 + 6)x_2 = 0$$

$$(-1)x_1 + (-1)2x_2 = (-1)0$$

$$2x_1 + 4x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 = -2x_2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



EIGENVALUES

The eigenvalues of a square matrix A are the roots of the characteristic equation

$$D(\lambda) = 0$$

An $n \times n$ matrix has at least one **eigenvalue** and at most n different **eigenvalues**



EIGENVECTORS

If \mathbf{x} is an eigenvector of a matrix A corresponding to an eigenvalue λ , so is $k\mathbf{x}$ with any $k \neq 0$.

Proof:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$k(A\mathbf{x}) = k\lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$A(k\mathbf{x}) = \lambda(k\mathbf{x})$$



PROBLEM

Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



MULTIPLICITY

The algebraic multiplicity is the order M_λ of λ in the **characteristic polynomial**.

The geometric multiplicity of λ is the number of linearly independent vectors corresponding to λ . (m_λ).

$$\sum M_\lambda = n$$

$$m_\lambda \leq M_\lambda$$

$$\Delta_\lambda = M_\lambda - m_\lambda \quad (\text{defect of } \lambda)$$



APPLICATIONS – Markov Process

Suppose that the 2004 state of land use in a city of 60 mi² of built-up area is

C: Commercially Used 25% I: Industrially Used 20% R: Residentially Used 55%

	From C	From I	From R	
$\mathbf{A} =$	$\begin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.1 & 0 \\ 0.2 & 0.9 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix}$			To C
				To I
				To R

The eigenvalue problem can be used to identify the limit state of the process, in which the state vector \mathbf{x} is reproduced under the multiplication by the stochastic matrix \mathbf{A} governing the process, that is, $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x}$.

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.3 & 0.1 & 0 \\ 0.2 & -0.1 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0 & -0.2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{the limit state of the process} \\ \mathbf{x} = [2 \ 6 \ 1]^T \end{array}$$



APPLICATIONS

A limit is reached if $x = A^T x$

- A^T should have eigenvalue 1

A and A^T have same eigenvalue

- A should have eigenvalue 1

We can show $V^T = [1 \ 1 \ 1]^T$ is an eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda = 1$



SYMMETRIC, SKEW SYMMETRIC, ORTHOGONAL MATRIES

Definitions

A real square matrix $n \times n$

- is symmetric if $A^T = A$
- is skew-symmetric if $A^T = -A$
- is orthogonal if $A^T = A^{-1}$
- Any real square matrix A

$$A = R + S$$

$$R = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^T)$$

$$S = \frac{1}{2}(A - A^T)$$

- The eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are real
- The eigenvalues of a skew-symmetric matrix are pure imaginary or 0.

(Proof Later).



ORTHOGONAL TRANSFORMATIONS AND MATRIES

$$Y = Ax, \quad A \text{ is orthogonal}$$

Example: Plane rotation through θ .

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- An orthogonal transformation preserves the value of the inner-product of vectors

$$a \cdot b = a^T b$$

(a, b are column vectors)



ORTHOGONAL TRANSFORMATIONS AND MATRICES (cont)

Hence, it also preserves the **length** or **norm** of a vector:

$$\|a\| = \sqrt{a \cdot a} = \sqrt{a^T \cdot a}$$

Proof:

$$u = Aa \quad A, \text{ orthogonal}$$

$$v = Ab$$

We need to show $u \cdot v = a \cdot b$

$$u^T = (Aa)^T = a^T A^T$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} u \cdot v &= u^T v = a^T A^T A b = a^T A^{-1} A b \\ &= a^T b = a \cdot b \end{aligned}$$



ORTHONORMALITY OF COLUMN AND ROW VECTORS

A real square matrix is orthogonal iff its column vectors a_1, \dots, a_n (and also its row vectors) form an orthonormal system

$$a_j \cdot a_k = a_j^T \cdot a_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j \neq k \\ 1 & \text{if } j = k \end{cases}$$



ORTHONORMALITY OF COLUMN AND ROW VECTORS

Proof: A is orthogonal

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T \\ a_2^T \\ \vdots \\ a_n^T \end{bmatrix} [a_1 \quad \cdots \quad a_n]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T a_1 & a_1^T a_2 & \cdots & a_1^T a_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_n^T a_1 & a_n^T a_2 & \cdots & a_n^T a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= I$$



DETERMINANT OF AN ORTHOGONAL MATRIX

The determinant of an orthogonal matrix is +1 or -1

Proof:

$$\det(A \cdot B) = \det(B \cdot A) = \det A \cdot \det B$$

$$\det(A^T) = \det A$$

$$1 = \det(A \cdot A^{-1})$$

$$= \det(A \cdot A^T)$$

$$= \det A \cdot \det A^T$$

$$= (\det A)^2$$

$$\det A = \pm 1$$



DETERMINANT OF AN ORTHOGONAL MATRIX

The eigenvalues of an orthogonal matrix A are real or complex conjugate in pairs and have absolute value = 1

$$\left(|\lambda| = 1 \text{ proved later}\right)$$

The orthogonal matrix in Example 1 has the characteristic equation

$$-\lambda^3 + \frac{2}{3}\lambda^2 + \frac{2}{3}\lambda - 1 = 0.$$

Now one of the eigenvalues must be real (why?), hence +1 or -1. Trying, we find -1. Division by $\lambda + 1$

gives $-(\lambda^2 - 5\lambda/3 + 1) = 0$ and the two eigenvalues $(5 + i\sqrt{11})/6$ and $(5 - i\sqrt{11})/6$, which have absolute value 1. Verify all of this.



COMPLEX MATRICES: HERMITIAN, SKEW-HERMITIAN, UNITARY

Definitions:

A square matrix $A = [a_{jk}]$ is

- Hermitian if $\overline{A}^T = A$ Symmetric
- Skew – Hermitian if $\overline{A}^T = -A$ **➔** Skew-symmetric
- Unitary if $\overline{A}^T = A^{-1}$ Orthogonal



COMPLEX MATRICES: HERMITIAN, SKEW-HERMITIAN, UNITARY (cont)

- If A is hermitian $a_{jj} = \bar{a}_{jj} \rightarrow$ diagonal elements are real
- If A is skew - hermitian $a_{jj} = -\bar{a}_{jj} \rightarrow$ diagonal elements are pure imaginary
- If a hermitian matrix is real $\bar{A}^T = A^T = A \rightarrow$ symmetric
- If a skew - hermitian matrix is real $\bar{A}^T = A^T = -A \rightarrow$ skew - symmetric
- If a matrix is real and unitary, $\bar{A}^T = A^T = A^{-1} \rightarrow$ orthogonal



EIGENVALUES

Theorem:

- The eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix are **real**.
- The eigenvalues of a skew-Hermitian matrix are **pure imaginary or 0**.
- The eigenvalues of a unitary matrix have **absolute value of "1"**.



EIGENVALUES (cont)

Proof: Let λ be an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{x} be a corresponding eigenvector.

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

(a) Assume \mathbf{A} is Hermitian

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{Ax} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \lambda \mathbf{x} = \lambda \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{x}$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_1 & \bar{x}_2 & \cdots & \bar{x}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \bar{x}_1 x_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_n x_n$$

$$= |x_1|^2 + \cdots + |x_n|^2$$

$$\neq 0 \quad \text{since } \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$$



EIGENVALUES (cont)

$$\lambda = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

λ is real if $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ is real

$$\begin{aligned} \underbrace{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}_{\text{number}} &= \left(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \right)^T \\ &= \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}^T \bar{\mathbf{x}} \\ &= \mathbf{x}^T \bar{\mathbf{A}} \bar{\mathbf{x}} = \overline{\left(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \right)} \end{aligned}$$

Hermitian : $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = \mathbf{A}$ or $\bar{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A}^T$



EIGENVALUES (cont)

(b) If A is skew-Hermitian

$$\lambda = \frac{\bar{x}^T A x}{\bar{x}^T x} \quad \text{since we made no use of property.}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x}^T A x &= \left(\bar{x}^T A x\right)^T \\ &= x^T A^T \bar{x} \\ &= -x^T \bar{A} \bar{x} = -\left(\overline{\bar{x}^T A x}\right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\bar{A}^T = -A$$

(c) If A is unitary

$$A x = \lambda x \quad \text{and} \quad (\bar{A} \bar{x})^T = \left(\overline{\lambda x}\right)^T = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T$$



EIGENVALUES (cont)

Multiplying:

$$\begin{aligned}(\overline{A \bar{x}})^T A x &= \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T \lambda x \\ &= \bar{\lambda} \lambda \bar{x}^T x \\ &= |\lambda|^2 \bar{x}^T x\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(\overline{A \bar{x}})^T A x &= \bar{x}^T \overline{A}^T A x \\ &= \bar{x}^T A^{-1} A x = \bar{x}^T x\end{aligned}$$

$$|\lambda|^2 = 1$$



FORMS

Forms:

$\bar{x}^T A^T x$ is called a form in x_1, \dots, x_n and A is its coefficient matrix.

Example: ($n = 2$)

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x}^T A x &= \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_1 & \bar{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_1 & \bar{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= a_{11}\bar{x}_1x_1 + a_{12}\bar{x}_1x_2 + a_{21}\bar{x}_2x_1 + a_{22}\bar{x}_2x_2\end{aligned}$$



FORMS (cont)

In general

$$\bar{x}^T A^T x = \sum_j \bar{x}^T a_{ij} x_j = \sum_j \sum_i \left[\bar{x}^T \right]_i a_{ij} x_j = \sum_j \sum_i \bar{x}_i a_{ij} x_j$$

If x and A are real

$$\bar{x}^T A x = \sum_j \sum_i a_{ij} x_i x_j$$

Quadratic form.

We can assume A symmetric.



QUADRATIC FORM

$$a_{ij} x_i x_j + a_{ji} x_j x_i = \frac{(a_{ij} + a_{ji})}{2} x_i x_j + \frac{(a_{ij} + a_{ji})}{2} x_j x_i$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} &= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3x_1 + 4x_2 \\ 6x_1 + 2x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= x_1(3x_1 + 4x_2) + x_2(6x_1 + 2x_2) \\ &= 3x_1^2 + 4x_1x_2 + 6x_1x_2 + 2x_2^2 \\ &= 3x_1^2 + 10x_1x_2 + 2x_2^2 \\ &= 3x_1^2 + 5x_1x_2 + 5x_1x_2 + 2x_2^2 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$



QUADRATIC FORM (cont)

If A is Hermitian or skew-Hermitian; the form is called **Hermitian** or **skew-Hermitian form**.

Theorem:

For every choice of x , the value of an **Hermitian form** is **real**, and the value of a **skew-Hermitian** form is **pure imaginary** or **0**.

Proof: Homework 1 (week 7)

Properties of Unitary Matrices – Complex Vector Space C^n .

Inner Product:

$$a \cdot b = \bar{a}^T b$$



QUADRATIC FORM (cont)

Length or Norm

$$\begin{aligned}\| \mathbf{a} \| &= \sqrt{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} = \sqrt{\bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \cdot \mathbf{a}} = \sqrt{\bar{a}_1 a_1 + \bar{a}_2 a_2 + \cdots + \bar{a}_n a_n} \\ &= \sqrt{|a_1|^2 + \cdots + |a_n|^2}\end{aligned}$$

Theorem:

A unitary transformation, $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$, \mathbf{A} unitary, preserves the value of the inner product and the norm.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= \bar{\mathbf{u}}^T \mathbf{v} = (\overline{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{a}})^T (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}) = (\overline{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{a}})^T (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}) = \bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \bar{\mathbf{A}}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} \\ &= \bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} = \bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}\end{aligned}$$



QUADRATIC FORM (cont)

Theorem:

A square matrix is unitary iff its column vectors (row vectors) form a unitary system, i.e.,

Proof:

$$a_j a_k = a_j^T a_k = \begin{cases} 1 & j = k \\ 0 & j \neq k \end{cases}$$

Theorem:

The determinant of a unitary matrix has absolute value 1.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \det(A \cdot A^{-1}) = \det(A \cdot \overline{A}^T) = \det A \cdot \det(\overline{A}^T) = \det A \cdot \det(\overline{A}) \\ &= \det A \cdot \overline{\det A} = |\det A|^2 \end{aligned}$$



SIMILARITY OF MATRICES-BASIS OF EIGENVECTORS-DIAGONALISATION

Similarity of Matrices:

An $n \times n$ matrix \hat{A} is called similar to an $n \times n$ matrix A if

$$\hat{A} = P^{-1}AP$$

for some (non singular) $n \times n$ matrix P .



EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS OF SIMILAR MATRICES

$$A \rightarrow \hat{A}$$

Similarity
Transformation

If \hat{A} is similar to A , then \hat{A} has same eigenvalues as A .
Furthermore, if x is an eigenvector of A , $y = P^{-1}x$ is an
eigenvector of \hat{A} corresponding to the same eigenvalue.



EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS OF SIMILAR MATRICES (cont)

Proof: $Ax = \lambda x$ λ an eigenvalue $x \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} P^{-1}Ax &= P^{-1}APP^{-1}x \\ &= \hat{A}P^{-1}x \\ &= \lambda P^{-1}x \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A} \underbrace{P^{-1}x}_y &= \lambda P^{-1}x \\ \hat{A}y &= \lambda y \end{aligned}$$



PROPERTIES OF EIGENVECTORS

Linear Independence

Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ be distinct eigenvalues of an $n \times n$ matrix. The corresponding eigenvectors are linearly independent.

Proof

Suppose it is not the case. Let r be such that $\{x_1, \dots, x_r\}$ linearly independent.

$$r < n$$



PROPERTIES OF EIGENVECTORS

$\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r, x_{r+1}\}$ is linearly dependent.

$\exists c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{r+1}$ not all zero such that :

$$c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_r x_r + c_{r+1} x_{r+1} = 0$$

$$A(c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_r x_r + c_{r+1} x_{r+1}) = A(0)$$

$$c_1 Ax_1 + c_2 Ax_2 + \dots + c_r Ax_r + c_{r+1} Ax_{r+1} = 0$$

$$c_1 \lambda_1 x_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 x_2 + \dots + c_r \lambda_r x_r + c_{r+1} \lambda_{r+1} x_{r+1} = 0$$

$$\lambda_{r+1} (c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_r x_r + c_{r+1} x_{r+1}) = 0$$

$$(c_1 \lambda_1 x_1 + \dots + c_{r+1} \lambda_{r+1} x_{r+1}) = 0$$

$$c_1 (\lambda_{r+1} - \lambda_1) x_1 + \dots + c_r (\lambda_{r+1} - \lambda_r) x_r = 0$$

$$c_1 = 0 = c_2 = \dots = c_r$$

$$c_{r+1} x_{r+1} = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad x_{r+1} \neq 0 \text{ since it is an eigenvector. So, } c_{r+1} = 0$$

$$x_{r+1} = 0 \quad \text{which is a contradiction}$$



BASIS OF EIGENVECTORS

If an $n \times n$ matrix A has **n distinct eigenvalues**, then A has a basis of eigenvectors.

A Hermitian, skew-Hermitian or unitary matrix has a basis of eigenvectors that is a unitary system. A symmetric matrix has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors.

(not proved here)



DIAGONALIZATION

If an $n \times n$ matrix A has a basis of eigenvectors then

$$D = X^{-1}AX$$

is diagonal with the eigenvalues of A on the diagonal. X is the matrix of eigenvectors as column vectors.

$$D^m = X^{-1}A^mX$$

For example,

$$D^2 = D \cdot D = X^{-1}AX \cdot X^{-1}AX = X^{-1}A^2X$$



DIAGONALIZATION

Example: Diagonalize

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 7.3 & 0.2 & -3.7 \\ -11.5 & 1.0 & 5.5 \\ 17.7 & 1.8 & -9.3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = -4, \lambda_3 = 0$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.7 & 0.2 & 0.3 \\ -1.3 & -0.2 & 0.7 \\ 0.8 & 0.2 & -0.2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -4 & 0 \\ 9 & 4 & 0 \\ -3 & -12 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



TRANSFORMATION OF FORMS TO PRINCIPAL AXES

Explained for **quadratic forms**

$$Q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$$

We assume: \mathbf{A} is symmetric

→ \mathbf{A} has an orthonormal basis of n eigenvectors.

\mathbf{X} is **orthogonal**

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{X}^{-1} = \mathbf{X}^T$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{X}^{-1} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{X}^T$$



TRANSFORMATION OF FORMS TO PRINCIPAL AXES (cont)

$$Q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Set $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$

And $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x})^T = \mathbf{y}^T \Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$

$$Q = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{y} = [y_1 \cdots y_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q = [y_1 \quad y_2 \quad \cdots \quad y_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 y_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 y_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n y_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \cdots + \lambda_n y_n^2$$

