

Orthogonal Diagonalization: The Spectral Theorem

Prerequisites:

- Orthogonal transformations
- Diagonalization

Definition 1: Orthogonal Diagonalization

Let \boxed{B} be an $N \times N$ matrix. We say that \boxed{B} is **orthogonally diagonalizable** if there is an *orthogonal matrix* \boxed{G} so that

$$\boxed{G}^{-1} \cdot \boxed{B} \cdot \boxed{G} \quad \left(\text{which is equal to } \boxed{G}^t \cdot \boxed{B} \cdot \boxed{G} \right)$$

is a *diagonal matrix*.

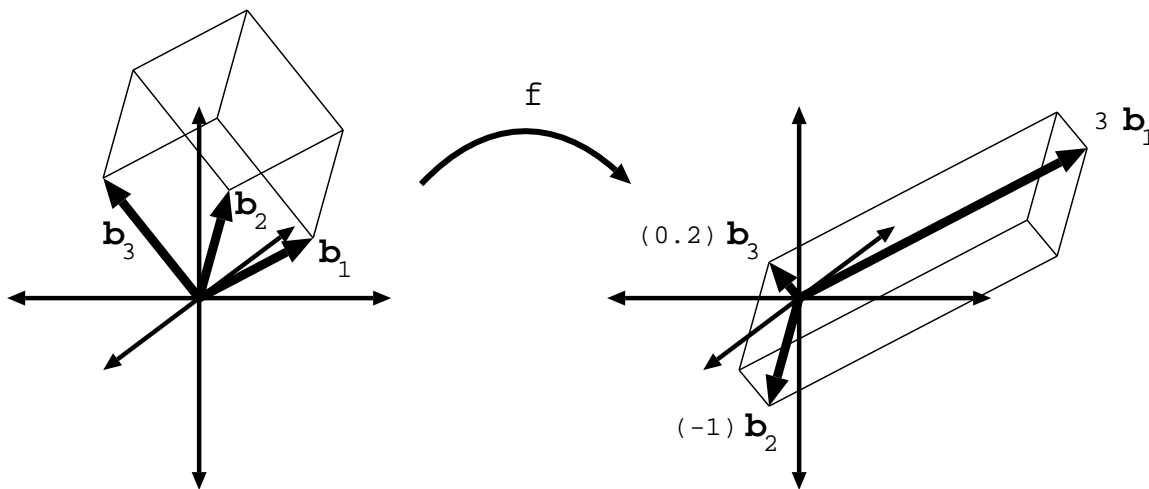


Figure 1: f has **orthonormal** eigenvectors \mathbf{b}_1 , \mathbf{b}_2 , and \mathbf{b}_3 , with eigenvalues 3, -1 , and 0.2 , respectively

Recall that diagonalization is useful because it reveals the existence of a *basis of eigenvectors* for a transformation. *Orthogonal* diagonalization is even better: it reveals the existence of a *orthonormal* basis of eigenvectors for the transformation. (see Figure 1).

First we will prove the following partial result

Theorem 2: *Triangulation Theorem*

Let \boxed{F} be a $N \times N$ matrix whose characteristic polynomial **factors completely**—that is:

$$c_{\boxed{F}}(x) = (x - \lambda_1) \cdot (x - \lambda_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (x - \lambda_N),$$

where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N$ are real numbers. Then there is an **orthogonal matrix** \boxed{P} so that

$$\boxed{P} \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{P}^{-1}$$

is **upper triangular**.

Proof: We will prove this by induction on N .

Base Case ($N = 1$): A 1×1 matrix is automatically upper triangular, so this is trivial.

Induction: Suppose, inductively, that the theorem is true for \mathbb{R}^{N-1} .

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ be the linear map: $f(\mathbf{x}) = \boxed{F} \cdot \mathbf{x}$. Let λ_1 be the first eigenvalue for f . Let \mathbf{b}_1 be a corresponding eigenvector. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_N\}$ be an **orthonormal basis** for \mathbb{R}^N , with \mathbf{b}_1 as its first element. Let \boxed{B} be the **change-of-basis matrix** from the standard basis into \mathcal{B} . Then we know:

- \boxed{B} is an orthogonal matrix.
- $\widetilde{\boxed{F}} = \boxed{B} \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{B}^{-1}$ is the matrix representation of f relative to \mathcal{B} .

Thus, since \mathbf{b}_1 is an eigenvector of f with eigenvalue λ_1 , the matrix $\widetilde{\boxed{F}}$ must have the form:

$$\widetilde{\boxed{F}} = \left[\begin{array}{c|cccc} \lambda_1 & * & * & \dots & * \\ \hline 0 & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \end{array} \right],$$

where $\boxed{F_1}$ is an $(N-1) \times (N-1)$, matrix, having eigenvalues $\lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots, \lambda_N$. Thus, by the induction hypothesis, there is an $(N-1) \times (N-1)$ orthogonal matrix $\boxed{C_1}$ so that

$$\boxed{\nabla} = \boxed{C_1} \cdot \boxed{F_1} \cdot \boxed{C_1}^{-1}$$

is an $(N - 1) \times (N - 1)$, upper triangular matrix.

Now define

$$\boxed{\mathbf{C}} = \left[\begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & \mathbf{C}_1 & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right].$$

Then $\boxed{\mathbf{C}}$ is also an orthogonal matrix (**Why?**), and

$$\boxed{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \widetilde{\boxed{\mathbf{F}}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{C}}^{-1} =$$

is an upper-triangular matrix. But of course,

$$\begin{aligned} \boxed{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \widetilde{\boxed{\mathbf{F}}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{C}}^{-1} &= \boxed{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{B}}^{-1} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{C}}^{-1} \\ &= (\boxed{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{B}}) \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{F}} \cdot (\boxed{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

and $(\boxed{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{B}})$ is the product of two orthogonal matrices, therefore itself orthogonal, so this constitutes an **orthogonal upper-triangulation** of $\boxed{\mathbf{F}}$.

□ [Theorem 2]

Theorem 3: *Spectral Theorem¹ for Symmetric Matrices*

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ be a linear transformation, equivalent to multiplication by the matrix $\boxed{\mathbf{F}}$. The following are equivalent:

1. \mathbb{R}^N has an **orthonormal basis** given by *eigenvectors* of f .
2. $\boxed{\mathbf{F}}$ is **orthogonally diagonalizable**.
3. $\boxed{\mathbf{F}}$ is a **symmetric** matrix.

Proof:

Proof of “(1) \implies (2)”: Suppose that $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_N\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^N . If $\boxed{\mathbf{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{b}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$, then we know that the *matrix representation* of f relative to \mathcal{B} is given by

¹Also known as the “Orthogonal Diagonalization Theorem”, or the “Principal Axis Theorem”

$$\boxed{G} = \boxed{B}^{-1} \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{B}$$

which is equal to $\boxed{B}^t \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{B}$, since \boxed{B} is an orthogonal matrix. But if $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_N$ are all **eigenvectors** of f , then we know that \boxed{G} must be diagonal.

Proof of “(2) \implies (1)”: Suppose that \boxed{B} is an orthogonal matrix such that

$$\boxed{G} = \boxed{B}^t \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{B} \text{ is diagonal. Suppose that } \boxed{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{b}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix},$$

and let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_N\}$. Then \mathcal{B} is an orthonormal basis, and \boxed{G} is the matrix representation of f relative to \mathcal{B} . The fact that \boxed{G} is diagonal means that $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_N$ must be eigenvectors of f .

Proof of “(2) \implies (3)”: Suppose that \boxed{B} is an orthogonal matrix such that

$$\boxed{G} = \boxed{B}^{-1} \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{B} \text{ is diagonal. Then}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \boxed{F} &= \boxed{B} \cdot \boxed{G} \cdot \boxed{B}^{-1} \\ &= \boxed{B} \cdot \boxed{G} \cdot \boxed{B}^t \\ \text{therefore, } \boxed{F}^t &= \boxed{B} \cdot \boxed{G}^t \cdot \boxed{B}^t \\ &=_{(1)} \boxed{B} \cdot \boxed{G} \cdot \boxed{B}^t \\ &= \boxed{F} \end{aligned}$$

(1) \boxed{G} is diagonal, therefore symmetric.

hence \boxed{F} is symmetric.

Proof of “(3) \implies (2)”:

Claim 1: The characteristic polynomial of \boxed{F} factors completely.

Proof: *The proof of this claim involves the use of complex numbers, and hence, is not covered in this course. A sketch is as follows:*

If $c_{\boxed{F}}(x)$ is the characteristic polynomial of \boxed{F} , then we know that $c_{\boxed{F}}(x)$ factors completely over the complex numbers; in other words,

$$c_{\boxed{F}}(x) = (x - \lambda_1) \cdot (x - \lambda_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (x - \lambda_N),$$

*where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N$ are complex numbers. These numbers are then **complex eigenvalues** of \boxed{F} (It turns out that, for a symmetric matrix, all these eigenvalues will be real, but we don't know this yet).*

The proof which follows can then be carried out using these complex eigenvalues. We can therefore diagonalize \boxed{F} into the matrix

$$\boxed{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_N \end{bmatrix}.$$

But \boxed{F} is a real-valued matrix, and $\boxed{\Lambda} = \boxed{B}^{-1} \cdot \boxed{\Lambda} \cdot \boxed{B}$ for some (real-valued) matrix \boxed{B} ; hence, $\boxed{\Lambda}$ must also be a real-valued matrix, which means that $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N$ must be **real numbers**.

.....□ [Claim 1]

Now, to prove “(3) \implies (2)”, use the Triangulation Theorem to find an an **orthogonal matrix** \boxed{P} so that

$$\boxed{P} \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{P}^{-1}$$

is **upper triangular**. But $\boxed{P} \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{P}^{-1} = \boxed{P} \cdot \boxed{F} \cdot \boxed{P}^t$ is also **symmetric** (why?); thus, if it is upper triangular, it must actually be **diagonal**. Hence, this constitutes an orthogonal diagonalization of \boxed{F} , so we’re done.

.....□ [Theorem 3]

Example 4: (wantonly plagiarised from Nicholson)

If $\boxed{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$, then \boxed{A} has characteristic polynomial

$$c_{\boxed{A}}(x) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1-x & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1-x & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 5-x \end{bmatrix} = x(x-1)(x-6),$$

hence, eigenvalues 0, 1 and 6.

The corresponding eigenvectors (normalized to have all have norm 1) are:

$$\mathbf{b}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{30}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix},$$

and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3\}$ is an **orthonormal basis** (check). Hence, if we define

$$\boxed{\mathbf{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{30}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{0}{\sqrt{30}} \\ \frac{-1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{5}{\sqrt{30}} \end{bmatrix},$$

Then $\boxed{\mathbf{B}}$ is an orthogonal matrix, and

$$\boxed{\mathbf{B}}^t \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

is a diagonal matrix.