

Math 304-504

Linear algebra

Lecture 36:

**Symmetric and orthogonal matrices
(continued).**

Dot product of complex vectors

Dot product of real vectors

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n:$$

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n.$$

Dot product of complex vectors

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n:$$

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1\bar{y}_1 + x_2\bar{y}_2 + \dots + x_n\bar{y}_n.$$

If $z = r + it$ ($t, s \in \mathbb{R}$) then $\bar{z} = r - it$,

$$z\bar{z} = r^2 + t^2 = |z|^2.$$

Hence $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = |x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2 \geq 0$.

Also, $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.

The norm is defined by $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$.

Normal matrices

Definition. An $n \times n$ matrix A is called

- **symmetric** if $A^T = A$;
- **orthogonal** if $AA^T = A^T A = I$, i.e., $A^T = A^{-1}$;
- **normal** if $AA^T = A^T A$.

Theorem Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with real entries. Then

- (a) A is normal \iff there exists an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{C}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A ;
- (b) A is symmetric \iff there exists an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A .

Example. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$

- A is symmetric.
- A has three eigenvalues: 0, 2, and 3.
- Associated eigenvectors are $\mathbf{v}_1 = (-1, 0, 1)$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 0, 1)$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = (0, 1, 0)$, respectively.
- Vectors $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_1$, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_2$, \mathbf{v}_3 form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

Theorem Suppose A is a normal matrix. Then for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ one has

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

Thus any normal matrix A shares with A^T all real eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors.

Also, $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \iff A\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ for any matrix A with real entries.

Corollary All eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are real. All eigenvalues λ of an orthogonal matrix satisfy $\bar{\lambda} = \lambda^{-1} \iff |\lambda| = 1$.

Orthogonal matrices

Theorem Given an $n \times n$ matrix A , the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) A is orthogonal: $A^T = A^{-1}$;
- (ii) columns of A form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n ;
- (iii) rows of A form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof: Entries of the matrix $A^T A$ are the dot products of columns of A . Entries of AA^T are the dot products of rows of A .

Thus an orthogonal matrix is the transition matrix from one orthonormal basis to another.

Example. $A_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}.$

- $A_\phi A_\psi = A_{\phi+\psi}$
- $A_\phi^{-1} = A_{-\phi} = A_\phi^T$
- A_ϕ is orthogonal
- $\det(A_\phi - \lambda I) = (\cos \phi - \lambda)^2 + \sin^2 \phi.$
- Eigenvalues: $\lambda_1 = \cos \phi + i \sin \phi = e^{i\phi},$
 $\lambda_2 = \cos \phi - i \sin \phi = e^{-i\phi}.$
- Associated eigenvectors: $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, -i),$
 $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, i).$
- Vectors $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_2$ form an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{C}^2.$

Consider a linear operator $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $L(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$, where A is an $n \times n$ matrix.

Theorem The following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) $|L(\mathbf{x})| = |\mathbf{x}|$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$;
- (ii) $L(\mathbf{x}) \cdot L(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$;
- (iii) the matrix A is orthogonal.

[(ii) \implies (iii): $L(\mathbf{e}_i) \cdot L(\mathbf{e}_j) = \mathbf{e}_i \cdot \mathbf{e}_j = 1$ if $i = j$, and 0 otherwise. But $L(\mathbf{e}_1), \dots, L(\mathbf{e}_n)$ are columns of A .]

Definition. A transformation $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called an **isometry** if it preserves distances between points: $|f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{y})| = |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|$.

Theorem Any isometry $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is represented as $f(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}_0$, where $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and A is an orthogonal matrix.

Consider a linear operator $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $L(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$, where A is an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix.

Theorem There exists an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n such that the matrix of L relative to this basis has a diagonal block structure

$$\begin{pmatrix} D_{\pm 1} & O & \dots & O \\ O & R_1 & \dots & O \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ O & O & \dots & R_k \end{pmatrix},$$

where $D_{\pm 1}$ is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are equal to 1 or -1 , and

$$R_j = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi_j & -\sin \phi_j \\ \sin \phi_j & \cos \phi_j \end{pmatrix}, \quad \phi_j \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Classification of 2×2 orthogonal matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

rotation
about the origin

reflection
in a line

Determinant:

1

-1

Eigenvalues:

$e^{i\phi}$ and $e^{-i\phi}$

-1 and 1

Classification of 3×3 orthogonal matrices:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ 0 & \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

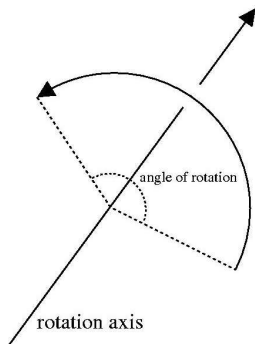
$$C = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ 0 & \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}.$$

A = rotation about a line; B = reflection in a plane;
 C = rotation about a line combined with reflection
in the orthogonal plane.

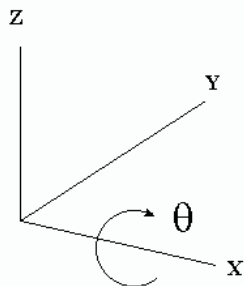
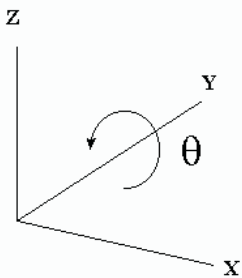
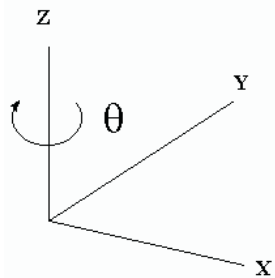
$$\det A = 1, \quad \det B = \det C = -1.$$

A has eigenvalues $1, e^{i\phi}, e^{-i\phi}$. B has eigenvalues $-1, 1, 1$. C has eigenvalues $-1, e^{i\phi}, e^{-i\phi}$.

Rotations in space



If the axis of rotation is oriented, we can say about *clockwise* or *counterclockwise* rotations (with respect to the view from the positive semi-axis).



$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ 0 & -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$