

Small angle rotation and relation to skew matrices

Recall $WU = \omega \times U$

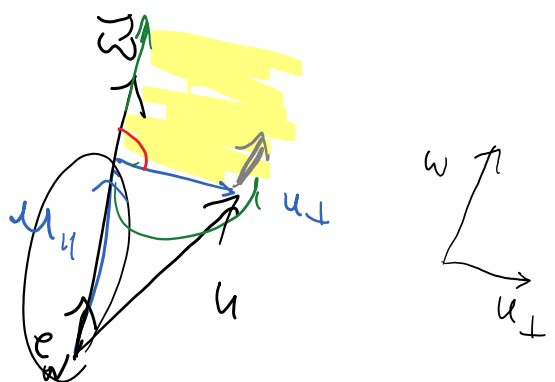
Look from the top:

$$\omega \times U = \cancel{\omega \times u_{\parallel}} + \omega \times u_{\perp}$$

$$= (\omega \times u_{\perp})$$

$$= |\omega| |\cancel{u_{\parallel}}| |u_{\perp}| \sin \theta_{\omega, u_{\perp}} = \theta l$$

assume this is small = θ



real rotation in $\vec{y} = Q \vec{x}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\omega \times u \approx \vec{y} - \vec{x} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \theta \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} l \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Skew matrices and their corresponding vector w , represent the change of location for small angle rotation (when the magnitude of $w = \theta$ is small).

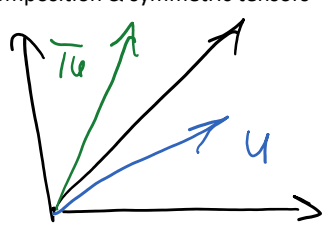
Recall that we can write any tensor as the summation of its symmetric and skew-symmetric parts:

$$T = S + W \quad S = \frac{T + T^t}{2} \quad W = \frac{T - T^t}{2}$$

How about symmetric tensors?

Eigen-decomposition & symmetric tensors

Eigenvector & values

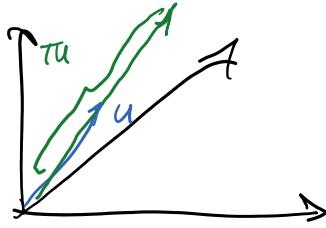


What about the case that $Tu \parallel u$

under above ... $\|u\| = u$

$$Tu = \lambda u$$

\downarrow eigenvalue
 \downarrow eigenvector



For an $n \times n$ matrix we have a maximum of n linearly independent (eigenvector, value) pairs

$$T u_{(1)} = \lambda_1 u_{(1)}$$

$$T u_{(2)} = \lambda_2 u_{(2)}$$

⋮

$$T u_{(i)} = \lambda_i u_{(i)}$$

\downarrow no summation on i

$$\begin{aligned}
 T \left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} u_{(1)} & u_{(2)} & \dots & u_{(n)} \end{array} \right] &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \lambda_1 u_{(1)} & \lambda_2 u_{(2)} & \dots & \lambda_n u_{(n)} \end{array} \right] \\
 &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} u_{(1)} & \dots & u_{(2)} & \dots & u_{(n)} \end{array} \right] \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{ccc} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{array} \right]}_{\Lambda}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$TU = U\Lambda$$

$$T = U\Lambda U^{-1} \quad \text{diagonalized form of } T$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 T^2 &= (U\Lambda U^{-1})(U\Lambda U^{-1}) = U\Lambda(U^{-1}U)\Lambda U^{-1} = U\Lambda I \Lambda U^{-1} \\
 &= U\Lambda^2 U^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly $T^n = U\Lambda^n U^{-1}$

e.g. $n=100$

Recall $e^{\lambda} = 1 + \lambda + \frac{\lambda^2}{2!} + \frac{\lambda^3}{3!} + \dots$

$$e^T = I + T + \frac{1}{2!} T^2 + \frac{1}{3!} T^3 + \dots =$$

$$U \overset{0}{\Lambda} U + U(\Lambda)U^{-1} + U\left(\frac{1}{2}\Lambda^2\right)U^{-1} + \dots$$

$$= U \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \lambda_1 + \frac{\lambda_1^2}{2} + \dots & & \\ & 1 + \lambda_2 + \frac{\lambda_2^2}{2} + \dots & \\ & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} U^{-1}$$

$$e^{\lambda} = U \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix} U^{-1}$$

$$f(T) = U \begin{bmatrix} f(\lambda_1) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & f(\lambda_n) \end{bmatrix} U^{-1}$$

Are all square matrices diagonalizable?

The matrix must have n linearly independent eigenvectors.

If a matrix has n distinct eigenvalues \rightarrow the corresponding eigenvectors are linearly independent

$$T_{n \times n} \quad \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \neq \lambda_3 \dots \neq \lambda_n$$

$$\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j \text{ for } i \neq j$$

The problem can arise if the matrix has repeated eigenvalues

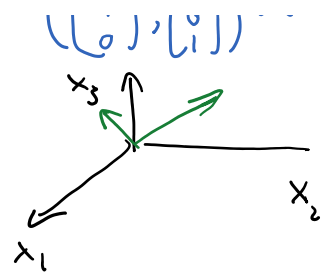
$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

algebraic multiplicity $\lambda_{1,2} = 3 \rightarrow$ 2 eigenvalues $\lambda_3 = 5 \rightarrow$ 3 geometric multiplicity
 eigenvectors $\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \dots$
 eigen vector $\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $x_3 \uparrow$

$\lambda = 0, 1$

$\rightarrow \rightarrow \rightarrow$

eigen vector = $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$



Example of non diagonalizable matrix

$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ eigenv. 1 has Algebraic multiplicity of 2
 $m_A(1) = 2$

Finding eigen vector

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}$

the only valid $\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}$ soln is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Geometric multiplicity of T for $\lambda = 1$ is 1 $m_G(1) = 1$

This matrix is not diagonalizable

Further reading

Jordan Form



Done with the background, we focus on symmetric matrices:

Example in 3D

$\begin{pmatrix} a & & \\ & b & \\ & & c \end{pmatrix}$

Example in 2D

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^T = A$$

Some properties of symmetric matrices:

1. Eigenvalues are real:

$$\underbrace{u \cdot Au}_{\text{real}} = \lambda \underbrace{u \cdot u}_{> 0}$$

conjugate $\in \mathbb{R}$

$$Au = \lambda u \quad \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \text{ in general}$$

For A symmetric $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

2. For distinct eigenvalues, their corresponding eigenvectors are normal to each other

a) $A u_{(1)} = \lambda_1 u_{(1)}$

b) $A u_{(2)} = \lambda_2 u_{(2)}$

$$\left. \begin{matrix} \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \end{matrix} \right\} \rightarrow u_{(1)} \perp u_{(2)}$$

$$A = A^T$$

• of a) with $u_{(2)}$

• of b) with $u_{(1)}$

$$\begin{aligned} u_{(2)} \cdot A u_{(1)} &= \lambda_1 u_{(2)} \cdot u_{(1)} = \lambda_1 u_{(1)} \cdot u_{(2)} \\ u_{(1)} \cdot A u_{(2)} &= \lambda_2 u_{(1)} \cdot u_{(2)} \\ \underbrace{u_{(1)} \cdot A u_{(2)}}_{\substack{A^T u_{(1)} \cdot u_{(2)} \\ A = A^T}} &= A u_{(1)} \cdot u_{(2)} = u_{(2)} \cdot A u_{(1)} = \lambda_2 u_{(1)} \cdot u_{(2)} \end{aligned}$$

Subtract

$$\boxed{\begin{matrix} (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) u_{(1)} \cdot u_{(2)} = 0 \\ \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \end{matrix}}$$

$$u_{(1)} \cdot u_{(2)} = 0 \quad u_{(1)} \perp u_{(2)}$$

Assume A n x n, symmetric, has n distinct eigenvalues -> then we can form n orthonormal eigenvectors:

$$A u_{(1)} = \lambda_1 u_{(1)} \quad \times \frac{1}{\|u_{(1)}\|}$$

Same with $u_{(2)}, \dots$

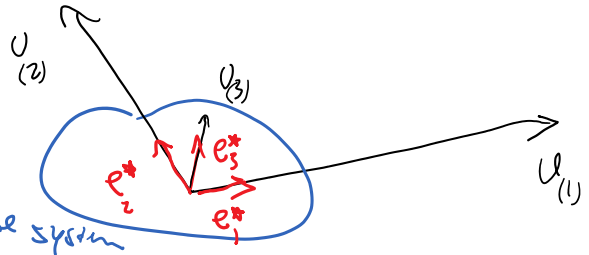
$$A e_i^* = \lambda_i e_i^*$$

unit vector for $u_{(i)}$

e_i^* 's are eigenvectors of A

2

$$e_i^* \cdot e_j^* = \delta_{ij}$$



$A \rightarrow$ orthonormal coordinate system

I proved this when eigenvalues of symmetric A are distinct but this also holds when they have repeated eigenvalues

2D

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{if sym.}} A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ b & d - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ b & d - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + ad - b^2 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{a+d \pm \sqrt{(a+d)^2 - 4(ad - b^2)}}{2}$$

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{a+d \pm \sqrt{(a-d)^2 + 4b^2}}{2}$$

When do we have repeated eigenvalues

$$(a-d)^2 + 4b^2 = 0$$

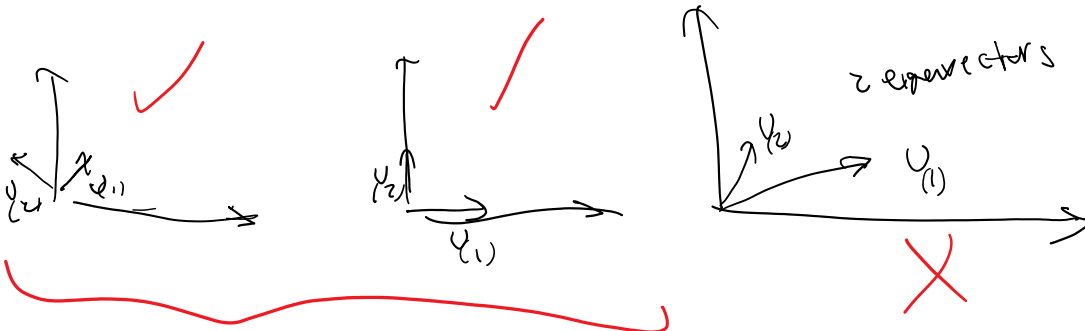
$$\rightarrow \begin{cases} a=d \\ b=0 \end{cases}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} = a$$

$$\square \quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}}_{A - \lambda I} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A - \lambda I \rightarrow$ any $u = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \quad Au = (aI)u = au$$



we can choose any of these as orthonormal eigenvectors

3D

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{bmatrix}$$

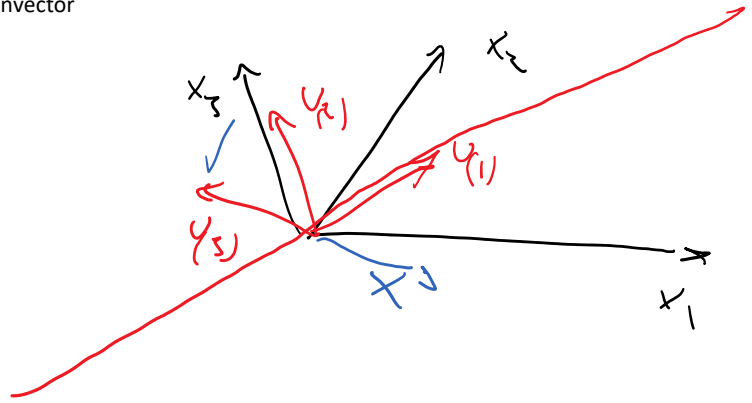
$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$
3rd order eqn for λ
 $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$

Case 1: $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \quad \lambda_2 \neq \lambda_3 \quad \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_3$

Since each eigenvalue is distinct \rightarrow it has a distinct eigenvector (scaled to 1):

$\rightarrow x_1$

Since each eigenvalue is distinct \rightarrow it has a distinct eigenvector (sized to 1):

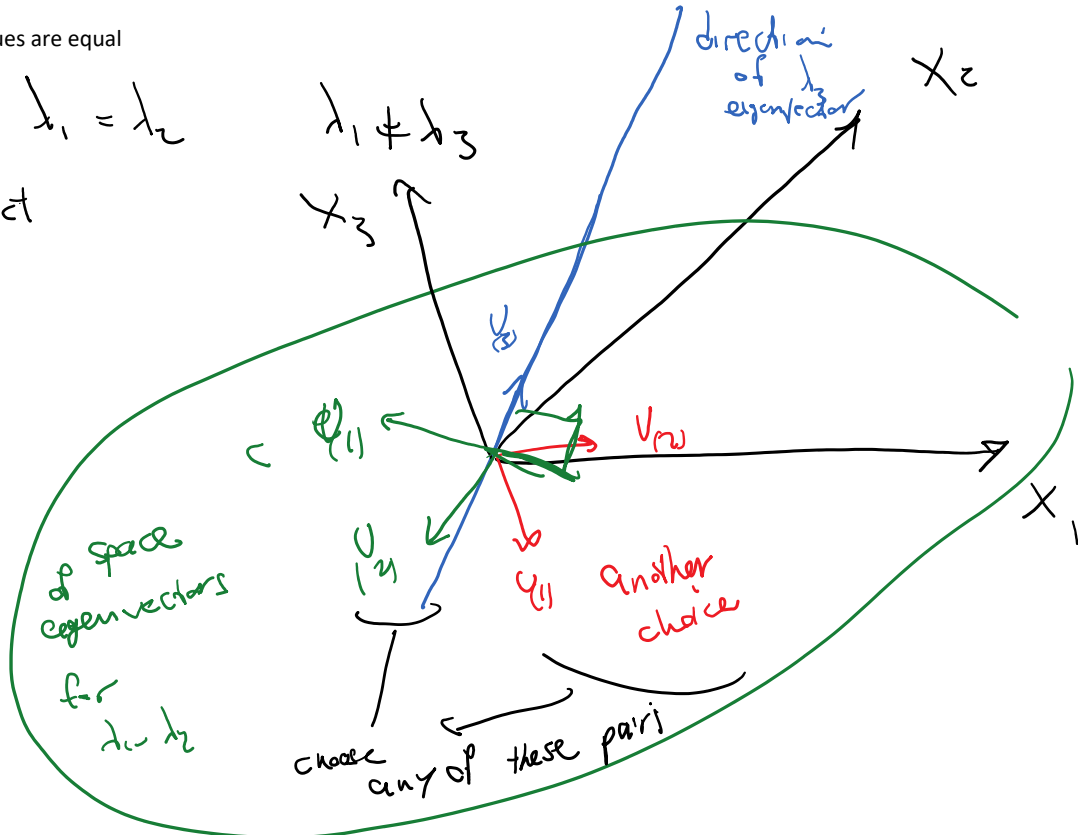


Case 2: two eigenvalues are equal

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$$

$$\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_3$$

λ_3 is distinct



$$v(i) \perp v(j) \quad i \neq j$$

$$v(i) \cdot v(j) = \delta_{ij}$$

Case 3

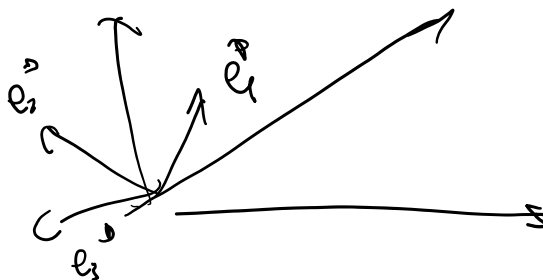
$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = a$$

$$T = a I$$

any vector is an eigenvector

Just 3 arbitrary mutually orthogonal vectors

just 3 arbitrary vectors



For an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix:

1. It is always diagonalizable
2. Eigenvalues are real
3. We can always find n orthonormal eigenvectors.

Symmetric

How to calculate eigenvectors of a 3×3 matrix:

$$(S - \lambda I) u = 0$$

↓
eigenvalue

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} - \lambda & S_{12} & S_{13} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} - \lambda & S_{23} \\ S_{31} & S_{32} & S_{33} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

(Note: In the original image, S_{21} is crossed out and S_{12} is written below it. Similarly, S_{32} is crossed out and S_{23} is written below it.)

Cayley-Hamilton equation:

Characteristic equation of the tensor:

$$-\sigma^3 + I_1 \sigma^2 - I_2 \sigma + I_3 = 0$$

$$I_1 = \text{tr}(\mathcal{S}) = S_{11} + S_{22} + S_{33}$$

$$I_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[(\text{tr}(\mathcal{S}))^2 - \text{tr}(\mathcal{S}^2) \right] = \frac{1}{2} (S_{ii} S_{jj} - S_{ij} S_{ji})$$

$$I_3 = \det S_{ij}$$

