

# Lecture 33

## Topic

Transformation of Coordinates &  
Change of Basis

## Relevance

Linear transformation is common and important. Even though the physics laws are not changed by a change of basis, the mathematics involved of a given problem may be much simpler in certain basis.

## Aims

To understand

1. invariance of physics laws under coordinate transformation;
2. the general properties of coordinate transformation or changing of basis;
3. orthogonal transformation;
4. the application in eigenvalue problem.

# Transformation of Coordinates: Examples

Cartesian  $\Longleftrightarrow$  cylindrical (polar)

$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \cos \theta \\y &= r \sin \theta \\z &= z\end{aligned}$$

Cartesian  $\Longleftrightarrow$  spherical (polar)

$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \sin \theta \cos \phi \\y &= r \sin \theta \sin \phi \\z &= r \cos \theta\end{aligned}$$

Two body system

$$(x_1, y_1, z_1, x_2, y_2, z_2) \Longleftrightarrow (X, Y, Z, x, y, z)$$

Here  $(X, Y, Z)$  is the center of mass position of the system and  $(x, y, z)$  are the relative coordinates.

Rotation

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta \\y' &= -x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta\end{aligned}$$

# Linear Transformations

Transformation between Cartesian coordinates and cylindrical coordinates, or between Cartesian coordinates and spherical coordinates are non-linear. But between coordinates of individual particles and centre of mass and relative coordinates, and a rotation of coordinate system are linear transformations.

A **linear transformation** is one in which each new variable is some linear combination of the old variables. In two dimensionals the linear transformation equations are

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= ax + by \\ y' &= cx + dy\end{aligned}$$

where  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $d$  are constants. Or

$$\vec{r}' = M\vec{r}$$

$M$  tells us how to get the components of the vector  $\vec{r} = \vec{r}'$  relative to axes  $x'$  and  $y'$  when we know its components relative to axes  $x$  and  $y$ .

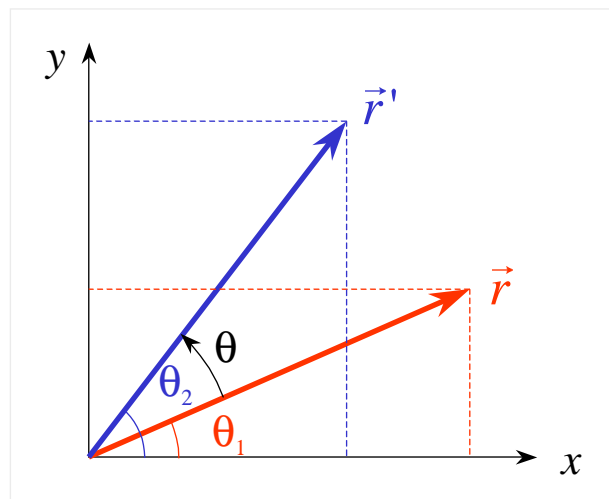
## Rotation: Transform a Vector

A rotation (and other transformations) can be interpreted geometrically in two ways: the “change of coordinate system (geometric language)” and “change of variables (algebraic language)”.

### Change of variables

$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \cos \theta_1 \\y &= r \sin \theta_1\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= r \cos \theta_2 \\y' &= r \sin \theta_2\end{aligned}$$



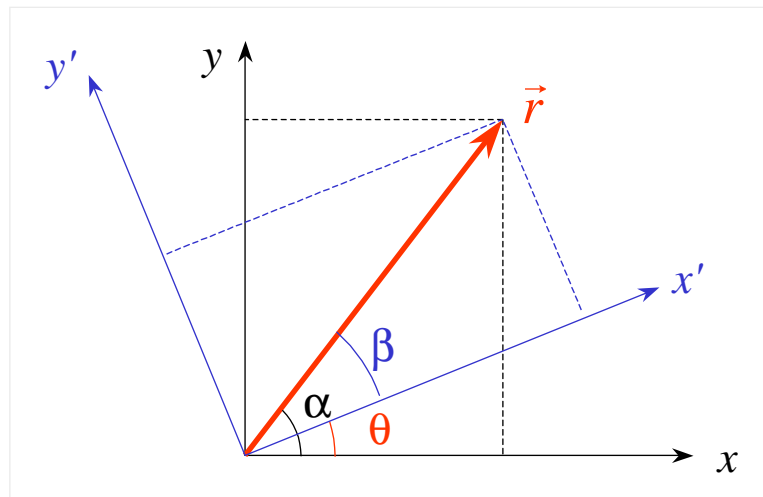
$$x' = r \cos(\theta_1 + \theta) = r \cos \theta_1 \cos \theta - r \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta$$

$$y' = r \sin(\theta_1 + \theta) = r \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta + r \cos \theta_1 \sin \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta \\y' &= x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta\end{aligned}$$

# Change of Coordinate System

Transformation of coordinates generally refer to change of coordinate system (change of basis).



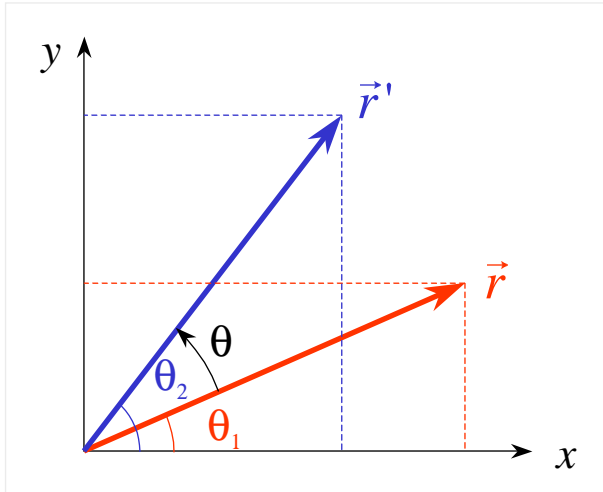
$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \cos \alpha & x' &= r \cos \beta \\y &= r \sin \alpha & y' &= r \sin \beta\end{aligned}$$

$$x' = r \cos(\alpha - \theta) = r \cos \alpha \cos \theta + r \sin \alpha \sin \theta$$

$$y' = r \sin(\alpha - \theta) = r \sin \alpha \cos \theta - r \cos \alpha \sin \theta$$

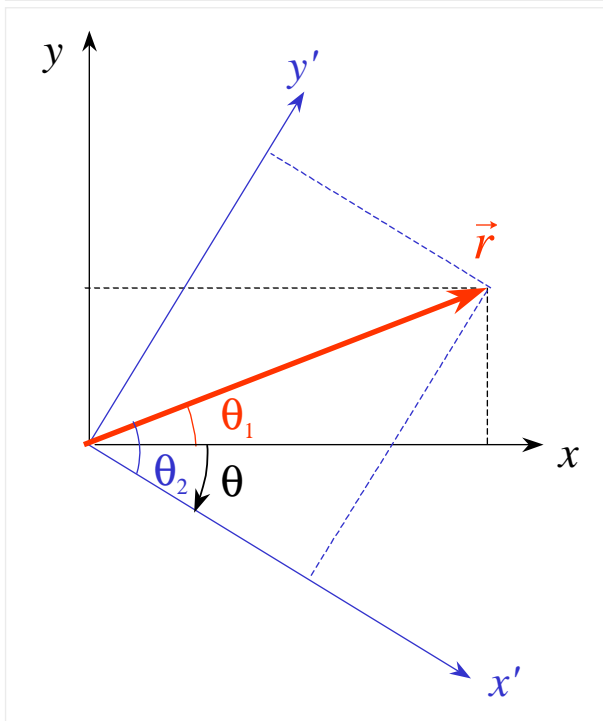
$$\begin{aligned}x' &= x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta \\y' &= -x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta\end{aligned}$$

# Change of Coordinates vs. Change of Variables



$$\vec{r}' = R(\theta)\vec{r}$$

$$R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\vec{r}' = R^{-1}(\theta)\vec{r}$$

$$\vec{r}' = R^{-1}(-\theta)\vec{r}$$

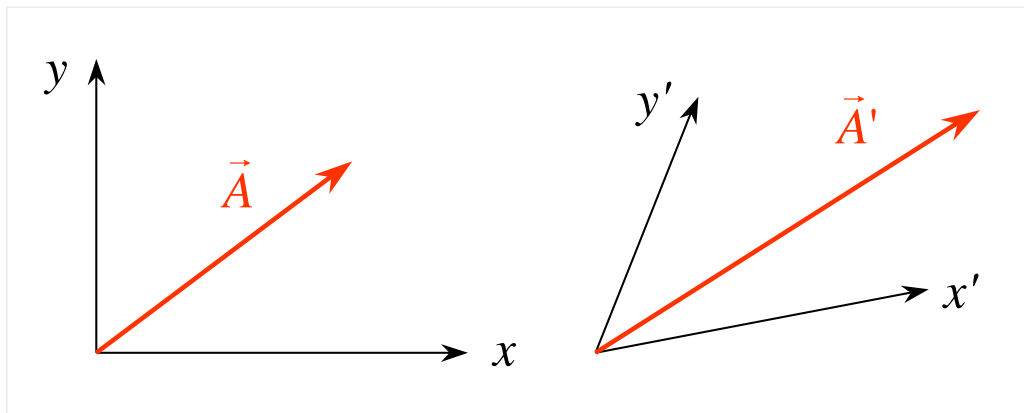
$$\vec{r}' = R(\theta)\vec{r}$$

## General Linear Transformation

In general, the axes  $x'$  and  $y'$  given by the linear transformation

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= ax + by \\ y' &= cx + dy\end{aligned}$$

are not perpendicular.



When they are, the equations represent a rotation and  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $d$  can be written in terms of the rotation angle  $\theta$  so that the equations become

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta \\ y' &= -x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta\end{aligned}$$

Such a linear transformation is called a *orthogonal transformation*.

# Orthogonal Transformation

By definition, an orthogonal transformation is a linear transformation from  $x, y$  to  $x', y'$ , such that

$$x^2 + y^2 = x'^2 + y'^2$$

That is, the length of a vector is not changed by an orthogonal transformation.

Since

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= ax + by \\ y' &= cx + dy\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}x'^2 + y'^2 &= (ax + by)^2 + (cx + dy)^2 \\ &= (a^2 + c^2)x^2 + 2(ab + cd)xy + (b^2 + d^2)y^2\end{aligned}$$

In order for  $x'^2 + y'^2 = x^2 + y^2$ , we must have

$$\begin{aligned}a^2 + c^2 &= 1 \\ b^2 + d^2 &= 1 \\ ab + cd &= 0\end{aligned} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \begin{aligned}a &= d = \cos \theta \\ b &= -c = \sin \theta\end{aligned}$$



## Orthogonal Matrix

The matrix  $M$  of an orthogonal transformation is called an *orthogonal matrix*. For an orthogonal matrix,

$$M^T M = I \quad \text{or} \quad M^T = M^{-1}$$

If

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix},$$

$$M^T = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M^T M = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + c^2 & ab + cd \\ ab + cd & b^2 + d^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} a^2 + c^2 &= 1 \\ b^2 + d^2 &= 1 \\ ab + cd &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad M^T M = I$$

## 3D Example

Consider two basis sets:

1.  $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$  (Cartesian)
2.  $\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}$  (Basis vector of crystal lattice)

A vector  $\vec{r}$  can be written in terms of either set

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{r} &= x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k} \\ \vec{r} &= \alpha\vec{a} + \beta\vec{b} + \gamma\vec{c}\end{aligned}$$

Assume that

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{a} &= a_x\hat{i} + a_y\hat{j} + a_z\hat{k} \\ \vec{b} &= b_x\hat{i} + b_y\hat{j} + b_z\hat{k} \\ \vec{c} &= c_x\hat{i} + c_y\hat{j} + c_z\hat{k}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{r} &= \alpha\vec{a} + \beta\vec{b} + \gamma\vec{c} = \alpha(a_x\hat{i} + a_y\hat{j} + a_z\hat{k}) \\ &\quad + \beta(b_x\hat{i} + b_y\hat{j} + b_z\hat{k}) + \gamma(c_x\hat{i} + c_y\hat{j} + c_z\hat{k}) \\ &= (\alpha a_x + \beta b_x + \gamma c_x)\hat{i} + (\alpha a_y + \beta b_y + \gamma c_y)\hat{j} \\ &\quad + (\alpha a_z + \beta b_z + \gamma c_z)\hat{k}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}x &= \alpha a_x + \beta b_x + \gamma c_x \\ \implies y &= \alpha a_y + \beta b_y + \gamma c_y \\ z &= \alpha a_z + \beta b_z + \gamma c_z\end{aligned}$$

## 3D Example

Rewrite the equations in matrix form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \vec{a} \\ \vec{b} \\ \vec{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_x & a_y & a_z \\ b_x & b_y & b_z \\ c_x & c_y & c_z \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{i} \\ \hat{j} \\ \hat{k} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_x & b_x & c_x \\ a_y & b_y & c_y \\ a_z & b_z & c_z \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix}$$

The first equation relates the basis (unit vectors) of two coordinate systems. The second equation relates the components of a vector in the two systems.

One matrix is the transpose of the other.

## Change of Basis

Choose a basis  $\hat{e}_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , a vector  $x$  in  $N$  dimensional linear space can be written as

$$x = x_1\hat{e}_1 + x_2\hat{e}_2 + \dots + x_N\hat{e}_N = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i\hat{e}_i$$

Consider a change of basis

$$(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \dots, \hat{e}_N) \Rightarrow (\hat{e}'_1, \hat{e}'_2, \dots, \hat{e}'_N)$$

For linear transformation,

$$\hat{e}'_j = \sum_{i=1}^N S_{ij}\hat{e}_i$$

where  $S_{ij}$  is the  $i$ th component of  $\hat{e}'_j$  with respect to the old (unprimed) basis.

The physical facts described by the answer to a physical problem do not depend upon which basis we decide to use. For a vector  $x$ ,

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i\hat{e}_i = \sum_{j=1}^N x'_j\hat{e}'_j$$

## Change of Basis

$$\sum_{j=1}^N x'_j \hat{e}'_j = \sum_{j=1}^N x'_j \sum_{i=1}^N S_{ij} \hat{e}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \left( \sum_{j=1}^N S_{ij} x'_j \right) \hat{e}_i$$

$$x_i = \sum_{j=1}^N S_{ij} x'_j$$

$$x = Sx', \quad x' = S^{-1}x$$

Consider the operator equation

$$y = Ax, \quad y' = A'x'$$

$\Downarrow$

$$(x = Sx', y = Sy')$$

$$Sy' = ASx'$$

$\Downarrow$

(multiply by  $S^{-1}$  from left)

$$y' = S^{-1}ASx'$$

$$A' = S^{-1}AS$$

This is referred as a **similarity transformation**.

# Orthogonal Transformation

Consider

$$x' = Mx$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x'_1 \\ x'_2 \\ \vdots \\ x'_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} & \cdots & m_{1n} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} & \cdots & m_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & \cdots & m_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

The *norm* of  $x$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} x^T x &= (x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$x'^T x' = (Mx)^T (Mx) = x^T M^T M x$$

In order for  $x'^T x' = x^T x$ , there must be

$$M^T M = I \quad \text{or} \quad M^T = M^{-1}$$

The transformation matrix must be orthogonal!

## Three-Particle Oscillation

Consider again the three-particle oscillation discussed in the last lecture,

$$\omega^1 = 0, \quad \omega^2 = \omega_0, \quad \omega^3 = \sqrt{3}\omega_0$$
$$x^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad x^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad x^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The unnormalized eigenvectors will be used for simplicity.

Introducing the normal coordinates,  $u_1$ ,  $u_2$  and  $u_3$ .

$$u_1 = x_1 + x_2 + x_3$$

$$u_2 = x_1 - x_3$$

$$u_3 = x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$u = S^{-1}x$$

## Three-Particle Oscillation

Consider

$$\begin{aligned}Ax &= -\omega^2 x \\ u = S^{-1}x &\longrightarrow x = Su \\ ASu &= -\omega^2 Su\end{aligned}$$

Multiply by  $S^{-1}$  from left

$$S^{-1}ASu = A'u = -\omega^2 u$$

$$\begin{aligned}S^{-1} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow S = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 2 & -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ A &= \omega_0^2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A' = S^{-1}AS = -\omega_0^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ -\omega_0^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} &= -\omega^2 \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} \\ 0 &= -\omega^2 u_1 \\ -\omega_0^2 u_2 &= -\omega^2 u_2 \\ -3\omega_0^2 u_3 &= -\omega^2 u_3\end{aligned}$$

**Decoupled!**



## Observation

Each column of  $S$  is an eigenvector of  $A$ . If normalized eigenvectors were used, then

$$S^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 & -2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ x^1 & x^2 & x^3 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \end{pmatrix}$$

In general,

$$Ax^j = \lambda_j x^j$$
$$S = \begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ x^1 & x^2 & \dots & x^N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{pmatrix}$$
$$A' = S^{-1}AS = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix}$$

Given a matrix  $A$ , if we construct the matrix  $S$  that has the eigenvectors of  $A$  as its columns, then the matrix  $A' = S^{-1}AS$  is diagonal with the eigenvalues of  $A$  as the diagonal elements.