

Unit IV - Diagonalization

- diagonalizing matrices
- characteristic polynomial
- eigenvalues, eigenvectors and eigenspaces
- similarity of matrices or linear operators

Illustrative example

- find the matrix representation of the linear operator $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $T(x,y) = (3x+y, x+3y)$ with respect to the basis $\beta = \{(1,1), (1,-1)\}$
- first calculate the coordinates of any vector with respect to β : $(a,b) = [(a+b)/2, (a-b)/2]_\beta$
- now apply this to the images of the basis vectors:
 - $T(1,1) = (4,4) = [4,0]_\beta$
 - $T(1,-1) = (2,-2) = [0,2]_\beta$
- so the required matrix representation is a diagonal matrix....

$$[T]_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

...Illustrative example

- an alternative approach to get the matrix...
- the change of basis matrix and its inverse are

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad P^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- then the required matrix representation is

$$P^{-1}AP = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- diagonal matrices have very convenient properties for calculations, so it's important if we can represent a linear operator this way

Diagonalization

- not all linear operators can be represented by diagonal matrices with respect to some basis
- a *diagonalizable* matrix A has some [invertible] P so that $P^{-1}AP = D$ is diagonal
- equivalently a *diagonalizable* linear operator is one which can be represented by a diagonal matrix with respect to some basis
- our shopping list:
 - which matrices can be diagonalized...
 - how to find the appropriate basis...and
 - how to calculate the diagonal matrix

Finding the right basis

- linear operator $T: V \rightarrow V$
- $\beta = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$ a basis of V
- the matrix representation $[T]_\beta$ is diagonal if and only if
 - $[T(u_1)]_\beta = [\lambda_1, 0, 0, \dots, 0]_\beta$
 - $[T(u_2)]_\beta = [0, \lambda_2, 0, \dots, 0]_\beta$
 -
 - $[T(u_n)]_\beta = [0, 0, \dots, 0, \lambda_n]_\beta$
- conclusion.... a linear operator $T: V \rightarrow V$ is diagonalizable if and only if there is a basis of V $\beta = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$ so that $T(u_i) = \lambda_i u_i$

Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

- a vector $v \in V$ for which $T(v) = \lambda v$ is called an *eigenvector* of T with *eigenvalue* [scalar] λ
- so we've seen that
 - T is diagonalizable if and only if there is a basis of V consisting of eigenvectors of T and....
 - the diagonal entries of the matrix representation with respect to that basis are simply the corresponding eigenvalues
- geometrically the transformation from v to $T(v)$ leaves the direction of an eigenvector unchanged and its length magnified by λ .
 - WARNING:** this is *not* the same thing as a dilation or contraction map [why?]

Finding eigenvectors and eigenvalues

- we work with matrices now for simplicity
 - for a linear operator T_A we can use say the matrix representation A with respect to the standard basis
 - all these concepts and calculations are relevant to A
 - A must be square in all of this of course
- an eigenvector v of A satisfies $Av = \lambda v$ for some λ
- equivalently we have the matrix equation

$$[A - \lambda I] v = 0$$
- $v = 0$ is obviously a possible solution, but not very interesting
 - the zero vector is technically an eigenvector of any matrix since $A0 = \lambda 0$ for any λ .
- what about non-zero solutions?

Finding eigenvectors and eigenvalues

- a non-zero solution of $[A - \lambda I] v = 0$ exists if and only if the matrix $A - \lambda I$ is not invertible, i.e. $A - \lambda I$ must be a singular matrix
 - otherwise we could invert $A - \lambda I$ and get the unique solution $v = [A - \lambda I]^{-1} 0 = 0$, i.e. only the zero solution
- equivalently we have non-zero eigenvectors if and only if the rank of $A - \lambda I < n$ or
- equivalently we want **$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$**
- to find this you simply subtract λ from each diagonal entry of A and take the determinant

Finding eigenvectors and eigenvalues

- this equation $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ is called the *characteristic equation* of the matrix A
 - it's a polynomial of degree n if A is $n \times n$
 - its solutions give all the eigenvalues λ
- the number of times a root λ_i is repeated $[(\lambda - \lambda_i)^k \text{ is a repeated factor } k \text{ times}]$ is called the *algebraic multiplicity* of the eigenvalue λ_i
- once we know the $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots$ [solve for them] we take each one in turn and find the corresponding eigenvector(s) v by solving the linear system

$$[A - \lambda_i I] v = 0$$

Illustrative example repeated

- suppose we didn't know the values for the matrix in this illustrative example.... let's find the solution from scratch

Eigenspaces

- if v is an eigenvector then so is any multiple kv with the same eigenvalue:

$$A(kv) = k(Av) = k(\lambda v) = \lambda(kv)$$
- if v and w are eigenvectors for the same eigenvalue λ , then so is $v+w$:

$$A(v+w) = Av + Aw = \lambda v + \lambda w = \lambda(v+w)$$
- so for each eigenvalue λ the corresponding eigenvectors span a subspace E_λ , called the *eigenspace* of the eigenvalue λ .
- the dimension of the eigenspace is called the *geometric multiplicity* of the eigenvalue λ .
- **a complete solution consists of finding a basis of eigenvectors for each eigenspace (eigenvalue)**

Diagonalization

- what is the matrix P which diagonalizes a matrix A by providing $D = P^{-1}AP$?
 - P is the change of basis matrix between the standard basis and the special basis consisting of eigenvectors of A
 - so P consists of columns which are the eigenvectors expressed in standard coordinates
- D is very useful for simplifying calculations of powers of A :
 - A can be factorized as $A = PDP^{-1}$
 - then $A^2 = (PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) = PD(P^{-1}P)DP^{-1} = PD^2P^{-1}$
 - $A^n = (PDP^{-1}) \dots (PDP^{-1}) = PD^nP^{-1}$
 - powers of a diagonal matrix are trivial to calculate
- these comments apply to calculation of polynomials of matrices too

Example: eigenvalues and eigenvectors

[problem 9.9] (a) Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the

matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 \\ 2 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) diagonalize A if possible (c) find A^6 .

Example: eigenvalues and eigenvectors

[problem 9.11] (a) Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the

matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) diagonalize A if possible.

IMPORTANT stuff about eigenvalues

- only square matrices have eigenvalues
- an $n \times n$ matrix has at most n distinct eigenvalues [why?]
- **eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are always linearly independent** [see problem 9.21]
- **the geometric multiplicity of an eigenvalue never exceeds its algebraic multiplicity**
- if λ is an eigenvalue of an invertible matrix A then $1/\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of A^{-1}

Example: eigenvalues and eigenvectors

[problem 9.14] (a) Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the

matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 5 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) diagonalize A if possible.

Example: degenerate eigenvalue

[problem 9.15] (a) Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the

matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 1 \\ 7 & -5 & 1 \\ 6 & -6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) diagonalize A if possible.