Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of an $n \times n$ matrix A

<u>Definition</u>: A vector \vec{x} in \mathbb{R}^n is called an *eigenvector* of the matrix A if $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$ and $A \cdot \vec{x}$ is a scalar multiple of \vec{x} , that is, if there is a scalar λ called an *eigenvalue* such that

$$A \cdot \vec{x} = \lambda \cdot \vec{x} \tag{1}$$

The equation above is called the eigenvalue equation.

Given the matrix A, a scalar solution λ is an eigenvalue of A while the corresponding vector solution x is called the eigenvector of A corresponding to the eigenvalue λ .

The goal is to describe a general procedure for finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix A.

Theorem: λ is an eigenvalue of A if and only if

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$$

<u>Definition</u>: If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, the expression $\det(\lambda I - A)$ defines a polynomial of degree n in λ , called the *characteristic* polynomial of A and denoted by $p_A(\lambda)$.

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of an $n \times n$ matrix A

An immediate consequence of the previous theorem above is that if A is an upper triangular (or a lower triangular, or a diagonal) matrix, then its eigenvalues are exactly the entries on the (main) diagonal.

The following theorem is just a reformulation of the definition of an eigenvector. We use it to find the eigenvectors of a matrix.

<u>Theorem</u>: A nonzero vector \vec{x} is an eigenvector of the matrix A with corresponding eigenvalue λ if and only if \vec{x} is in the *null space* of $\lambda I - A$.

<u>Definition</u>: The null space of $\lambda I - A$ is called the *eigenspace* of A corresponding to the eigenvalue λ . Its dimension is called the *geometric multiplicity* of the eigenvalue λ .

Note that we always have

geometric multiplicity of $\lambda \leq$ algebraic multiplicity of λ where by algebraic multiplicity we mean the multiplicity of λ as a solution of the algebraic equation $p_A(\lambda) = 0$.

Diagonalization of an $n \times n$ matrix A

<u>Definition</u>: A square matrix A is diagonalizable if it is similar to a diagonal matrix, in other words, if there exists an invertible matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP$ is diagonal. In this case we say that P diagonalizes A.

<u>Theorem</u>: An $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if it has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

The proof of this theorem gives us a procedure to diagonalize a matrix.

- Find all eigenvalues and corresponding bases for the eigenspaces. Merge all these bases into a set S.
 If S has fewer than n elements, then A is not diagonalizable.
 If S has n elements, then A is diagonalizable.
- 2. Let $P = [\vec{p_1} \ \vec{p_2} \ \dots \ \vec{p_n}]$ be the matrix whose columns are the vectors in S. Then P diagonalizes A.
- 3. $P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix and its diagonal entries are exactly the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ corresponding to the eigenvectors $\vec{p_1}, \vec{p_2}, \dots, \vec{p_n}$ (in this order).

Diagonalization of an $n \times n$ matrix A

We have some special cases in which it is relatively easy to determine if a matrix is diagonalizable. It is all due to the following.

<u>Theorem</u>: If $\vec{v_1}, \vec{v_2}, \dots, \vec{v_k}$ are eigenvectors of A corresponding to distinct eigenvalues, then $\vec{v_1}, \vec{v_2}, \dots, \vec{v_k}$ are linearly independent.

The following statements then hold.

- If an $n \times n$ matrix A has n eigenvalues that are all distinct, then A is diagonalizable.
- If A is upper (or lower) triangular, and the entries on the diagonal are all distinct, then A is diagonalizable.

Application: computing powers of a diagonalizable matrix

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix that happens to be diagonalizable.

Diagonalize A.
 That is, find P invertible and D diagonal such that

$$P^{-1} A P = D$$

2. Solve for A and obtain $A = PDP^{-1}$. From here conclude that

$$A^k = P D^k P^{-1}$$

Compute D^k by simply raising the diagonal entries of D to the k-th power.
 Compute P⁻¹.
 Substitute everything into the formula above and obtain A^k.

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