Linear Algebra

Department of Mathematics Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati

January - May 2019

MA 102 (RA, RKS, MGPP, KVK)

Similarity and diagonalization

Topics:

- Similarity transformation
- Diagonalization of matrices and operators
- Triangularization of complex matrices

We have seen that diagonal and triangular matrices are nice in the sense that their eigenvalues are transparently displayed.

We have seen that diagonal and triangular matrices are nice in the sense that their eigenvalues are transparently displayed.

It would be desirable to transform a square matrix to a diagonal or triangular matrix in such a way that they have exactly the same eigenvalues.

We have seen that diagonal and triangular matrices are nice in the sense that their eigenvalues are transparently displayed.

It would be desirable to transform a square matrix to a diagonal or triangular matrix in such a way that they have exactly the same eigenvalues.

Gaussian elimination reduces a matrix to a triangular matrix. Unfortunately, this process does not preserve the eigenvalues.

We have seen that diagonal and triangular matrices are nice in the sense that their eigenvalues are transparently displayed.

It would be desirable to transform a square matrix to a diagonal or triangular matrix in such a way that they have exactly the same eigenvalues.

Gaussian elimination reduces a matrix to a triangular matrix. Unfortunately, this process does not preserve the eigenvalues.

Definition: Let $A, B \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then A is said to be similar to B if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $P^{-1}AP = B$.

We have seen that diagonal and triangular matrices are nice in the sense that their eigenvalues are transparently displayed.

It would be desirable to transform a square matrix to a diagonal or triangular matrix in such a way that they have exactly the same eigenvalues.

Gaussian elimination reduces a matrix to a triangular matrix. Unfortunately, this process does not preserve the eigenvalues.

Definition: Let $A, B \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then A is said to be similar to B if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $P^{-1}AP = B$.

We write $A \sim B$ when A is similar to B.

We have seen that diagonal and triangular matrices are nice in the sense that their eigenvalues are transparently displayed.

It would be desirable to transform a square matrix to a diagonal or triangular matrix in such a way that they have exactly the same eigenvalues.

Gaussian elimination reduces a matrix to a triangular matrix. Unfortunately, this process does not preserve the eigenvalues.

Definition: Let $A, B \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then A is said to be similar to B if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $P^{-1}AP = B$.

We write $A \sim B$ when A is similar to B.

The map $A \mapsto P^{-1}AP$ is called a similarity transformation of A.

We have seen that diagonal and triangular matrices are nice in the sense that their eigenvalues are transparently displayed.

It would be desirable to transform a square matrix to a diagonal or triangular matrix in such a way that they have exactly the same eigenvalues.

Gaussian elimination reduces a matrix to a triangular matrix. Unfortunately, this process does not preserve the eigenvalues.

Definition: Let $A, B \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then A is said to be similar to B if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $P^{-1}AP = B$.

We write $A \sim B$ when A is similar to B.

The map $A \longmapsto P^{-1}AP$ is called a similarity transformation of A.

Note that similarity of matrices is a transitive relation on $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$.

Remark: Note that A and $B := P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and

Remark: Note that A and $B := P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$,

Remark: Note that A and $B:=P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u}=\lambda\mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u}:=P\mathbf{v}$.

Remark: Note that A and $B:=P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u}=\lambda\mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u}:=P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Remark: Note that A and $B := P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u} := P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then

 $A \sim B$,

Remark: Note that A and $B:=P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u}=\lambda\mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u}:=P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A \sim B$, since $AP = PB$, where $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Remark: Note that A and $B:=P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u}=\lambda\mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u}:=P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A \sim B$, since $AP = PB$, where $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition: An matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is said to be diagonalizable if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $D := P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix.

Remark: Note that A and $B:=P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u}=\lambda\mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u}:=P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A \sim B$, since $AP = PB$, where $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition: An matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is said to be diagonalizable if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $D := P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix.

An LT $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ with $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$ is said to be diagonalizable if there exists an ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} such that $[T]_B$ is a diagonal matrix.

Remark: Note that A and $B := P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u} := P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A \sim B$, since $AP = PB$, where $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition: An matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is said to be diagonalizable if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $D := P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix.

An LT $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ with $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$ is said to be diagonalizable if there exists an ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} such that $[T]_B$ is a diagonal matrix.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow A$ has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

Remark: Note that A and $B := P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u} := P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A \sim B$, since $AP = PB$, where $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition: An matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is said to be diagonalizable if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $D := P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix.

An LT $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ with $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$ is said to be diagonalizable if there exists an ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} such that $[T]_B$ is a diagonal matrix.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow A$ has n linearly independent eigenvectors. In particular, if A has n distinct eigenvalues then A is diagonalizable.

Remark: Note that A and $B := P^{-1}AP$ have the same eigenvalues and $B\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow A\mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$, where $\mathbf{u} := P\mathbf{v}$.

Example: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A \sim B$, since $AP = PB$, where $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition: An matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is said to be diagonalizable if there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$ such that $D := P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix.

An LT $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ with $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$ is said to be diagonalizable if there exists an ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} such that $[T]_B$ is a diagonal matrix.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow A$ has n linearly independent eigenvectors. In particular, if A has n distinct eigenvalues then A is diagonalizable. (Is the converse true?)

Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and $P^{-1}AP = D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. Then AP = PD.

```
Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n). Then AP = PD.
Now, if P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] then \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} is LI (why?)
```

```
Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n). Then AP = PD.
Now, if P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] then \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} is LI (why?) and [\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \cdots \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n] = PD = AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots A\mathbf{v}_n]
```

```
Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n). Then AP = PD. Now, if P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] then \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} is LI (why?) and [\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \cdots \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n] = PD = AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots A\mathbf{v}_n] which shows that A\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i for i = 1 : n.
```

Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and $P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. Then AP = PD. Now, if $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$ then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI (why?) and $[\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \cdots \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n] = PD = AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots A\mathbf{v}_n]$

which shows that $A\mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j$ for j = 1:n. Hence λ_j is an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v}_j is an eigenvector corresponding to λ_j .

Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and $P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. Then AP = PD. Now, if $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$ then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI (why?) and $[\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \cdots \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n] = PD = AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots A\mathbf{v}_n]$

which shows that $A\mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j$ for j = 1:n. Hence λ_j is an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v}_j is an eigenvector corresponding to λ_j .

Conversely, if $A\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$ for i = 1 : n and $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI,

Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and $P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. Then AP = PD. Now, if $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$ then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI (why?) and $[\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \cdots \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n] = PD = AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots A\mathbf{v}_n]$ which shows that $A\mathbf{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1$ for $i = 1 \cdot n$. Hence λ_1 is an

which shows that $A\mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j$ for j=1:n. Hence λ_j is an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v}_j is an eigenvector corresponding to λ_j .

Conversely, if $A\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$ for i = 1:n and $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI, then $A[\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n] = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n] \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) \Rightarrow P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix,

Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and $P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. Then AP = PD. Now, if $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$ then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI (why?) and $[\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n] = PD = AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots A\mathbf{v}_n]$ which shows that $A\mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j\mathbf{v}_j$ for j = 1:n. Hence λ_j is an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v}_j is an eigenvector corresponding to λ_j .

Conversely, if $A\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$ for i = 1:n and $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI, then $A[\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n] = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n] \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) \Rightarrow P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix, where $P = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n]$.

Proof: Suppose A is diagonalizable and $P^{-1}AP = D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. Then AP = PD. Now, if $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$ then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI (why?) and $[\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \cdots \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n] = PD = AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \cdots A\mathbf{v}_n]$

which shows that $A\mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j$ for j = 1:n. Hence λ_j is an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v}_j is an eigenvector corresponding to λ_j .

Conversely, if $A\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$ for i = 1:n and $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is LI, then $A[\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n] = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n] \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) \Rightarrow P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix, where $P = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n]$.

Exercise: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then geometric multiplicity of each eigenvalue is less than or equal to its algebraic multiplicity.

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace \mathcal{E}_{λ_i} .

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Theorem: Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be distinct eigenvalues of A. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \dim(E_{\lambda_i})$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i for i = 1 : m.

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Theorem: Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be distinct eigenvalues of A. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \dim(E_{\lambda_i})$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i for i = 1 : m.

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Theorem: Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be distinct eigenvalues of A. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \dim(E_{\lambda_i})$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i for i = 1 : m.

The Diagonalization Theorem: For an $n \times n$ matrix A, the following statements are equivalent:

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Theorem: Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be distinct eigenvalues of A. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \dim(E_{\lambda_i})$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i for i = 1 : m.

The Diagonalization Theorem: For an $n \times n$ matrix A, the following statements are equivalent:

• A is diagonalizable.

Characterization

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Theorem: Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be distinct eigenvalues of A. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \dim(E_{\lambda_i})$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i for i = 1 : m.

The Diagonalization Theorem: For an $n \times n$ matrix A, the following statements are equivalent:

• A is diagonalizable.

Characterization

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Theorem: Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be distinct eigenvalues of A. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \dim(E_{\lambda_i})$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i for i = 1 : m.

The Diagonalization Theorem: For an $n \times n$ matrix A, the following statements are equivalent:

- A is diagonalizable.
- ② The union \mathcal{B} of the bases of the eigenspaces of A (as in Exercise above) contains n vectors.

Characterization

Exercise: Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis for the eigenspace E_{λ_i} . Then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Theorem: Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be distinct eigenvalues of A. Then A is diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \dim(E_{\lambda_i})$ equals the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i for i = 1 : m.

The Diagonalization Theorem: For an $n \times n$ matrix A, the following statements are equivalent:

- A is diagonalizable.
- ② The union \mathcal{B} of the bases of the eigenspaces of A (as in Exercise above) contains n vectors.
- The algebraic multiplicity of each eigenvalue A equals its geometric multiplicity.

Example: The matrix
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is diagonalizable

Example: The matrix
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is diagonalizable because

1,4,6 are (distinct) eigenvalues of A.

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonalizable because

1,4,6 are (distinct) eigenvalues of A.

You can easily find: 1,4,6 have eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 2\\3\\0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 10\\25\\10 \end{bmatrix}$, respectively.

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonalizable because

1,4,6 are (distinct) eigenvalues of A.

You can easily find: 1, 4, 6 have eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 25 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$, respectively.

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is not diagonalizable

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonalizable because

1,4,6 are (distinct) eigenvalues of A.

You can easily find: 1,4,6 have eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 2\\3\\0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 10\\25\\10 \end{bmatrix}$, respectively.

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is not diagonalizable because

 ${\bf 1}$ is the only eigenvalue with algebraic multiplicity ${\bf 3}$ but geometric multiplicity ${\bf 1}.$

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonalizable because

1,4,6 are (distinct) eigenvalues of A.

You can easily find: 1, 4, 6 have eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 25 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$, respectively.

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is not diagonalizable because

1 is the only eigenvalue with algebraic multiplicity 3 but geometric multiplicity 1. Indeed, the eigenspace E_1 is given by

$$E_1 = \operatorname{null} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \operatorname{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right).$$



Example: Let $T: \mathbb{R}_2[x] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_2[x]$ be given by

$$(Tp)(x) := p(x) + (x+1)p'(x).$$

Find the eigenvalues of T.

Example: Let $T: \mathbb{R}_2[x] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_2[x]$ be given by

$$(Tp)(x) := p(x) + (x+1)p'(x).$$

Find the eigenvalues of T. Is T diagonalizable?

Example: Let $T: \mathbb{R}_2[x] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_2[x]$ be given by

$$(Tp)(x) := p(x) + (x+1)p'(x).$$

Find the eigenvalues of T. Is T diagonalizable?

Solution: Consider
$$B := [1, x, x^2]$$
. Then $[T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Example: Let $T: \mathbb{R}_2[x] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_2[x]$ be given by

$$(Tp)(x) := p(x) + (x+1)p'(x).$$

Find the eigenvalues of T. Is T diagonalizable?

Solution: Consider
$$B := [1, x, x^2]$$
. Then $[T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Hence 1, 2, 3 are the eigenvalues of T. Hence T is diagonalizable.

Example: Let $T : \mathbb{R}_2[x] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_2[x]$ be given by

$$(Tp)(x) := p(x) + (x+1)p'(x).$$

Find the eigenvalues of T. Is T diagonalizable?

Solution: Consider
$$B := [1, x, x^2]$$
. Then $[T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Hence 1, 2, 3 are the eigenvalues of T. Hence T is diagonalizable.

Now
$$A - I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow null(A - I) := span\{\mathbf{e}_1\},$$

Example: Let $T: \mathbb{R}_2[x] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_2[x]$ be given by

$$(Tp)(x) := p(x) + (x+1)p'(x).$$

Find the eigenvalues of T. Is T diagonalizable?

Solution: Consider
$$B := [1, x, x^2]$$
. Then $[T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Hence 1, 2, 3 are the eigenvalues of T. Hence T is diagonalizable.

Now
$$A - I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow null(A - I) := span\{e_1\},$$

$$A-2I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{null}(A-2I) = \text{span}\{[1,1,0]^{\top}\}, \text{ and }$$



$$A-3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{null}(A-I) := \text{span}\{[1,2,1]^{\top}\}.$$

$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{null}(A - I) := \text{span}\{[1, 2, 1]^{\top}\}.$$

Hence $p_1(x) := 1$, $p_2(x) := 1 + x$ and $p_3(x) := 1 + 2x + x^2$ are eigenvectors T corresponding to the eigenvalues 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{null}(A - I) := \text{span}\{[1, 2, 1]^{\top}\}.$$

Hence $p_1(x) := 1$, $p_2(x) := 1 + x$ and $p_3(x) := 1 + 2x + x^2$ are eigenvectors T corresponding to the eigenvalues 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

Consider the ordered bases $C := [p_1, p_2, p_3]$. Then we have

$$[T]_C = \operatorname{diag}(1,2,3)$$
.

$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{null}(A - I) := \text{span}\{[1, 2, 1]^{\top}\}.$$

Hence $p_1(x) := 1$, $p_2(x) := 1 + x$ and $p_3(x) := 1 + 2x + x^2$ are eigenvectors T corresponding to the eigenvalues 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

Consider the ordered bases $C := [p_1, p_2, p_3]$. Then we have

$$[T]_C = diag(1, 2, 3)$$
.

Exercise: Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ and $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$. Define the determinant of T by $\det(T) := \det([T]_B)$ for any ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} .

$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{null}(A - I) := \text{span}\{[1, 2, 1]^{\top}\}.$$

Hence $p_1(x) := 1$, $p_2(x) := 1 + x$ and $p_3(x) := 1 + 2x + x^2$ are eigenvectors T corresponding to the eigenvalues 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

Consider the ordered bases $C := [p_1, p_2, p_3]$. Then we have

$$[T]_C = diag(1, 2, 3). \blacksquare$$

Exercise: Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ and $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$. Define the determinant of T by $\det(T) := \det([T]_B)$ for any ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} . Show that $\det(T)$ is independent of the choice of an ordered basis.



$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{null}(A - I) := \text{span}\{[1, 2, 1]^{\top}\}.$$

Hence $p_1(x) := 1$, $p_2(x) := 1 + x$ and $p_3(x) := 1 + 2x + x^2$ are eigenvectors T corresponding to the eigenvalues 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

Consider the ordered bases $C := [p_1, p_2, p_3]$. Then we have

$$[T]_C = diag(1, 2, 3). \blacksquare$$

Exercise: Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ and $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$. Define the determinant of T by $\det(T) := \det([T]_B)$ for any ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} . Show that $\det(T)$ is independent of the choice of an ordered basis. Also show that T is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(T) \neq 0$.

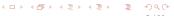
$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{null}(A - I) := \text{span}\{[1, 2, 1]^{\top}\}.$$

Hence $p_1(x) := 1$, $p_2(x) := 1 + x$ and $p_3(x) := 1 + 2x + x^2$ are eigenvectors T corresponding to the eigenvalues 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

Consider the ordered bases $C := [p_1, p_2, p_3]$. Then we have

$$[T]_C = diag(1, 2, 3)$$
.

Exercise: Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{V})$ and $\dim(\mathbb{V}) = n$. Define the determinant of T by $\det(T) := \det([T]_B)$ for any ordered basis B of \mathbb{V} . Show that $\det(T)$ is independent of the choice of an ordered basis. Also show that T is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(T) \neq 0$. Further show that $\det(T - \lambda I_{\mathbb{V}}) = \det([T]_B - \lambda I_n)$ for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$.



Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A and ${\bf v}$ be an eigenvector. Then $A{\bf v}=\lambda{\bf v}$.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v} be an eigenvector. Then $A\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}$. Choose an $n\times(n-1)$ matrix V such that $P_1:=[\mathbf{v},V]$ is invertible.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v} be an eigenvector. Then $A\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}$. Choose an $n\times(n-1)$ matrix V such that $P_1:=[\mathbf{v},V]$ is invertible. Then $P_1^{-1}AP_1=\begin{bmatrix}\lambda&h\\0&\widehat{A}\end{bmatrix}$

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v} be an eigenvector. Then $A\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}$. Choose an $n\times(n-1)$ matrix V such that $P_1:=[\mathbf{v},V]$ is invertible. Then $P_1^{-1}AP_1=\begin{bmatrix}\lambda & h\\ 0 & \widehat{A}\end{bmatrix}$ for some row vector h and $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix \widehat{A} .

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v} be an eigenvector. Then $A\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}$. Choose an $n\times(n-1)$ matrix V such that $P_1:=[\mathbf{v},V]$ is invertible. Then $P_1^{-1}AP_1=\left[\begin{array}{cc} \lambda & h \\ 0 & \widehat{A} \end{array}\right]$ for some row vector h and $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix \widehat{A} .

By induction hypothesis, there exists \widehat{P} such that $\widehat{U}:=(\widehat{P})^{-1}\widehat{A}\widehat{P}$ is upper triangular.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v} be an eigenvector. Then $A\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}$. Choose an $n\times(n-1)$ matrix V such that $P_1:=[\mathbf{v},V]$ is invertible. Then $P_1^{-1}AP_1=\left[\begin{array}{cc}\lambda&h\\0&\widehat{A}\end{array}\right]$ for some row vector h and $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix \widehat{A} .

By induction hypothesis, there exists \widehat{P} such that $\widehat{U} := (\widehat{P})^{-1}\widehat{A}\widehat{P}$ is upper triangular. Set $P := P_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \widehat{P} \end{bmatrix}$.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then there is an invertible matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Proof: Apply induction on n. The result holds for n = 1. Assume that the result holds for n - 1.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v} be an eigenvector. Then $A\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}$. Choose an $n\times(n-1)$ matrix V such that $P_1:=[\mathbf{v},V]$ is invertible. Then $P_1^{-1}AP_1=\begin{bmatrix}\lambda & h\\ 0 & \widehat{A}\end{bmatrix}$ for some row vector h and $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix \widehat{A} .

By induction hypothesis, there exists \widehat{P} such that $\widehat{U} := (\widehat{P})^{-1}\widehat{A}\widehat{P}$ is upper triangular. Set $P := P_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \widehat{P} \end{bmatrix}$. Then

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda & h\widehat{P} \\ 0 & \widehat{U} \end{vmatrix} = \text{upper triangular.} \blacksquare$$



Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ (counted according to their algebraic multiplicities).

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ (counted according to their algebraic multiplicities). Then

Trace
$$(A) = \lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n$$
 and $\det(A) = \prod_{j=1}^n \lambda_j$.

Proof: By triangularization theorem, there is a nonsingular matrix P such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ (counted according to their algebraic multiplicities). Then

Trace
$$(A) = \lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n$$
 and $\det(A) = \prod_{j=1}^n \lambda_j$.

Proof: By triangularization theorem, there is a nonsingular matrix P such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular. Hence

$$\det(A) = \det(U) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}.$$

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ (counted according to their algebraic multiplicities). Then

Trace
$$(A) = \lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n$$
 and $\det(A) = \prod_{j=1}^n \lambda_j$.

Proof: By triangularization theorem, there is a nonsingular matrix P such that $U := P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular. Hence

$$\det(A) = \det(U) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_{j}.$$

Now Trace(A) = Trace(PUP^{-1}) = Trace(U) = $\lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n$.

Exercise: Let $A, B \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Show that Trace(AB) = Trace(BA).