

Lecture 10: Diagonalization (book: 5.2, 5.3)

Previous episode: Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors.

Next episode: Orthogonality and Symmetric Matrices.

Let A and B be two $n \times n$ matrices.

A and B are similar $\iff \exists$ invertible matrix P st
 $A = PBP^{-1}$ or $B = P^{-1}AP$.

Theorem: If A and B are similar, then they have the same eigenvalues.

Proof: $|B - \lambda I| = |P^{-1}AP - \lambda I| = |P^{-1}AP - \lambda P^{-1}P| = |P^{-1}(AP - \lambda P)|$
 $= |P^{-1}(AP - \lambda IP)| = |P^{-1}(A - \lambda I)P| = |P^{-1}| \cdot |A - \lambda I| \cdot |P|$
 $= \frac{1}{|P|} \cdot |A - \lambda I| \cdot |P| = |A - \lambda I|$

So, A and B have the same characteristic equation
 \implies same eigenvalues □

$$A^k = \underbrace{A \cdot A \cdot A \cdots A \cdot A}_{k \text{ times}}$$

For a diagonal matrix this is easy.

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad D^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D^3 = D^2 \cdot D = \begin{bmatrix} 2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2^3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^3 \end{bmatrix} \quad D^k = \begin{bmatrix} 2^k & 0 \\ 0 & 3^k \end{bmatrix}$$

If A is similar to a diagonal matrix, then it's also easy.
 $\hookrightarrow A = PDP^{-1}$.

$$A^k = \underbrace{A \cdot A \cdot A \cdots A \cdot A}_{k \text{ times}} = \underbrace{PDP^{-1} \cdot PDP^{-1} \cdot PDP^{-1} \cdots PDP^{-1} \cdot PDP^{-1}}_{k \text{ times}}$$
$$= PD^kP^{-1}.$$

A is called **diagonalizable** if A is **similar** to a **diagonal** matrix.

* How to build **D**?

{ A is similar to D \Rightarrow A and D have the same eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$.
D is a diagonal matrix \Rightarrow the eigenvalues are on the diagonal.

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

* How to build **P**?

$P = [\underline{v}_1 \dots \underline{v}_n]$ where $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$ are **lin indep** vectors in \mathbb{R}^n .
 \hookrightarrow because P is invertible.

$$A = P P P^{-1} \Rightarrow AP = PD, \text{ where}$$

$$AP = A[\underline{v}_1 \dots \underline{v}_n] = [A\underline{v}_1 \ A\underline{v}_2 \ \dots \ A\underline{v}_n]$$

$$\text{and } PD = [\underline{v}_1 \dots \underline{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = [\lambda_1 \underline{v}_1 \ \lambda_2 \underline{v}_2 \ \dots \ \lambda_n \underline{v}_n].$$

So, for $AP = PD$ we need $A\underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n$ are eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$.

So, A is **diagonalizable** \Leftrightarrow A has **n lin indep eigenvectors**.

If there are **n distinct** eigenvalues \Rightarrow **n lin indep** eigenvectors.
 \uparrow

Monday: eigenvectors from different eigenspaces are lin indep.

\Rightarrow A is **diagonalizable**.

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $\lambda_1 = 1$ $\lambda_2 = 2$ $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \quad \ddot{\smile}$

So, A is **diagonalizable**. and $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ What is P?

eigenspace of $\lambda_1 = 1$: $[A - 1 \cdot I \mid 0] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \mid 0 \\ 0 & 1 \mid 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \mid 0 \\ 0 & 0 \mid 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

So, take for example $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

eigenspace of $\lambda_2 = 2$: $[A - 2I : 0] = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & : & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & : & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & : & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & : & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

So, take for example $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Then, $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Check: $A = P P P^{-1}$. $AP = PD$.

$$AP = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$PD = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$

* What if the eigenvalues of A are not all distinct?
(some have mult. > 1)
 $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2, \lambda_3 = 2$
 $(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 2)^2 = 0$

Is A diagonalizable? It depends....

of lin indep eigenvectors corresponding to λ = dim of the eigenspace of λ = $\dim(\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)) \leq \text{mult. of } \lambda$.

if strictly $<$ for some λ , then A is not diagonalizable.

Theorem: an $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable \Leftrightarrow the sum of the dimensions of the eigenspaces equals n .

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ Is A diagonalizable?

$\lambda = 0$ with mult 2.

$$A - 0I = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad 1 \text{ free var.}$$

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, $\dim(\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)) = 1 < 2 = \text{multiplicity of } \lambda$.
and thus A is not diagonalizable.

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -3 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

* Is -5 an eigenvalue?
* Is A diagonalizable?

$$A - (-5)I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

There are free variables, so -5 is indeed an eigenvalue.
 $\dim(\text{Nul}(A - (-5)I)) = 2$.

So, the multiplicity of $\lambda = -5$ is either (2) or (3).
yes \leftarrow (2) or \rightarrow no. (3)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{trace}(A) &= (-4) + (-3) + (-2) = -9 \\ \text{trace}(A) &= \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = (-5) + (-5) + \lambda_3 = -10 + \lambda_3 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{aligned} -9 &= -10 + \lambda_3 \\ \Rightarrow \lambda_3 &= 1 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

So, A is diagonalizable because the multiplicity of $\lambda = -5$ is 2.


$$D = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

eigenspace of -5 : $\underline{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\underline{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $\underline{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

eigenspace of 1 : $A - 1 \cdot I = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -4 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \sim \dots \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1/3 \\ 0 & 1 & -2/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\underline{x} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{So, } \underline{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then $P = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

DIY: Verify that $AP = PD$. 

Applications of diagonalization:

- * Markov Processes.
- * Dynamical Systems.
- * Difference Equations.

Summary. Is A diag?

Does A have n distinct eigenvalues?

yes



yes, $A = P P P^{-1}$

No.

Is the sum of the dimensions of the eigenspaces equal to n ?

yes



yes, $A = P P P^{-1}$

No

..
No, A is not diag.

$$\mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^2$$

$$T(\underline{x}) = A\underline{x}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = \cos \varphi + i \cdot \sin \varphi$$

$$\lambda_2 = \cos \varphi - i \cdot \sin \varphi$$

$$\underline{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

DIY.

$$V = \mathbb{R}^+$$

* addition of vectors u and v : $u+v$.

* multiplication of a vector u by a scalar c : u^c .

What is the zero vector in this context? (1)

Verify the 10 axioms. ✓