

Diagonalizability

Observation: Let $T: \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^2$.

$$T((z_1, z_2)) = (z_1 - z_2, z_1 + z_2).$$

basis, $\beta = \{e_1, e_2\} \Rightarrow [T]_{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

e-values of T are e-values of $[T]_{\beta}$, hence

the e-values are $1+i, 1-i$

Consider another basis, $\beta' = \{(1, -i), (1, i)\}$

$$[T]_{\beta'} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 0 \\ 0 & 1-i \end{bmatrix}$$

clearly e-values of T are $1+i, 1-i$

Thus, try to choose a basis β of V such that

$[T]_{\beta}$ is as simple as possible.

Diagonalizable Operator: Let $T: V \rightarrow V$ linear.

Then T is called diagonalizable if \exists a basis β of V with respect to which $[T]_\beta$ is diagonal.

Diagonalizable Matrix: $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ is diagonalizable

if \exists an invertible matrix $P \in M_{n \times n}$ such

that $P^{-1}AP$ is diagonal, i.e.

" A is similar to a diagonal matrix".

Example: (Not every matrix is diagonalizable)

(i) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$

No real e-values.

(ii) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{C})$

Example: (Not every operator is diagonalizable).

$$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$T([n, y]) = [y, -n]$$

Result: (Diagonalizability Criterion)

A operator $T: V \rightarrow V$ is diagonalizable if and only if $\dim(V)$ is equal to sum of the dimensions of the eigen spaces.

That means,

$$\dim(V) = \sum_{i=1}^m \dim(\ker(\lambda_i I - T)), \text{ where}$$

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m$ are distinct e-values of T .

Proof:

$$\text{Let } n = \dim(V)$$

(\Rightarrow) first suppose that T is diagonalizable.

$\Rightarrow \exists$ a basis β of V such that

$$[T]_{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & \lambda_1 & \\ & & \lambda_2 & \\ & & & \ddots & \lambda_2 \\ & & & & \ddots & \ddots & \lambda_m \\ & & & & & \ddots & \lambda_m \\ 0 & & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

λ_i is repeated r_i -times.

diagonal matrix

$$\Rightarrow n = r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \dim(V) = \sum_{i=1}^m \dim(\ker(\lambda_i I - [T]_B))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \dim \left(\ker (\lambda_i I - T) \right)$$

(\Leftarrow) Conversely, let

$$\dim(N) = \dim(\ker(\lambda_1 I - T)) + \dots + \dim(\ker(\lambda_m I - T))$$

$\gamma_1^{\parallel} \quad \dots \quad \gamma_m^{\parallel}$

Let β_i basis of $\ker(\lambda_i I - T)$ and

$$\text{Let } \beta = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \beta_i$$

Since e-spaces corresponding to distinct e-values are independent, we have that

β is a basis of $\text{Ker}(\lambda_1 I - T) + \dots + \text{Ker}(\lambda_m I - T)$

Since

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \text{Ker}(\lambda_i I - T) \subseteq V \quad \text{Subspace.}$$

and

$$\dim\left(\sum_{i=1}^m \text{Ker}(\lambda_i I - T)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^m \dim(\text{Ker}(\lambda_i I - T)) \\ = \dim(V)$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Ker}(\lambda_i I - T).$$

$\Rightarrow \beta$ is a basis of V .

Also.

$$[T]_{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & \lambda_1 & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & \lambda_2 & \\ & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & \lambda_2 \\ & & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & & & \lambda_m \\ & & & & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Annotations: λ_1 r₁-times, λ_2 r₂-times, ..., λ_m r_m-times.

$\Rightarrow T$ is diagonalizable.

II.

Example: Determine whether $T: \mathbb{F}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^3$
 defined by $T(n, y, z) = (2n, n+2y, 4n+3z)$
 is diagonalizable?

Solution:

Step-1

find the distinct e-values of T .

they are $\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 3$

Step-2

e-spaces corresponding to distinct e-values.

$$\lambda = 2, \quad \ker(2I - T) = \{(0, s, 0), s \in \mathbb{F}\}$$

$$\lambda = 3, \quad \ker(3I - T) = \{(0, 0, s), s \in \mathbb{F}\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \dim(\mathbb{F}^3) = 3 \neq 2 = \dim(\ker(2I - T)) + \dim(\ker(3I - T))$$

$\Rightarrow T$ is not diagonalizable.

Example: find a basis β such that $[T]_\beta$ is diagonal in case T is diagonalizable.

Also find a matrix P such that

$$[T]_\beta = P^{-1} [T]_s P \text{, where } s \text{ is the standard basis}$$

(i) $T: \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^2$

$$T((n, y)) = (y, -n)$$

Solution: e-values of T are $i, -i$

e-space for $\lambda = i$

$$\begin{aligned} E_i &= \ker(iI - T) \\ &= \{(n, y) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : T(n, y) = i(n, y)\} \\ &\quad \Downarrow \\ &\quad (y, -n) = (in, iy) \\ &\quad \Downarrow \\ y &= in \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \{(n, in) : n \in \mathbb{C}\} \\ &= \text{span}\{(1, i)\} \end{aligned}$$

e-space for $\lambda = -2$

$$E_2 = \text{Ker}(-iI - T)$$

$$= \{(n, y) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : T(n, y) = -i(n, y)\}$$

$$(n, y) \xrightarrow{\Downarrow} (-in, -iy)$$

$$y = -in$$

$$= \{(n, -in) : n \in \mathbb{C}\}$$

$$= \text{span}\{(1, -i)\}.$$

Clearly, $\dim(\mathbb{C}^2) = \dim(E_1) + \dim(E_2)$

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$\Rightarrow T$ is diagonalizable.

Consider $\beta = \{(1, i), (1, -i)\}$ basis of \mathbb{C}^2 .

Then $[T]_{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}$.

Again consider $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{bmatrix}$, i.e. P is obtained by writing β in terms of γ .

$$\text{Then } \tilde{P}^{-1} [T]_{\gamma} P = \tilde{P}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} P \\ = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix} = [T]_{\beta} .$$

Remark: (On matrix diagonalizability).

$$A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$$

A is diagonalizable if and only if

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^m \dim (\ker(\lambda_i I - A))$$

where
 $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$ are distinct e-values.

On finding P such that $\tilde{P}^{-1}AP$ is diagonal.

find basis of $\ker(\lambda_i I - A)$ for each i .

Construct P whose columns are the basis vectors.
 Then $\tilde{P}^{-1}AP$ is diagonal.

Cayley-Hamilton Theorem:

Suppose $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ and $p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A)$ is the characteristic poly. of A . Then the matrix $p(A)$ is identically zero.

That means,

"Every matrix satisfies its char. poly."

Application of Cayley-Hamilton th:

Observe that $p(0) = \det(-A) = (-1)^n \cdot \det(A)$.

Since A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$
 $\Leftrightarrow p(0) \neq 0$.

Thus if $p(0) \neq 0$, or constant term in $p(\lambda)$ is nonzero, then A is invertible.

finding invert: Let A be invertible.

If $p(\lambda) = \lambda^n + q_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + q_1\lambda + q_0$,
then by Cayley-Hamilton th

$$p(A) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A^n + q_{n-1}A^{n-1} + \dots + q_1A + q_0I = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow q_0I = -q_1A - q_2A^2 - \dots - q_{n-1}A^{n-1} - A^n$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{1}{q_0}(-q_1A - q_2A^2 - \dots - q_{n-1}A^{n-1} - A^n)$$

$$= \frac{1}{q_0}[-q_1I - q_2A - \dots - q_{n-1}A^{n-2} - A^{n-1}]A$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{A}^{-1} = \frac{-1}{q_0}(q_1I + q_2A + \dots + q_{n-1}A^{n-2} + A^{n-1}).$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} .$$

char. poly. $p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A)$

$$= (\lambda - 1)(\lambda^2 - \lambda + 1)$$

$$= \lambda^3 - 2\lambda^2 + 1$$

Since $p(0) = 1 \neq 0$
 $\Rightarrow A$ is invertible.

By Cayley-Hamilton thm $p(A) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow A^3 - 2A^2 + I = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I = A(-A^2 + 2A)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow A^{-1} &= -A^2 + 2A \\ &= -\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

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