

Diagonalization

We are now in a position to address the question: If $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear transformation, when is there an ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n , \mathcal{V} say, such that the matrix which represents T with respect to \mathcal{V} is diagonal?

Since this question is one of the focal points in MA 371 - where, more appropriately, the scalars are complex numbers rather than real numbers - here, we will only open the door to the study of this question.

To get things started, let's suppose that $\mathcal{V} = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is an ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n and the matrix which represents T with respect to \mathcal{V} is a diagonal matrix. I.e.

$$T([x_1, \dots, x_n]_{\mathcal{V}}) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & 0 \\ & d_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & d_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \right)_{\mathcal{V}}.$$

Note then that, if $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,

$$T(\vec{v}_j) = T\left(\underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ j\text{-th coordinate}}}{[0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0]_{\mathcal{V}}}\right)$$

$$= \left(\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & 0 \\ & d_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & d_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)_q^z \leftarrow j\text{-th row}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ d_j \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_q^z \leftarrow j\text{-th row}$$

$$= [0, \dots, 0, d_j, 0, \dots, 0]_q$$

↑
j-th coordinate

$$= d_j [0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0]_q$$

↑
j-th coordinate

$$= d_j \vec{V}_j$$

We conclude that $T(\vec{V}_j) = d_j \vec{V}_j$, for

$j = 1, \dots, n$. Therefore, if $\mathcal{V} = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is an ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n such that the matrix representing T with respect to \mathcal{V} is diagonal, there must exist $d_1, \dots, d_n \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $T(\vec{v}_j) = d_j \vec{v}_j$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$.

On the other hand, our method for constructing matrices which represent T immediately implies the following:

Suppose $\mathcal{V} = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is an ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n and there exist $d_1, \dots, d_n \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $T(\vec{v}_j) = d_j \vec{v}_j$, for $j = 1, \dots, n$.

Then

$$T([x_1, \dots, x_n]_{\mathcal{Q}}) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & 0 \\ & d_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & d_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \right)_{\mathcal{Q}}.$$

These observations establish the following Theorem.

Theorem #17: Let $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a linear transformation. Then T can be represented by a diagonal matrix with respect to some ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n if and only if there exists some ordered basis, $\mathcal{V} = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ say, for \mathbb{R}^n and real numbers, d_1, \dots, d_n , such that

$$T(\vec{v}_j) = d_j \vec{v}_j, \text{ for } j=1, \dots, n.$$

Theorem #17 provides us with a path to follow - in order to understand the diagonalization question. We should focus our attention towards finding real numbers, λ , and nonzero vectors $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $T(\vec{v}) = \lambda \vec{v}$. The terminology used here is: If $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a nonzero vector such that $T(\vec{v}) = \lambda \vec{v}$, then λ is called an eigenvalue for T and \vec{v} is called an eigenvector for T associated to the eigenvalue λ .

Using this terminology, Theorem #17 tells us that T can be realized by a diagonal matrix with respect to some ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n if and only if there is an ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n whose elements are eigenvectors for T .

As we shall see, the trick to finding eigenvectors is to initially find eigenvalues. To get things started, suppose $A = [a_{ij}]$ is the $n \times n$ matrix which represents T with respect to $\mathcal{S}_n = \{\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$ - the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^n . Then

$$T([x_1, \dots, x_n]) = \left(A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \right)^t.$$

Suppose now that $\vec{v} = [a_1, \dots, a_n]$
is an eigenvector for T associated to
the eigenvalue λ . Then $T(\vec{v}) = \lambda \vec{v}$
can be written as

$$\left(A \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \right)^t = \lambda [a_1, \dots, a_n]$$

or

$$A \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since $I_n \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$, the last equation

can be written as

$$A \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \lambda I_n \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

or

$$\lambda I_n \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} - A \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

or

$$(\lambda I_n - A) \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

so

$$\left((\lambda I_n - A) \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \right)^t = [0, \dots, 0].$$

It follows that if $S: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is the linear transformation defined by

$$S([x_1, \dots, x_n]) = \left((\lambda I_n - A) \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \right)^t,$$

then $S(\vec{v}) = \vec{0}_n$. Since \vec{v} is an eigenvector,

$\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}_n$ - so $\ker(S) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$.

According to Theorem #13 on page 373,

$\ker(S) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ implies that

$$\det(\lambda I_n - A) = 0.$$

We conclude that if λ is an eigenvalue

for T , then $\det(\lambda I_n - A) = 0$.

On the other hand, suppose $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

and $\det(\lambda I_n - A) = 0$. Then, according

to Theorem #13, $\ker(S) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ where

$$S([x_1, \dots, x_n]) = \left((\lambda I_n - A) \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \right)^T.$$

$\ker(S) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ implies there is a nonzero

vector $\vec{v} = [a_1, \dots, a_n]$ such that $S(\vec{v}) = \vec{0}$.

This, in turn, can be written as

$$\left((\lambda I_n - A) \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \right)^t = [0, \dots, 0].$$

Now, starting with this last equation,
and reversing the steps on pages 399
and 400, we obtain

$$\left(A \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \right)^t = \lambda [a_1, \dots, a_n],$$

or $T(\vec{v}) = \lambda \vec{v}$. Since $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$, we conclude
that λ is an eigenvalue for T . Thus, if
 $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\det(\lambda I_n - A) = 0$, then λ
is an eigenvalue for T .

We have established

Proposition #39: Suppose $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$

is a linear transformation which is

represented by the matrix A with

respect to the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

Then λ is an eigenvalue for T if and

only if $\det(\lambda I_n - A) = 0$.

Proposition #39 leads us to the study
of the characteristic polynomial for T
(or A):

$$p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I_n - A).$$

According to Proposition #39, the

zeros of $p(\lambda)$ are precisely the

eigenvalues for T .

Ex 1: We are finally in a position to see how I came up with the vectors in

Example 2 on page 308. Recall, we were given the linear transformation $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by

$$T([x, y]) = [x+y, x-y].$$

$$\text{Since } T(\vec{e}_1) = T([1, 0]) = [1, 1]$$

$$\text{and } T(\vec{e}_2) = T([0, 1]) = [1, -1],$$

the matrix which represents T with respect to \mathcal{S}_2 is

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

So the characteristic polynomial for T is

$$p(\lambda) = \det \left(\lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} \lambda-1 & -1 \\ -1 & \lambda+1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

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

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

$$= \lambda^2 - 2.$$

The zeros of $p(\lambda)$ are $\lambda = \pm\sqrt{2}$.

So $\pm\sqrt{2}$ are the eigenvalues for T . To find the eigenvectors associated to the eigenvalue λ - we solve the equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

When $\lambda = \sqrt{2}$, this equation becomes the system

$$x_1 + x_2 = \sqrt{2} x_1$$

$$x_1 - x_2 = \sqrt{2} x_2$$

Since any nonzero scalar multiple of an eigenvector will be an eigenvector —

we set $x_2 = 1$ in the second equation

— yielding $x_1 = \sqrt{2} + 1$. You can check that

$[\sqrt{2} + 1, 1]$ is also a solution to the first

equation. Thus $\vec{v}_1 = [\sqrt{2} + 1, 1]$ is an

eigenvector for T associated to the eigenvalue

$\sqrt{2}$.

When $\lambda = -\sqrt{2}$, we obtain the system

$$x_1 + x_2 = -\sqrt{2} x_1$$

$$x_1 - x_2 = -\sqrt{2} x_2.$$

Letting $x_2 = 1$ once again, equation two

implies $x_1 = 1 - \sqrt{2}$. Again, you can check

that $[1 - \sqrt{2}, 1]$ is a solution to the

first equation - thus $\vec{v}_2 = [1 - \sqrt{2}, 1]$

is an eigenvector for T associated to

the eigenvalue $-\sqrt{2}$.

HW #49: Define $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ via

$$T([x, y]) = [y, x].$$
 T is the linear

transformation studied in HW #41

on page 334. Use the methods of this section to obtain the ordered basis \mathcal{V} occurring in part (iii) of HW #41.

Ex 2: Define $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ via

$$T([x, y]) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right)^t.$$

The characteristic polynomial of T is

$$\begin{aligned} p(\lambda) &= \det \left(\lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} \lambda-1 & -1 \\ 0 & \lambda-1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = (\lambda-1)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the only eigenvalue for T is $\lambda=1$.

To construct the eigenvectors associated

to $\lambda=1$, we must solve the system

$$\begin{aligned}x+y &= x \\ y &= y\end{aligned}.$$

The first equation of this system implies

$y=0$ — so, up to nonzero multiple, the only

eigenvector associated to $\lambda=1$ is $\vec{v} = [1, 0]$.

As such, the T in this example cannot be

represented by a diagonal matrix with respect

to some ordered basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Ex 3: Consider the linear transformation

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

$$T([x, y]) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right)^t.$$

Observe that if $[x, y]$ is a unit vector, then $[x, y] = [\cos t, \sin t]$ for some $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ and

$$T([\cos t, \sin t]) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos t \\ \sin t \end{bmatrix} \right)^t$$

$$= [\cos t \cos \theta - \sin t \sin \theta, \cos t \sin \theta + \sin t \cos \theta]$$

$$= [\cos(t+\theta), \sin(t+\theta)].$$

This tells us that T is a rotation of \mathbb{R}^2 through θ radians.

The characteristic polynomial for T is

$$p(\lambda) = \det \left(\lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} \lambda - \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \lambda - \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= (\lambda - \cos \theta)^2 + \sin^2 \theta$$

$$= \lambda^2 - 2\lambda \cos \theta + \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta$$

$$= \lambda^2 - 2\cos \theta \lambda + 1$$

Using the quadratic formula, the zeros for $p(\lambda)$ are

$$\lambda = \frac{2\cos \theta \pm \sqrt{4\cos^2 \theta - 4}}{2}$$

Note that $4\cos^2 \theta - 4 < 0$ unless $\cos^2 \theta = 1$.

So T has no real eigenvalues unless θ

is an integer multiple of π . Since $\sin \theta = 0$

if θ is an integer multiple of π , T can

be represented by a diagonal matrix, with respect to some ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n , if and only if $\theta = k\pi$ where k is an integer.

Proposition #40: Suppose $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$

is a linear transformation and $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ are distinct eigenvalues for T with associated eigenvectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k$, respectively. Then $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ is a linearly independent set of vectors.

Proof: Suppose, to the contrary, that $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ is linearly dependent. Since each \vec{v}_i is an eigenvector, $\vec{v}_i \neq \vec{0}$ for $i=1, \dots, k$. It follows that

$\text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ — so some subset of $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ is a basis for $\text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\})$.

After possibly reindexing $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$, we may assume $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_\ell\}$ is a basis for $\text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\})$, where $1 \leq \ell < k$. Thus,

$\vec{v}_k \in \text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_\ell\})$ and therefore

$$\vec{v}_k = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell$$

for some $c_1, \dots, c_\ell \in \mathbb{R}$.

Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_k \vec{v}_k &= T(\vec{v}_k) = T(c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell) \\ &= \lambda_k c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } \lambda_k \vec{v}_k &= \lambda_k (c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell) \\ &= \lambda_k c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\lambda_k c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell = \lambda_1 c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_\ell c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell$$

or

$$(\lambda_k - \lambda_1) c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + (\lambda_k - \lambda_\ell) c_\ell \vec{v}_\ell = \vec{0}.$$

Now, since $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_\ell\}$ is a basis

for $\text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_\ell\})$, $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_\ell\}$

must be linearly independent - so

$$(\lambda_k - \lambda_1) c_1 = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(\lambda_k - \lambda_\ell) c_\ell = 0.$$

Since the λ_i 's are distinct, $\lambda_k - \lambda_i \neq 0$

for $i = 1, \dots, \ell$, so $c_1 = \dots = c_\ell = 0$. But

this implies $\vec{v}_k = \vec{0}$ - which is a contradiction.

Since this contradiction results from our

assuming that $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ is linearly dependent, we conclude that $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ must be linearly independent.

Proposition #40 immediately implies the following

Theorem #18: Suppose the linear transformation

$T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ has n distinct eigenvalues.

Then T can be represented by a diagonal matrix, with respect to some ordered basis for \mathbb{R}^n .