Diagonalization

Geometric Algorithms
Lecture 20

Objectives

- 1. Finish our discussion on the characteristic polynomial
- 2. Motivate diagonalization via linear dynamical systems and changes of coordinate systems
- 3. Describe how to diagonalize a matrix

Keywords

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multiplicity
similar matrices
diagonalizable matrices
change of basis
eigenbasis
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Recap: Characteristic Polynomial

det(A) is an value associate with the matrix A

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So by the Invertible Matrix Theorem:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \qquad \equiv \qquad (A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \text{ has nontrivial solutions}$$

$$\equiv \qquad \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } A$$

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So by the Invertible Matrix Theorem:

```
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polynomial in \lambda
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Solution. Find the roots of the characteristic polynomial of A, which is

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We'll also use

numpy.linalg.eig(A)

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 7 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Triangular matrix

```
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}
```

The characteristic polynomial of a triangular matrix comes pre-factored:

$$\lambda^{1}(\lambda-1)^{2}(\lambda-4)^{1}$$
 multiplicities

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Is the multiplicity meaningful in this context?

Multiplicity and Dimension

Theorem. The dimension of the eigenspace of A for the eigenvalue λ is <u>at most</u> the multiplicity of λ in $\det(A - \lambda I)$ (and <u>at least</u> 1)

The multiplicity is an upper bound on "how large" the eigenspace is

Example

Let A be a 5×5 matrix with characteristic polynomial $(x-1)^3(x-3)(x+5)$

- \gg What is rank(A)?
- \gg What is the minimum possible rank of A-I?

Practice Problem

Determine the eigenvalues and an eigenbasis for the above matrix

Answer

$$(\lambda - \alpha)(\lambda - b)$$

$$= \lambda^{2} - (\alpha + b)\lambda + \alpha b$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 - \lambda \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

A·21 =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 - \lambda \\ 4 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$
 det $(A - \lambda I) = (5 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) - 4$
= $\lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 6 = (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 6)$

$$A-I=[4]^{2}$$
 $[4]^{2}$ $[4]^{2}$ $[4]^{2}$ $[4]^{2}$ $[4]^{2}$ $[4]^{2}$ $[4]^{2}$ $[4]^{2}$

$$= X_{2} \begin{bmatrix} -/4 \\ \hline \\ \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} -/4 \\ \hline \\ \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -/4 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Motivating Diagonalization via Linear Dynamical Systems

(briefly)

Definition. An eigenbasis of H for the matrix A is a basis of H made up of eigenvectors of A

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<u>The Question.</u> When can we describe any vector in \mathbb{R}^n as a unique linear combination of eigenvectors of A?

Recall: Linear Dynamical Systems

$$\mathbf{v}_{1} = A\mathbf{v}_{0}$$
 $\mathbf{v}_{2} = A\mathbf{v}_{1} = A^{2}\mathbf{v}_{0}$
 $\mathbf{v}_{3} = A\mathbf{v}_{2} = A^{3}\mathbf{v}_{0}$
 $\mathbf{v}_{4} = A\mathbf{v}_{3} = A^{4}\mathbf{v}_{0}$
 \vdots

A linear dynamical system describes a sequence of state vectors starting at \mathbf{v}_0

Recall: Linear Dynamical Systems

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_1 &= A \mathbf{v}_0 \\ \mathbf{v}_2 &= A \mathbf{v}_1 = A^2 \mathbf{v}_0 \\ \mathbf{v}_3 &= A \mathbf{v}_2 = A^3 \mathbf{v}_0 \\ \mathbf{v}_4 &= A \mathbf{v}_3 = A^4 \mathbf{v}_0 \\ &\vdots \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{array}{l} \text{multiplying by} \\ A \text{ changes the state.} \\ \mathbf{v}_4 &= A \mathbf{v}_3 = A^4 \mathbf{v}_0 \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

A linear dynamical system describes a sequence of state vectors starting at \mathbf{v}_0

demo

Given
$$\mathbf{v}_k = A\mathbf{v}_{k-1} = A^k\mathbf{v}_0$$
, if
$$\mathbf{v}_0 = \alpha_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \alpha_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \alpha_3\mathbf{b}_3$$

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then

$$A^k \mathbf{v}_0 = \alpha_1 \lambda_1^k \mathbf{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2^k \mathbf{b}_2 + \alpha_3 \lambda_3^k \mathbf{b}_3$$

Eigenbases and Closed-Form solutions

Given
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, if
$$\mathbf{v}_0 = \alpha_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \alpha_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \alpha_3\mathbf{b}_3$$

then

eigenvalues of
$$A$$

$$A^k \mathbf{v}_0 = \alpha_1 \lambda_1^k \mathbf{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2^k \mathbf{b}_2 + \alpha_3 \lambda_3^k \mathbf{b}_3$$

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eigenvalues of
$$A$$

$$A^{k}\mathbf{v}_{0} = \alpha_{1}\lambda_{1}^{k}\mathbf{b}_{1} + \alpha_{2}\lambda_{2}^{k}\mathbf{b}_{2} + \alpha_{3}\lambda_{3}^{k}\mathbf{b}_{3}$$
closed-form solution

Verify:

Application: Eigenbases and Limiting Behavior

Theorem. If A has an eigenbasis with eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \ldots \geq \lambda_k$$

then $\mathbf{v}_k \sim \lambda_1^k \mathbf{u}$ for some vector \mathbf{u} .

In the long term, the system grows <u>exponentially in λ_1 </u>.

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Sometimes, A behaves simply on \mathcal{B} , as in the case of <u>eigenbases</u>.

What we're really doing is <u>changing our</u> <u>coordinate system</u> to expose a behavior of A.

Recap: Change of Basis

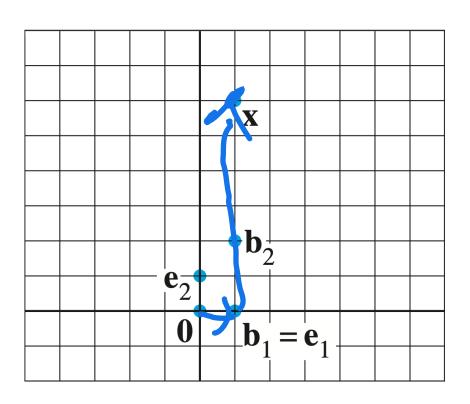


FIGURE 1 Standard graph paper.

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{b}_{2}}$$

$$\mathbf{b}_{2}$$

$$\mathbf{b}_{1}$$

FIGURE 2
$$\mathcal{B}$$
-graph paper.

$$[x]_{B}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1} \\ a_{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{1} \\ b_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$COB \text{ matrix}$$

$$\frac{\text{Van-1:}}{\text{X} = \alpha_1 \overline{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \overline{b}_2}$$

$$\frac{\text{Bib2}(\alpha_1) = [\overline{x}]}{[\alpha_2]} = [\overline{x}]$$

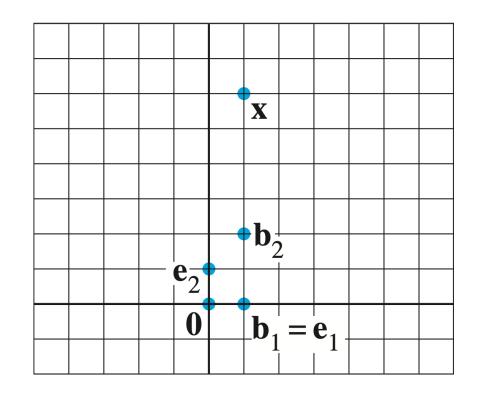


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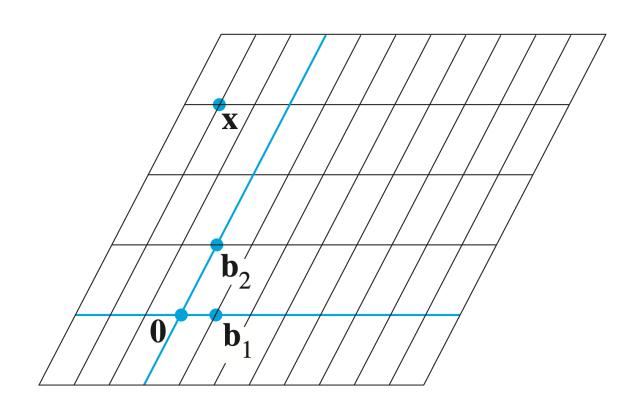


FIGURE 2 \mathcal{B} -graph paper.

Given a basis \mathscr{B} of \mathbb{R}^n , there is **exactly one way** to write every vector as a linear combination of vectors in \mathscr{B}

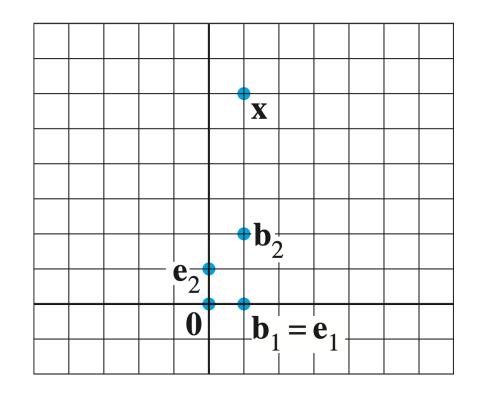


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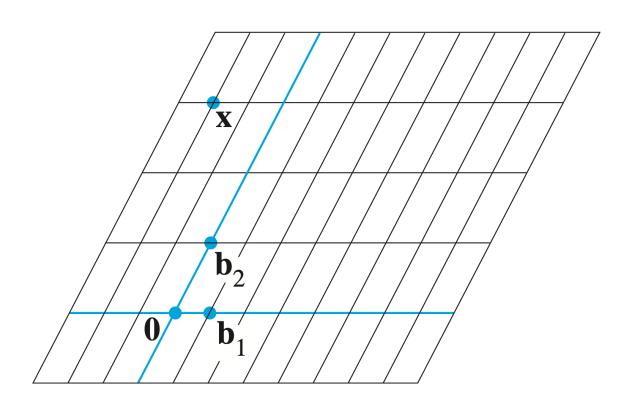


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Every basis provides a way to write down *coordinates* of a vector

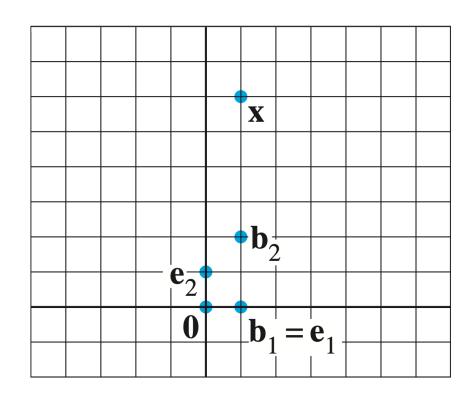


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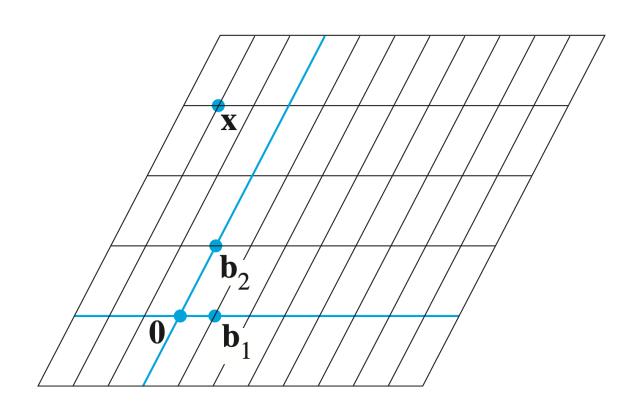


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Given a basis \mathscr{B} of \mathbb{R}^n , there is **exactly one way** to write every vector as a linear combination of vectors in \mathscr{B}

Every basis provides a way to write down *coordinates* of a vector

makes a "different grid for our graph paper"

Let \mathbf{v} be a vector in a \mathbb{R}^n and let $\mathscr{B} = (\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, ..., \mathbf{b}_n)$ be a basis of \mathbb{R}^n where

$$\mathbf{v} = a_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + a_2 \mathbf{b}_2 + \dots + a_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

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Definition. The coordinate vector of v relative to \mathscr{B} is

$$[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathscr{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

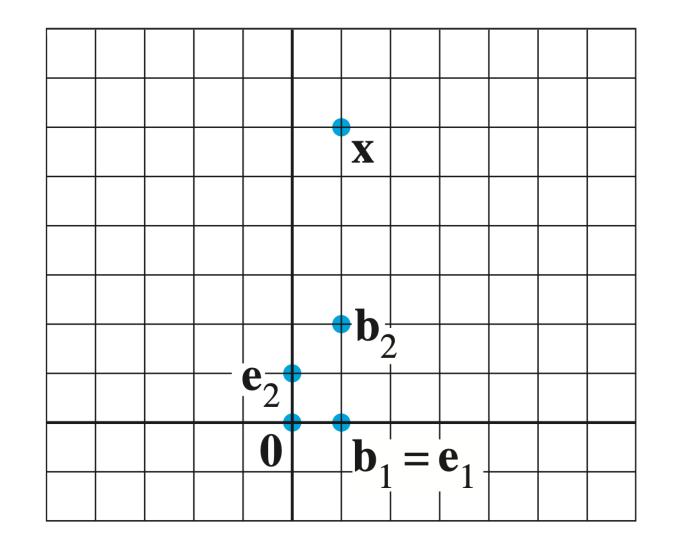


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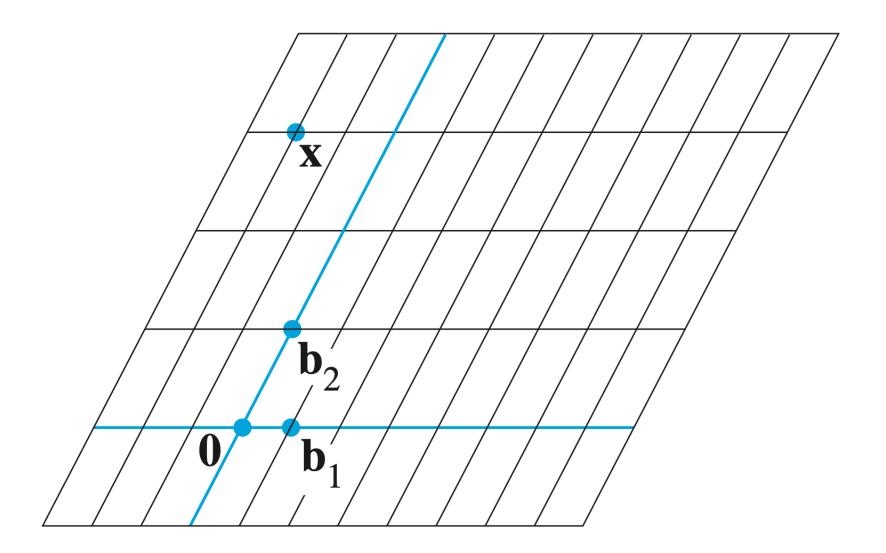


FIGURE 2 \mathcal{B} -graph paper.

Question (Conceptual)

We know that if a $n \times n$ matrix $B = [\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ ... \ \mathbf{b}_n]$ is invertible, then the columns of B form a basis \mathscr{B} of \mathbb{R}^n

What is the matrix that implements the transformation

$$\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathscr{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{b}_2 + ... + c_n \mathbf{b}_n$?

Change of Basis Matrix

Theorem. If $\mathscr{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, ..., \mathbf{b}_n\}$ form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n , then

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathscr{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{b}_n]^{-1} \mathbf{x}$$

Matrix inverses perform changes of bases.

How To: Change of Basis

Question. Given a basis $\mathscr{B} = (\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, ..., \mathbf{b}_n)$ of \mathbb{R}^n , find the matrix which implements $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathscr{B}}$.

Solution. Construct the matrix $[\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{b}_n]^{-1}$.

Example

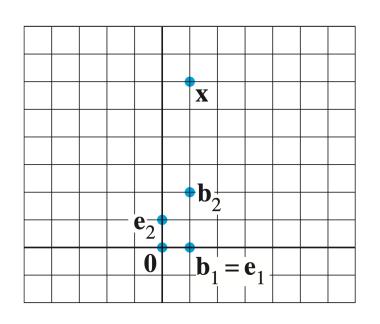


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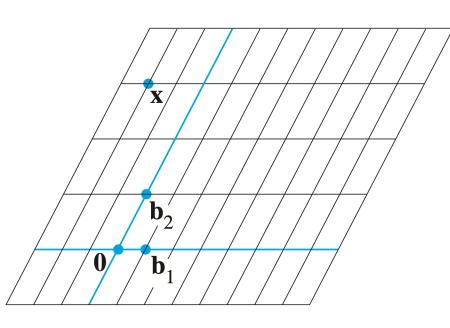


FIGURE 2 \mathcal{B} -graph paper.

Write the change-of-bases matrix for the basis
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonalization

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 22 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 22 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition. A $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonal if

$$i \neq j$$
 and suity if $A_{ij} = 0$

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Only the diagonal entries can be nonzero

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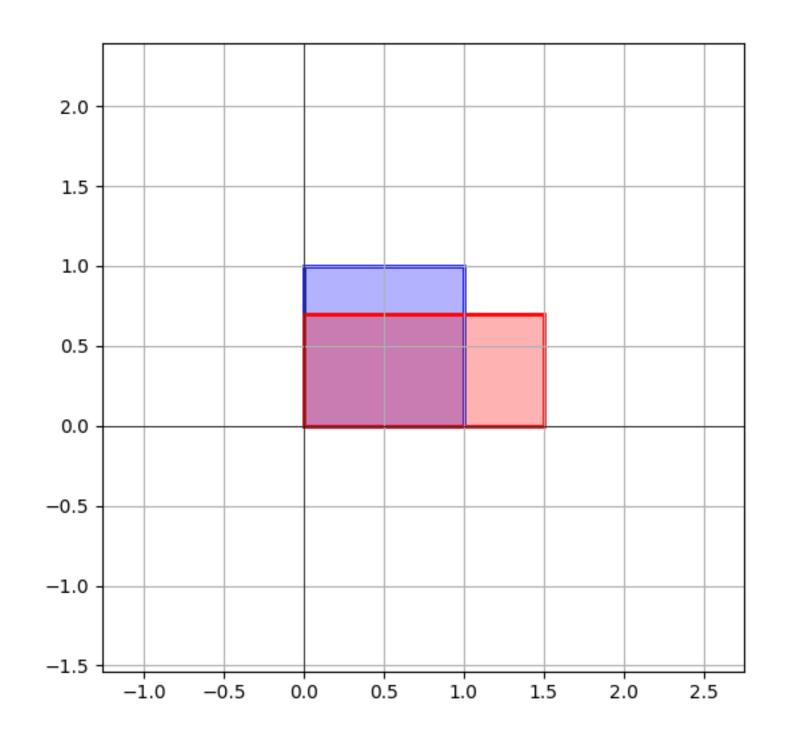
Diagonal matrices are scaling matrices

Recall: Unequal Scaling

The scaling matrix affects each component of a vector in a simple way

The diagonal entries <u>scale</u> each corresponding entry

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5x \\ 0.7y \end{bmatrix}$$



High level question: Macque When do matrices "behave" like scaling matrices "up to" change of basis?

The idea. Matrices behave like scaling matrices on eigenvectors.

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} (x\mathbf{e}_1 + y\mathbf{e}_2) = x2\mathbf{e}_1 + y(-3)\mathbf{e}_2$$
$$A \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}_{\varnothing} = A(x\mathbf{b}_1 + y\mathbf{b}_2) = x\lambda_1\mathbf{b}_1 + y\lambda_2\mathbf{b}_2$$

The idea. Matrices behave like scaling matrices on eigenvectors.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} (x\mathbf{e}_1 + y\mathbf{e}_2) = x2\mathbf{e}_1 + y(-3)\mathbf{e}_2$$
$$A \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}_{\varnothing} = A(x\mathbf{b}_1 + y\mathbf{b}_2) = x\lambda_1\mathbf{b}_1 + y\lambda_2\mathbf{b}_2$$

The fundamental question: Can we expose this behavior in terms of a matrix factorization?

Recall: Matrix Factorization

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A factorization of a matrix A is an equation which expresses A as a product of one or more matrices, e.g.,

$$A = PBP^{-1}$$

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Factorizations can:

- » make working with A easier
- \gg expose important information about A

Similar Matrices

$$A = PBP^{-1}$$

Definition. A matrix A is **similar** to a matrix B if there is some invertible matrix P such that $A = PBP^{-1}$

A and B are the same up to a change of basis

Similar Matrices and Eigenvalues

Theorem. Similar matrices have the <u>same eigenvalues</u>.

Verify:
$$A = PBP^{-1}$$

$$A\overrightarrow{v} = PBP^{-1}\overrightarrow{v} = \lambda \overrightarrow{v}$$

$$= B(P'\overrightarrow{v}) = P'(\lambda \overrightarrow{v}) = \lambda (P'\overrightarrow{v})$$

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There is an invertible matrix P and <u>diagonal</u> matrix D such that $A = PDP^{-1}$

Diagonalizable matrices are the same as scaling matrices up to a change of basis

Important: Not all Matrices are Diagonalizable

This is very different from the LU factorization

We will need to figure out which matrices are diagonalizable

Question. Is the zero matrix diagonalizable?

$$O = (Id)O(Id)$$

Application: Matrix Powers

only take the power of B Theorem. If $A=PBP^{-1}$, then $A^k=PB^kP^{-1}$

It may be easier to take the power of B (as in the case of diagonal matrices)

Verify:
$$A^2 = (PBP^{-1})(PBP^{-1}) = PB^2P^{-1}$$

How To: Matrix Powers

Question. Given A is diagonalizable, determine A^k **Solution.** Find it's diagonalization PDP^{-1} and then compute PD^kP^{-1}

Remember that

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix}^k = \begin{bmatrix} a^k & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b^k & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c^k \end{bmatrix}$$

But how do we find the diagonalization..

Diagonalization and Eigenvectors

Suppose we have a diagonalization $A = PDP^{-1}$

What do we know about it?

$$A = [\mathbf{p}_1 \ \mathbf{p}_2 \ \mathbf{p}_3] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{p}_1 \ \mathbf{p}_2 \ \mathbf{p}_3]^{-1}$$

$$A = [\mathbf{p}_1 \ \mathbf{p}_2 \ \mathbf{p}_3] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{p}_1 \ \mathbf{p}_2 \ \mathbf{p}_3]^{-1}$$

In fact, the columns of P form an ${f eigenbasis}$ of \mathbb{R}^n for A

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In fact, the columns of P form an $\mathbf{eigenbasis}$ of \mathbb{R}^n for A

And the entries of ${\it D}$ are the **eigenvalues** associated to each eigenvector

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_1 & \mathbf{p}_2 & \mathbf{p}_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_1 & \mathbf{p}_2 & \mathbf{p}_3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

In fact, the columns of P form an $\mathbf{eigenbasis}$ of \mathbb{R}^n for A

And the entries of ${\it D}$ are the **eigenvalues** associated to each eigenvector

A diagonalization exposes a lot of information about A

Theorem. A matrix is diagonalizable if and only if it has an eigenbasis

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(we just did the hard part, if a matrix is diagonalizable then it has an eigenbasis)

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(we just did the hard part, if a matrix is diagonalizable then it has an eigenbasis)

We can use the same recipe to go in the other direction, given an eigenbasis, we can **build a diagonalization**

Diagonalizing a Matrix

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

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The columns of P form an <u>eigenbasis</u> for A

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The columns of P form an <u>eigenbasis</u> for AThe diagonal of D are the eigenvalues for each column of P

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

The columns of P form an <u>eigenbasis</u> for A

The diagonal of ${\it D}$ are the eigenvalues for each column of ${\it P}$

The matrix P^{-1} is a change of basis to this eigenbasis of $\cal A$

Step 1: Eigenvalues

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find all the eigenvalues of AFind the roots of $\det(A - \lambda I)$ e.g.

 $\det(A - \lambda I) = -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 2)^{2}$ $\det(A - \lambda I) = -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 2)^{2}$

7=1 mult. 1 mult. 2

Step 2: Eigenvectors

e.g.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1$$

Find **bases** of the corresponding eigenspaces $\lambda_2 = -2$

$$\operatorname{Nul}(A - I) = \operatorname{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\operatorname{Nul}(A+2I) = \operatorname{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Step 3: Construct P

If there are n eigenvectors from the previous step they form an **eigenbasis**

Build the matrix with these vectors as the columns

e.g.

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

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1$$

$$\lambda_2 = -2$$

$$\operatorname{Nul}(A - I) = \operatorname{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\operatorname{Nul}(A + 2I) = \operatorname{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Step 5: Construct D

Build the matrix with eigenvalues as diagonal entries

Note the order. It should be the same as the order of columns of P

e.g.

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1$$

$$\lambda_2 = -2$$

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

Step 6: Invert P

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the inverse of
$$P$$
 (we know how $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ to do this)

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

Putting it Together

How to: Diagonalizing a Matrix

Question. Find a diagonalization of $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$, or determine that A is not diagonalizable

Solution.

- 1. Find the eigenvalues of A, and bases for their eigenspaces. If these eigenvectors don't form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n , then A is **not diagonalizable**
- 2. Otherwise, build a matrix P whose columns are the eigenvectors of A
- 3. Then build a diagonal matrix ${\cal D}$ whose entries are the eigenvalues of ${\cal A}$ in the same order
- 4. Invert P
- 5. The diagonalization of A is PDP^{-1}

We know how to do every step, its a matter of putting it all together

Example of Failure: Shearing

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The shearing matrix has a single eigenvalue with an eigenspace of dimension 1

We can't build an eigenbasis of \mathbb{R}^2 for A

In other words, A is not diagonalizable

$$def(A-\lambda I) = (\lambda-1)^{2}$$

$$\lambda = (\lambda - 1)^{2}$$

$$\lambda = (\lambda - 1)^{2}$$

$$A-J=\begin{bmatrix}0&0.5\\0&0\end{bmatrix}\sim\begin{bmatrix}0&1\\0&0\end{bmatrix}\Rightarrow\vec{x}=X,\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}\Rightarrow\text{ho eigen-basis}$$

Important case: Distinct Eigenvalues
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 10 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem. If an $n \times n$ matrix has has n distinct eigenvalues, then it is diagonalizable

This is because eigenvectors with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent

Example

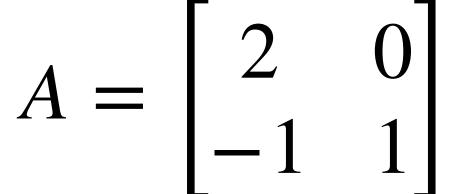
Find a diagonalization of the above matrix

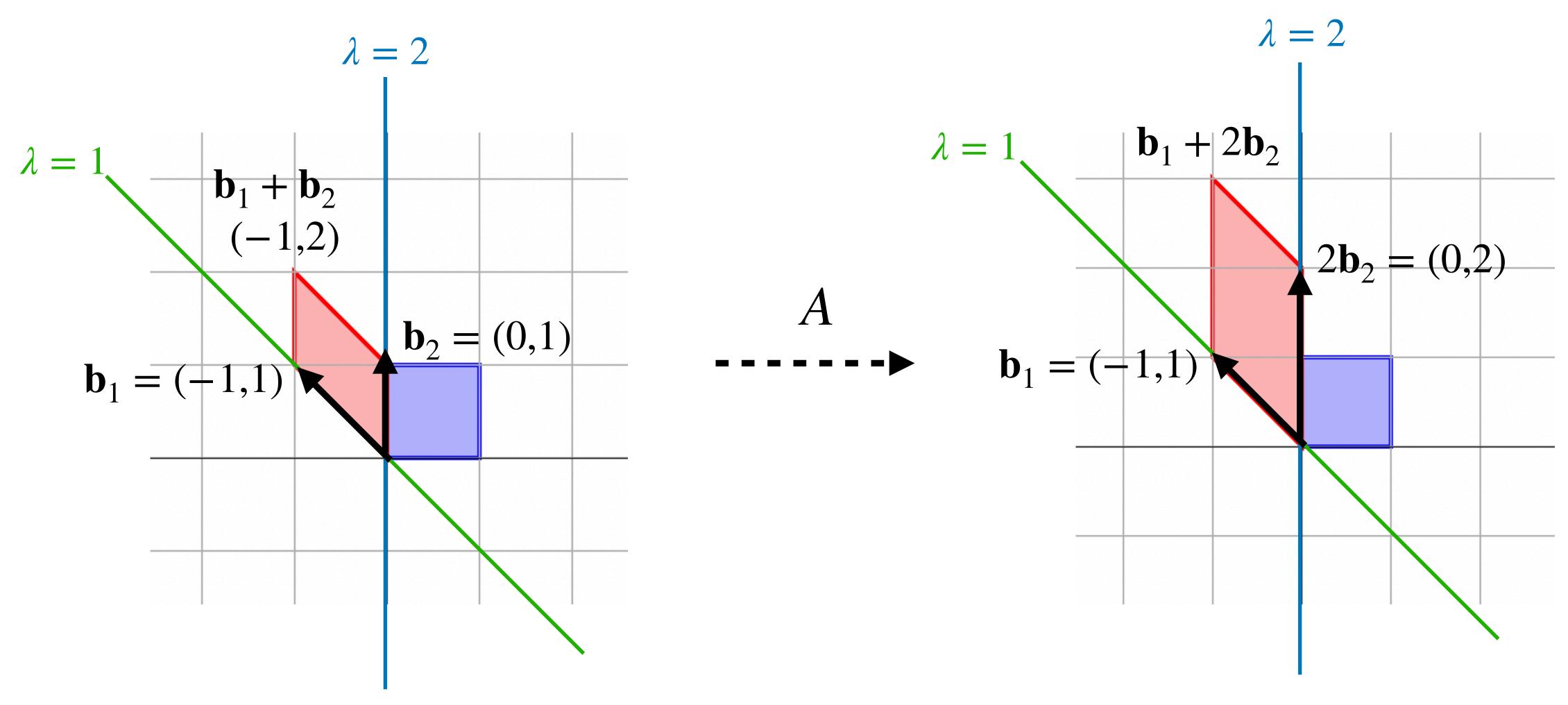
$$A-I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A-2I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

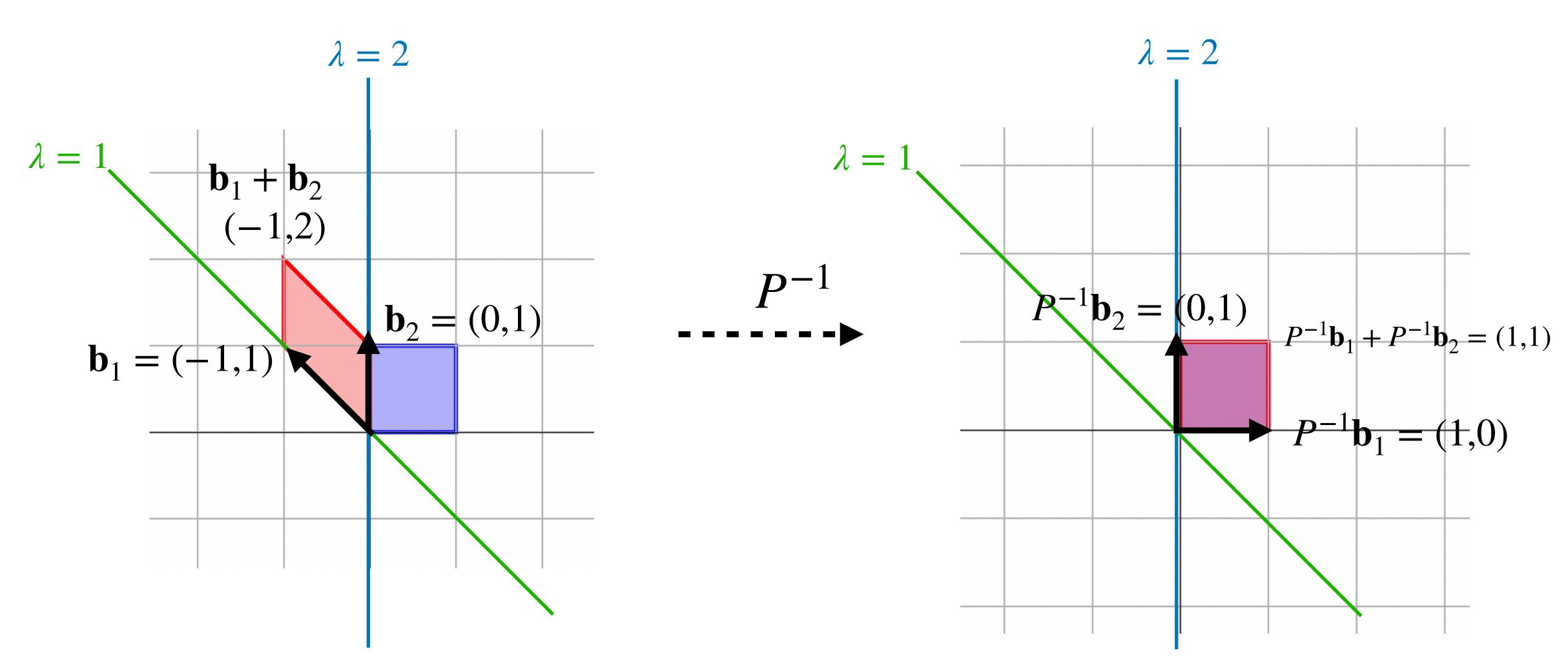
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0$$

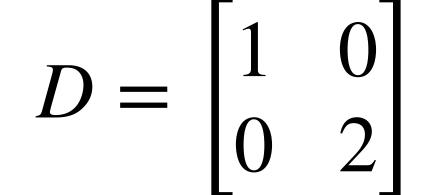
The Picture

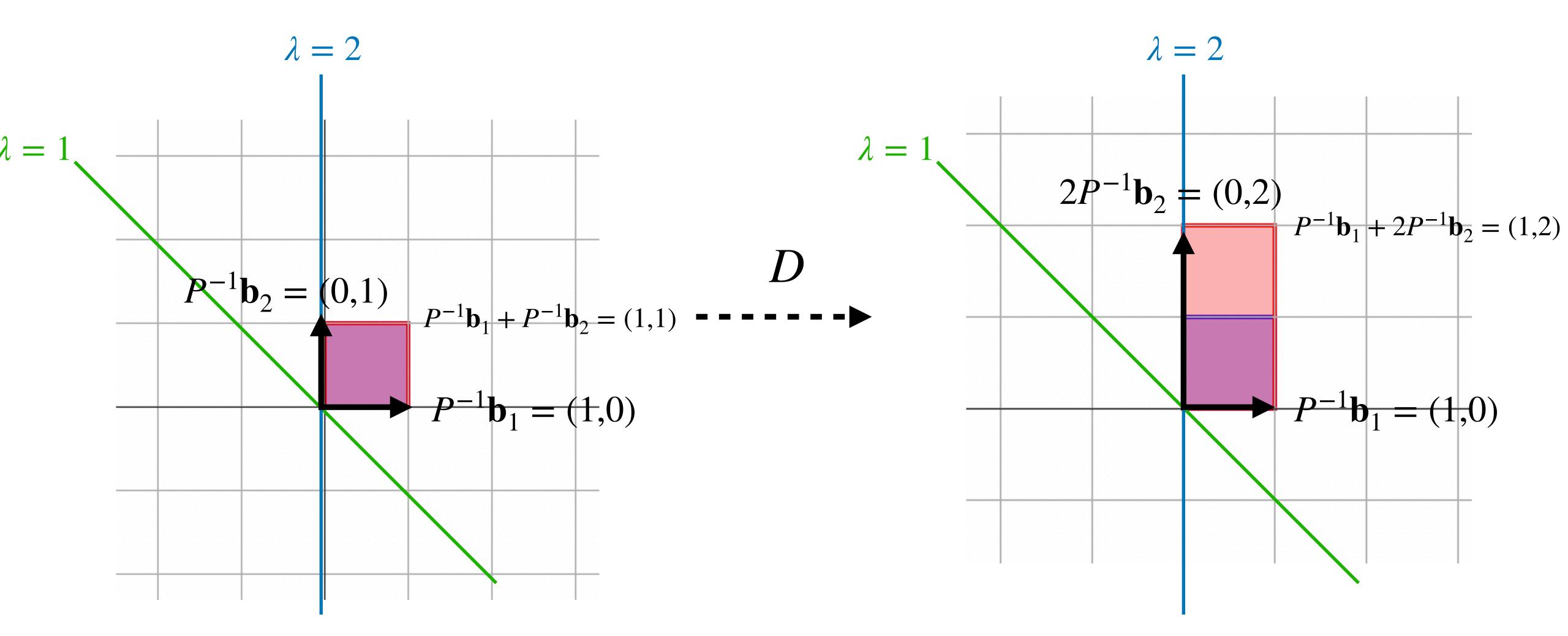


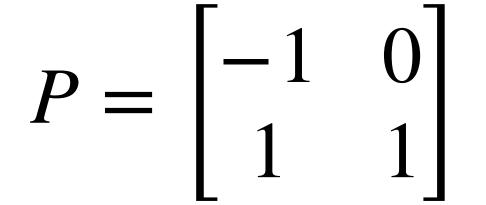


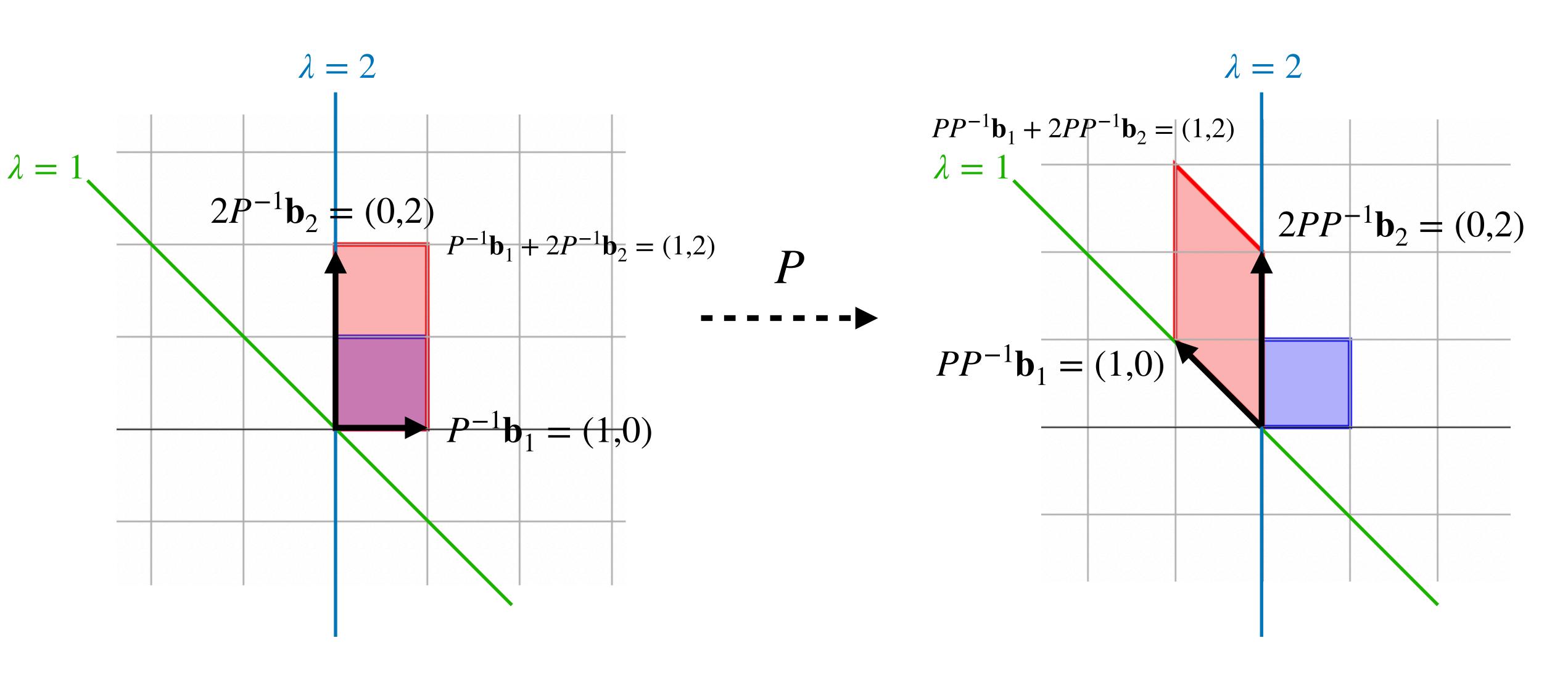
$$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

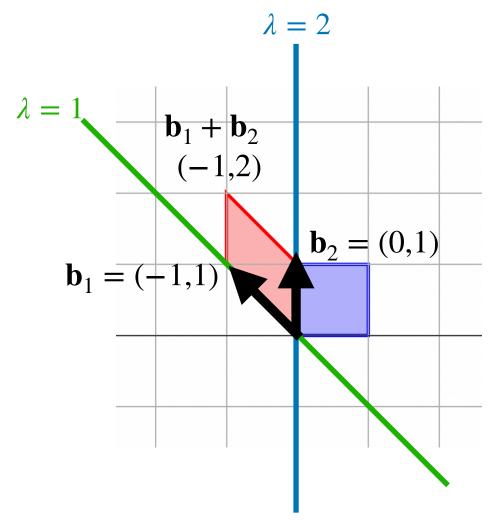












$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

