

Section 5.4

Diagonalization

Motivation
Difference equations

Many real-word linear algebra problems have the form:

$v_1 = Av_0, \quad v_2 = Av_1 = A^2v_0, \quad v_3 = Av_2 = A^3v_0, \quad \dots \quad v_n = Av_{n-1} = A^nv_0.$

This is called a **difference equation**.

Our toy example about rabbit populations had this form.

The question is, what happens to v_n as $n \to \infty$?

- Taking powers of diagonal matrices is easy!
- Taking powers of *diagonalizable* matrices is still easy!
- Diagonalizing a matrix is an eigenvalue problem.

Powers of Diagonal Matrices

If D is diagonal, then D^n is also diagonal; its diagonal entries are the nth powers of the diagonal entries of D:

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \dots \quad D^n = \begin{pmatrix} 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & (-1)^n \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}, \quad D^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{9} \end{pmatrix}, \quad D^3 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{8} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{27} \end{pmatrix},$$
$$\dots \quad D^n = \begin{pmatrix} (-1)^n & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2^n} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3^n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Similar Matrices

Definition
Two $n \times n$ matrices are **similar** if there exists an invertible $n \times n$ matrix C such that $A = CBC^{-1}$.

Fact: if two matrices are similar then so are their powers:

$$A = CBC^{-1} \implies A^n = CB^nC^{-1}.$$

for n=3 and n=6

Powers of Matrices that are Similar to Diagonal Ones

What if A is not diagonal?

Example
Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 3/2 \\ 3/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$. Compute A^n, using

$$A = CDC^{-1} \quad \text{for} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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for n=3 and n=6

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Diagonalizable Matrices

Definition

An $n \times n$ matrix A is **diagonalizable** if it is similar to a diagonal matrix:

$$A = CDC^{-1} \quad \text{for } D \text{ diagonal.}$$

Diagonalization

The Diagonalization Theorem

An $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if A has n linearly independent eigenvectors in $\mathbf{R}^n$.

In this case, $A = CDC^{-1}$ for

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix} \qquad D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix},$$

where $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ are linearly independent eigenvectors, and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_n$ are the corresponding eigenvalues (in the same order).

Diagonalization

Procedure

How to diagonalize a matrix A:

1. Find the eigenvalues of A using the characteristic polynomial.
2. For each eigenvalue λ of A, compute a basis $\mathcal{B}_\lambda$ for the λ-eigenspace.
3. If there are fewer than n total vectors in the union of all of the eigenspace bases $\mathcal{B}_\lambda$, then the matrix is not diagonalizable.
4. Otherwise, the n vectors $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ in your eigenspace bases are linearly independent, and $A = CDC^{-1}$ for

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix},$$

where λ_i is the eigenvalue for v_i.

Important

If $A = CDC^{-1}$ for $D = \begin{pmatrix} d_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_{33} \end{pmatrix}$ then

$$A^k = CD^kC^{-1} = C \begin{pmatrix} d_{11}^k & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_{22}^k & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_{33}^k \end{pmatrix} C^{-1}.$$

Corollary ← a theorem that follows easily from another theorem

An $n \times n$ matrix with n distinct eigenvalues is diagonalizable.

Warning! Knowing A has **repeated** eigenvalues does **NOT** mean that it is **not** diagonalizable!

Diagonalization
Example

Problem: Diagonalize $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 3/2 \\ 3/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$.

The characteristic polynomial is

$$f(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \mathrm{Tr}(A)\,\lambda + \det(A) = \lambda^2 - \lambda - 2 = (\lambda + 1)(\lambda - 2).$$

Diagonalization
Another example

Problem: Diagonalize $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

The characteristic polynomial is

$$f(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = -\lambda^3 + 4\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 2 = -(\lambda - 1)^2(\lambda - 2).$$

Algebraic Multiplicity

Definition

The **(algebraic) multiplicity** of an eigenvalue λ is its multiplicity as a root of the characteristic polynomial.

Diagonalization

Another example

Problem: Diagonalize $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

The characteristic polynomial is

$$f(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = -\lambda^3 + 4\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 2 = -(\lambda - 1)^2(\lambda - 2).$$

Algebraic Multiplicity

Definition

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Diagonalization
Procedure

The Diagonalization Theorem (Alternate Form)

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. The following are equivalent:

1. A is diagonalizable.
2. The sum of the geometric multiplicities of the eigenvalues of A equals n.
3. The sum of the algebraic multiplicities of the eigenvalues of A equals n, and for each eigenvalue, *the geometric multiplicity equals the algebraic multiplicity*.

Non-Distinct Eigenvalues
Examples

Example

If A has n distinct eigenvalues, then the algebraic multiplicity of each equals 1, hence so does the geometric multiplicity, and therefore A is diagonalizable.

For example, $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 3/2 \\ 3/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$ has eigenvalues -1 and 2, so it is diagonalizable.

Example

The matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ has characteristic polynomial

$$f(\lambda) = -(\lambda - 1)^2(\lambda - 2).$$

The algebraic multiplicities of 1 and 2 are 2 and 1, respectively. They sum to 3.

We showed before that the geometric multiplicity of 1 is 2 (the 1-eigenspace has dimension 2). The eigenvalue 2 automatically has geometric multiplicity 1.

Hence the geometric multiplicities add up to 3, so A is diagonalizable.

Diagonalization
A non-diagonalizable matrix

Problem: Show that $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is not diagonalizable.

You Try It!

Poll

Poll

Which of the following matrices are diagonalizable, and why?

A. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ B. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ C. $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ D. $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Algebraic Multiplicity

Definition

The **(algebraic) multiplicity** of an eigenvalue λ is its multiplicity as a root of the characteristic polynomial.

Non-Distinct Eigenvalues

Definition

Let λ be an eigenvalue of a square matrix A. The **geometric multiplicity** of λ is the dimension of the λ-eigenspace.

Theorem

Let λ be an eigenvalue of a square matrix A. Then

$1 \leq$ (the geometric multiplicity of λ) $\leq$ (the algebraic multiplicity of λ).

More examples!

Problem: Diagonalize the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Problem: Diagonalize the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & -3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ which has characteristic polynomial $p(\lambda) = -\lambda^3 - 3\lambda^2 + 4 = -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 2)^2$

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

You Try It!

Poll

Poll

Which of the following matrices are diagonalizable, and why?

A. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ B. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ C. $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ D. $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Summary

- A matrix A is **diagonalizable** if it is similar to a diagonal matrix D: $A = CDC^{-1}$.
- It is easy to take powers of diagonalizable matrices: $A' = CD'C^{-1}$.
- An $n \times n$ matrix is diagonalizable if and only if it has n linearly independent eigenvectors $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ in $\mathbf{R}^n$, in which case $A = CDC^{-1}$ for

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix} \qquad D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

- If A has n distinct real eigenvalues, then it is diagonalizable.
- The **geometric multiplicity** of an eigenvalue λ is the dimension of the λ-eigenspace.
- $1 \leq$ (geometric multiplicity) $\leq$ (algebraic multiplicity).
- An $n \times n$ matrix is diagonalizable if and only if the sum of the geometric multiplicities is n.

Section 5.5

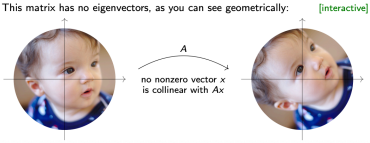
Complex Eigenvalues

A Matrix with No Eigenvectors

Consider the matrix for the linear transformation for rotation by $\pi/4$ in the plane. The matrix is:

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This matrix has no eigenvectors, as you can see geometrically: [interactive]



Question: what are the eigenvalues of A?

Hint: Compute

Operations on Complex Numbers

Definition
The number i is defined such that $i^2 = -1$.

Addition: $(2 - 3i) + (-1 + i) =$

FOIL

Multiplication: $(2-3i)(-1+i) =$

Complex conjugation: $\overline{a + bi} = a - bi$ is the **complex conjugate** of $a + bi$.

Example: $\overline{2 - 3i} =$

$\overline{-1 + i} =$

$\overline{(2 - 3i)(-1 + i)} \stackrel{?}{=} \overline{(2 - 3i)}\,\overline{(-1 + i)}$

Division using conjugates

Example:

$$\frac{1+i}{1-i} =$$

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

The whole point of using complex numbers is to solve polynomial equations. It turns out that they are enough to find all solutions of all polynomial equations:

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Every polynomial of degree n has exactly n complex roots, counted with multiplicity.

Equivalently, if $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ is a polynomial of degree n, then

$$f(x) = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2)\cdots(x - \lambda_n)$$

for (not necessarily distinct) complex numbers $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_n$.

Important

If f is a polynomial with *real* coefficients, and if λ is a complex root of f, then so is $\overline{\lambda}$:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = \overline{f(\lambda)} &= \overline{\lambda^n + a_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1\lambda + a_0} \\ &= \overline{\lambda}^n + a_{n-1}\overline{\lambda}^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1\overline{\lambda} + a_0 = f(\overline{\lambda}). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore complex roots of real polynomials come in *conjugate pairs*.

Consequently,

If λ is an eigenvalue of a real matrix A then so is $\overline{\lambda}$ the conjugate.

Example: find an eigenvector for each eigenvalue.

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{has eigenvalues} \quad \lambda = \frac{1 \pm i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Fact

Let A be a real square matrix. If λ is a complex eigenvalue with eigenvector v, then $\overline{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue with eigenvector $\overline{v}$.

Why?

$$Av = \lambda \implies A\overline{v} = \overline{Av} = \overline{\lambda v} = \overline{\lambda}\,\overline{v}.$$

Both eigenvalues and eigenvectors of real square matrices occur in conjugate pairs.

Problem: Find the eigenvalues of A and an eigenvector for each eigenvalue where $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 5 & -5 \end{pmatrix}$

You Try It!

Problem: Find the eigenvalues of A and an eigenvector for each eigenvalue where $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -5 \\ 2 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$

True or False? If A is a 2×2 matrix with eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = 5$, then A cannot have eigenvalue $\lambda_2 = 2 + 3i$.

True or False? If A is a 2×2 matrix with eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = 5 + 3i$, then A cannot have eigenvalue $\lambda_2 = 2 + 3i$.

Summary

- One can do arithmetic with complex numbers just like real numbers: add, subtract, multiply, divide.
- An $n \times n$ matrix always exactly has complex n eigenvalues, counted with (algebraic) multiplicity.
- The complex eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a *real* matrix come in complex conjugate pairs:

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A\overline{\mathbf{v}} = \overline{\lambda}\overline{\mathbf{v}}.$$