

Math 2250-1

Wed 11/16

§ 6.1-6.2 eigenvalues, eigenvectors, diagonalizability. ← Friday quiz on 6.1-6.2

Recall from Tuesday,

Def. If $A_{n \times n}$ and $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ for some scalar λ and some vector $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$,
 then \vec{v} is called an eigenvector of A , and λ is called an
eigenvalue of A , associated with the eigenvector \vec{v} .

- Eigenvalues & eigenvectors are important in a variety of applications.
- For example, if we can construct an \mathbb{R}^n basis made out of eigenvectors of A , then we get a good understanding of the transformation $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$.

At the end of class yesterday we were working on a 3×3 example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

(step 1) set $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ to find eigenvalues

long way:
$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} 4-\lambda & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & -\lambda & 1 \\ 2 & -2 & 3-\lambda \end{array} \right| \stackrel{\text{top row}}{=} 4-\lambda \left| \begin{array}{cc} -2 & 1 \\ -2 & 3-\lambda \end{array} \right| - 2 \left| \begin{array}{cc} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3-\lambda \end{array} \right| + 1 \left| \begin{array}{cc} 2 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{array} \right|$$

$$= (4-\lambda)(\lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 2) + 2(6 - 2\lambda - 2) + 1(-4 + 2\lambda)$$

$$= \lambda^3(-1) + \lambda^2(4+3) + \lambda(-12-2-4+2) + 1(8+8-4)$$

$$p(\lambda) = -\lambda^3 + 7\lambda^2 - 16\lambda + 12 = 0$$

↑
integer λ divide 12

$$p(2) = -8 + 28 - 32 + 12 = 0$$

so $\lambda = 2$ is a root

$$\frac{-\lambda^2 + 5\lambda - 6}{}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2-2 \left[\begin{array}{c} -\lambda^3 + 7\lambda^2 - 16\lambda + 12 \\ -\lambda^3 + 2\lambda^2 \end{array} \right] \\ \hline \begin{array}{c} 5\lambda^2 - 16\lambda \\ 5\lambda^2 - 10\lambda \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{c} -6\lambda + 12 \\ -6\lambda + 12 \end{array} \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

$$\text{so } p(\lambda) = (\lambda-2)(-\lambda^2 + 5\lambda - 6) \rightarrow$$

$$= -(\lambda-2)(\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 6)$$

$$= -(\lambda-2)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)$$

$$p(\lambda) = -(\lambda-2)^2(\lambda-3)$$

↓
 (did a
 shortcut
 yesterday)

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Step 2: for each eigenvalue from step 1, find a basis for the eigenspace.
 we did $\lambda=2$: (solutions to $A\vec{v} - 2\vec{v} = \vec{0}$)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A - 2I : \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

 \downarrow

$$\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$$

front-solve:

$$\begin{aligned} v_1 &= t \\ v_2 &= q \\ v_3 &= -2t + 2q \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{v} = t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} + q \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\text{so } E_2 = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

\uparrow
the $\lambda=2$
eigenspace

we are here:
 recall that homogeneous solutions correspond to column dependencies.
 from rref($A - 2I$) we know soln space to $(A - 2I)\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ is 2-dimensional

$$\text{since } 1 \cdot \text{col}_2 + 2 \cdot \text{col}_3 = \vec{0} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1 \cdot \text{col}_1 - 2 \cdot \text{col}_3 = \vec{0} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a quick way to get a basis for E_2 .
 is there a different easy dependency
 that would yield alternate bases
 for E_2 ?

Exercise 1 Find a basis for
 the $\lambda=3$ eigenspace of A

Notice that

$\left\{ \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\lambda=2}, \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\lambda=3}, \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\lambda=3} \right\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 . This is good for algebra and geometry and differential eqns related to the matrix A

Algebra:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, 1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

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

\uparrow cols are eigenvectors \uparrow diagonal matrix; entries are evals

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

algebra application

$$AP = PD$$

$$P^{-1}AP = D$$

$$\text{or } A = PDP^{-1}$$

$$\text{so } A^{100} = (PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) \dots (PDP^{-1})$$

$$= P D^{100} P^{-1}, \text{ (because all the interior } P^{-1}P = I \text{)}$$

$$A^{100} = P \begin{bmatrix} 2^{100} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^{100} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^{100} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

because products of diagonal matrices are diagonal.

• only need to do 3 matrix multiplications to compute A^{100}
(or A^n , any integer n)

Definition

for this reason, if there exists an \mathbb{R}^n ($n \times n$) basis made out of eigenvectors, then A is called diagonalizable

- in this case let $P_{n \times n} = [\vec{v}_1 | \vec{v}_2 | \dots | \vec{v}_n]$ $A\vec{v}_j = \lambda_j \vec{v}_j$

then $A[\vec{v}_1 | \dots | \vec{v}_n] = [\vec{v}_1 | \vec{v}_2 | \dots | \vec{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$

$$AP = P D$$

$$P^{-1}AP = D$$

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

unfortunately, not every matrix is diagonalizable

Exercise 3 Show that $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is not diagonalizable

$$\text{ans } |B - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = -(\lambda-2)^2(\lambda-3)$$

(for an upper or lower triangular matrix,
the eigenvalues are exactly
the diagonal entries)

$$\begin{array}{c} \lambda=2 \\ \hline \begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} v_1 = t \\ v_2 = 0 \\ v_3 = 0 \end{array} \quad \tilde{v} = t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenspace basis
 $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

$$\begin{array}{c} \lambda=3 \\ \hline \begin{array}{ccc|c} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} v_1 = 0 \\ v_2 = 0 \\ v_3 = t \end{array} \quad \tilde{v} = t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

this eigenspace is
called "defective", because
 $p(\lambda) = -(\lambda-2)^2(\lambda-3)$

only 2 independent eigenvectors $\hat{\wedge}$

$\lambda=2$ has algebraic multiplicity 2, but its eigenspace is only 1-dim'l.
 $\hat{\wedge}$

it turns out that if λ_j is an eigenvalue of A , and if $(\lambda - \lambda_j)^{k_j}$ is the corresponding factor of $p(\lambda)$, then it's always true.

$$\dim(E_{\lambda_j}) \leq k_j$$

↑

λ_j eigenspace

If each $\dim(E_{\lambda_j}) = k_j$ (no defective eigenspaces), then

A is diagonalizable, and you get an eigenbasis by just combining bases for each eigenspace. (partial proof next page)

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Are there times you know a matrix will be diagonalizable (even before you look for all the eigenvectors?)

Theorem 1 Let $\tilde{v}_1, \tilde{v}_2, \dots, \tilde{v}_k$ be eigenvectors (non-zero) of A , with different eigenvalues, i.e. $A\tilde{v}_j = \lambda_j \tilde{v}_j$ with $\lambda_j = \lambda_i$ only when $i=j$.

Then $\tilde{v}_1, \tilde{v}_2, \dots, \tilde{v}_k$ are linearly independent.

proof: By induction on k : if $k=1$, we have one non-zero eigenvector \tilde{v}_1 , any non-zero vector is independent.

If the theorem is true for $k=m$ and we have $m+1$ vectors with distinct eigenvalues, since $c_1 \tilde{v}_1 = \vec{0} \Rightarrow c_1$ (some non-zero entry) $= c_1 = 0$.

Consider

$$c_1 \tilde{v}_1 + c_2 \tilde{v}_2 + \dots + c_m \tilde{v}_m + c_{m+1} \tilde{v}_{m+1} = \vec{0}$$

Compute $(A - \lambda_1 I)$ times this sum:

$$\Rightarrow c_1 (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \tilde{v}_1 + c_2 (\lambda_3 - \lambda_1) \tilde{v}_2 + \dots + c_{m+1} (\lambda_{m+1} - \lambda_1) \tilde{v}_{m+1} = \vec{0}$$

here $\vec{0}$ is a linear combo of ~~the~~ m vectors $\tilde{v}_2, \dots, \tilde{v}_{m+1}$ which have distinct eigenvalues.

thus then true for

$k=1 \Rightarrow$ for $k=2 \Rightarrow$ for $k=3 \dots$

\Rightarrow for every k

If the theorem is true for $k=m$ we deduce

$$\begin{matrix} c_2 (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \\ \vdots \\ c_m (\lambda_m - \lambda_1) \end{matrix} = 0 = \begin{matrix} c_3 (\lambda_3 - \lambda_1) \\ \vdots \\ c_{m+1} (\lambda_{m+1} - \lambda_1) \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{so } c_2 = c_3 = \dots = c_{m+1} = 0$$

$$\text{so } c_1 \tilde{v}_1 = 0, \text{ so } c_1 = 0$$

Corollary If $A_{n \times n}$ has n different eigenvalues,

then A is diagonalizable.

proof. Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ be the "eigenpairs".

$$\tilde{v}_1, \tilde{v}_2, \dots, \tilde{v}_n$$

then $\tilde{v}_1, \tilde{v}_2, \dots, \tilde{v}_n$ are independent (by Thm 1),
so a basis of \mathbb{R}^n (or \mathbb{C}^n). ■

Corollary (See Theorem 4 page 382)

If the dimension of each eigenspace equals the power k that $(\lambda - \lambda_j)$ appears with in the characteristic polynomial, then A is also

diagonalizable (as for $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$), and you get an eigenbasis

by best taking the union of your bases for each eigenspace