


Lecture XXXIII: §4.5 Eigenvalues and Eigenspaces

Recall: Last time we defined the characteristic polynomial of an $n \times n$ matrix, the eigenvalues & eigenvectors of the matrix.

A $n \times n$ matrix \rightsquigarrow characteristic polynomial of A
(a_{ij})

$$P_A(t) = \det(A - tI_n) = \det \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}-t & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22}-t & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn}-t \end{pmatrix}$$

- degree n polynomial in t
- Coefficient of $t^n = (-1)^n$
- λ is an eigenvalue of A $\iff P_A(\lambda) = 0$
($A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ for some $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$) (λ is a root of P_A)
- $E_\lambda(v) = \{ \vec{v} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n : A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v} \} = \mathcal{N}(A - \lambda I_n)$ eigenspace for λ

 A degree n polynomial has at most n roots (but they can be complex or real!). Roots come with multiplicities.

$$P_A(t) = (-1)^n (t - \lambda_1)(t - \lambda_2) \dots (t - \lambda_n)$$

Eigenvalues of A : $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots, \lambda_n$ (real or complex)
§4.5 §4.6

- Algebraic multiplicity of λ = number of times λ appears in the list $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$.
- Geometric multiplicity of λ = $\dim E_\lambda(A)$

Proposition: Geometric multiplicity of $\lambda \leq$ Algebraic multiplicity of λ

Examples (1) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $P_A(t) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1-t & 1 \\ 0 & 1-t \end{bmatrix} = (1-t)^2 = (t-1)^2$

1 eigenvalue: $\lambda = 1 \rightsquigarrow$ algebraic multiplicity = 2

Definition: A is defective if it has an eigenvalue λ with geometric mult $\lambda < \text{algebraic mult of } \lambda$
↑ strict

Note: Example (1) was defective & (2) was not.

Q: Why is this relevant?

A: When A is $n \times n$ non-defective, then \mathbb{R}^n has a basis consisting of eigenvectors for A (we'll see why next time!)

Example above: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is non-defective

\mathbb{R}^3 has basis $B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ (eigenvectors for A)
eigenvalues: 0 2 3

Def: An $n \times n$ matrix A is called diagonalizable if \mathbb{R}^n has a basis consisting of eigenvectors for A .

Q: Where is the name "diagonalizable" coming from?

Recall: A determines a linear transformation $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$
 $\vec{x} \mapsto A\vec{x}$

If A is "diagonalizable" we can find a basis B for \mathbb{R}^n

$B = \{ \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \}$ of eigenvectors

Eigenvalues: $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ (possibly repeated!)

In this situation $T(\vec{v}_1) = \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1$ so $[T(\vec{v}_1)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$T(\vec{v}_2) = \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \quad \text{so} \quad [T(\vec{v}_2)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \lambda_2 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{etc.}$$

Conclude: $[T]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonal.

Note that $A = [T]_{\mathcal{E}\mathcal{E}}$ where $\mathcal{E} = \{\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$ standard basis for \mathbb{R}^n

Q: How to relate these 2 matrices?

A: Write $S = [\vec{v}_1 \ \dots \ \vec{v}_n]$ (put the basis of eigenvectors as columns) ↖ order is important

• S is invertible because cols are lin. indep.

• Claim: $S^{-1}AS = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$ (Equivalently: $AS = S \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$)

Why? Compare columns of both AS & $S \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{Col}_1(AS) = A \text{Col}_1(S) = A \vec{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 = \text{Col}_1 \left(S \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$\hookrightarrow \vec{v}_1 \in E_{\lambda_1}(A)$

$$\text{Col}_2(AS) = A \text{Col}_2(S) = A \vec{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 = \text{Col}_2 \left(S \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

Same is true for the rest of the columns.

Conclusion: A is diagonalizable if we can find an invertible matrix

S such that $S^{-1}AS = D$ is a diagonal matrix.

In this case: Columns of S = basis of eigenvectors of A

Entries of D = Eigenvalues of A

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ $P_A(t) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 5-t & -1 \\ 8 & -1-t \end{bmatrix} = t^2 - 4t + 3 = (t-3)(t-1)$

$\lambda = 1, 3$ are the only eigenvalues (both have alg mult = 1)

Last time: $E_1(A) = \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 8 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{Sp} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \right)$

$E_3(A) = \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{Sp} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$

Geom mult of 1 & 3 is also 1, so A is not defective

$B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis of eigenvectors, so A is diagonalizable

$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ so $S^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det S} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{-2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\implies S^{-1} A S = D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Advantage of diagonalizable matrices: computing power is easy!

• $D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \implies D^2 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n^2 \end{bmatrix}, D^3 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^3 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n^3 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, D^k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix}$

• $S^{-1} A S = D \implies A = S D S^{-1}$

$A^2 = (S D S^{-1})^2 = (S D S^{-1})(S D S^{-1}) = S D \underbrace{S^{-1} S}_{I_n} D S^{-1} = S D^2 S^{-1}$

$A^3 = (S D S^{-1})(S D S^{-1})^2 = S D S^{-1} S D^2 S^{-1} = S D^3 S^{-1}$

In general: $A^k = S D^k S^{-1}$ & $D^k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix}$ for any $k \geq 0$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $S^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$A^6 = S D^6 S^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^6 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1457 & -364 \\ 2912 & -727 \end{bmatrix}$

Next time: We'll see why nm-defective matrices are diagonalizable

Properties of eigenvalues (in HW10)

- ① If λ is an eigenvalue of A , then λ^k is an eigenvalue of A^k
($\forall k=1, 2, 3, \dots$)
- ② If A is invertible & λ is an eigenvalue of A , then $\lambda \neq 0$ & $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue of A^{-1} . & $E_\lambda(A) = E_{\lambda^{-1}}(A^{-1})$
- ③ A & A^T have the same eigenvectors because $P_A(t) = P_{A^T}(t)$
- ④ If λ is an eigenvalue of A & β is any number, then $(\lambda + \beta)$ is an eigenvalue of $A + \beta I_n$.

Why?
$$\begin{array}{l} A \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v} \\ \beta \vec{v} = \beta \vec{v} \end{array} \quad \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$$

$$(A + \beta I_n) \vec{v} = A \vec{v} + \beta \vec{v} = (\lambda + \beta) \vec{v} \quad \vec{v} \neq \vec{0} \quad \text{so } \vec{v} \text{ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue } \lambda + \beta.$$

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad P_A(t) = -\lambda(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)$

• A singular ($\lambda=0$ is an eigenvalue)

• $0^2, 2^2, 3^2$ are eigenvalues of A^2 , $0, 2^3, 3^3$ are eigenvalues of A^3

• Eigenvalues of $A - 5I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ are $0-5, 2-5, 3-5$
 $= -5, -3, -2$