

Last time: wanted to solve $Av = \lambda v$

eigenvector \nearrow \nwarrow eigenvalue

If λ is an eigenvalue then the

$$\lambda\text{-eigenspace} = \{\text{all } \lambda\text{-eigenvectors } \& \ 0\} = \text{Nul}(A - \lambda I_n)$$

How to compute eigenvalues?

Characteristic Polynomial

λ is an eigenvalue

$\Leftrightarrow Av = \lambda v$ has a nonzero solution

$\Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I_n)v = 0$ has a nonzero solution

$\Leftrightarrow A - \lambda I_n$ is not invertible

$$\Leftrightarrow p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$$

Eg: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 13 & 12 \\ 1/4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $A - \lambda I_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 13 & 12 \\ 1/4 & -\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$

$$p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I_3) = -\lambda \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 \\ 1/2 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{4} \det \begin{pmatrix} 13 & 12 \\ 1/2 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= -\lambda^3 - \frac{1}{4}(-13\lambda - 6) = -\lambda^3 + 13/4 \lambda + 3/2$$

What are the zeros of $p(\lambda)$?

Aside:

- Real life: ask a computer
- The computer will turn this back into an eigenvalue problem & use a different (faster) eigenvalue-finding algorithm.

- By hand: I'll give you one root λ_0 . Compute $p(\lambda)/(\lambda - \lambda_0) = \text{deg } 2 \text{ poly.}$

Eg cont'd: fact: 2 is a root of $-\lambda^3 + 13/4\lambda + 3/2$.

Synthetic division:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -\lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3/4 \\
 \lambda - 2 \overline{) -\lambda^3 + 13/4\lambda + 3/2} \\
 \underline{-(-\lambda^3 + 2\lambda^2)} \\
 -2\lambda^2 + 13/4\lambda + 3/2 \\
 \underline{-(-2\lambda^2 + 4\lambda)} \\
 -3/4\lambda + 3/2 \\
 \underline{-(-3/4\lambda + 3/2)} \\
 0
 \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow p(\lambda) = (\lambda - 2)(-\lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3/4)$$

Quadratic formula

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lambda &= -\frac{1}{2}(2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 3}) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2}(2 \pm 1) = -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{3}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow p(\lambda) = -(\lambda - 2)(\lambda + \frac{1}{2})(\lambda + \frac{3}{2})$$

\Rightarrow eigenvalues are 2, $-1/2$, $-3/2$

Compute eigenvectors by finding bases for $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I_2)$

$$2: \omega_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3/2 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad -\frac{1}{2}: \omega_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad -\frac{3}{2}: \omega_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/8 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Explains where these came from last time!

Def: The characteristic polynomial of an $n \times n$ matrix A is $p(\lambda) = \det(A - I_n \lambda)$

$$\lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } A \iff p(\lambda) = 0$$

What does $p(\lambda)$ look like?

Def: The **trace** of a matrix is

$\text{Tr}(A)$ = sum of diagonal entries.

Eg: $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ $A - \lambda I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a-\lambda & b \\ c & d-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$

$$p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I_2) = (a-\lambda)(d-\lambda) - bc = \lambda^2 - \underbrace{(a+d)}_{\text{Tr}} \lambda + \underbrace{(ad-bc)}_{\text{det}}$$

$$p(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \text{Tr}(A)\lambda + \det(A) \quad \text{for } 2 \times 2 \text{ } A$$

General form: If A is an $n \times n$ matrix,

$$p(\lambda) = (-1)^n \lambda^n + (-1)^{n-1} \text{Tr}(A) \lambda^{n-1} + \dots + \det(A)$$

more complicated terms

→ constant term is $p(0) = \det(A - 0I_n) = \det(A)$ ✓

→ $p(\lambda)$ is a **polynomial of degree n**

Consequence: An $n \times n$ matrix has **at most n eigenvalues**.

Diagonalization

In our rabbit problem, turns out: $\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3\}$ is LI

⇒ form a **basis** for \mathbb{R}^3 .

We wanted to understand $v_n = A^n v_0$.

$v_0 = x_1 \omega_1 + x_2 \omega_2 + x_3 \omega_3$ has a (unique) solution!

This was an important step in solving the problem.

Def: Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix.

(1) An **eigenbasis** is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A .

(2) A is **diagonalizable** if there is an eigenbasis.

If A is diagonalizable \rightarrow eigenbasis $\{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$ w/
eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$. To compute $A^n v$:

(1) Solve $v = x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + x_n \omega_n$

$$(2) A^n v = \lambda_1^n x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + \lambda_n^n x_n \omega_n$$

← vector form

Eg: In the rabbit problem,

$$v_0 = (16, 6, 1) \stackrel{(1)}{=} \omega_1 + \omega_2 - \omega_3 \quad (x_1=1 \quad x_2=1 \quad x_3=-1)$$

$$v_n = A^n v_0 = A^n (\omega_1 + \omega_2 - \omega_3) = 2^n \omega_1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \omega_2 + \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)^n \omega_3$$

Matrix Form of Diagonalization.

Let $\{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$ be an eigenbasis for A , $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n =$ eigenvalues

$$\Rightarrow A = CDC^{-1} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} | & & | \\ \omega_1 & \dots & \omega_n \\ | & & | \end{pmatrix} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Conversely, if $A = CDC^{-1}$ for D diagonal, then the columns of C form an eigenbasis, & the diagonal entries of D are the corresponding eigenvalues.

Why? $C \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + x_n \omega_n \Rightarrow C^{-1}(x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + x_n \omega_n) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$

$$C D C^{-1} (x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + x_n \omega_n) = C D \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = C \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda_1 x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n \omega_n = A (x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + x_n \omega_n)$$

Eg: $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 13 & 12 \\ 1/4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = C D C^{-1}$ $C = \begin{pmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 32 & 2 & 18 \\ 4 & -1 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$

NB: $A^m = (C D C^{-1})^m = C D C^{-1} C D C^{-1} \dots C D C^{-1} = C D^m C^{-1}$
 $= C \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^m & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n^m \end{pmatrix} C^{-1}$; much easier to compute powers of A.

Eg: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ diagonal matrix = eigenvectors are coordinate vectors

$$A e_1 = 2 e_1 \quad A e_2 = 3 e_2 \quad A e_3 = 4 e_3$$

$$\Rightarrow A = C D C^{-1} \quad C = I_3 \quad D = A$$

Eg: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ shear

$$p(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \text{Tr}(A) + \det(A) = \lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1 = (\lambda - 1)^2$$

One eigenvalue $\lambda = 1$. 1-eigenspace: $\text{Nul}(A - I_2)$

$$A - I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{PVE}} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

1-eigenspace is the x-axis.

\Rightarrow no eigenbasis! \Rightarrow not diagonalizable.

Procedure to Diagonalize a Matrix:

- (1) Compute the characteristic polynomial $p(\lambda)$
- (2) Find the roots of $p(\lambda)$ = eigenvalues of A
- (3) Find a basis for each eigenspace = $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I_n)$
(using RREF)

If you end up with n vectors in all your bases, they form an eigenbasis. Otherwise, not diagonalizable.

Fact: If w_1, \dots, w_n are eigenvectors with **different eigenvalues** then $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ is linearly independent.

So in the **procedure** you never have to check LI of bases of different eigenspaces.

Consequence: If A has n **different eigenvalues**, then A is diagonalizable (each eigenval has at least 1 eigenvec).