

Diagonalization

Lay 5.3

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1 The importance of diagonal matrices

We talked last time about how easy it is to compute the action of a matrix on eigenvectors. It is even easier if the matrix is diagonal, since its eigenvectors are the standard basis. Notice that if D is a diagonal matrix—for instance,

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix},$$

then

$$D \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = Dx_1\mathbf{e}_1 + Dx_2\mathbf{e}_2 = 3x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + 7x_2\mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3x_1 \\ 7x_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is also trivial to compute matrix powers:

$$D^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 49 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{etc.}$$

It is also easy to compute matrix powers if A is similar to a diagonal matrix D :

Example 1.1. Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = PDP^{-1},$$

Where

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$A^2 = PDP^{-1}PDP^{-1} = PD^2P^{-1} = PDP^{-1} = P \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 16 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}.$$

Similarly, for any positive integer k , $A^k = PD^kP^{-1}$.

2 Diagonalization

Definition 2.1. We say a matrix A is **diagonalizable** if it is similar to a diagonal matrix D .

Theorem 2.2. An $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if it has n linearly independent eigenvectors. In fact, D is a diagonal matrix with $A = PDP^{-1}$ if and only if P is a matrix whose columns are n linearly independent eigenvectors of A . In this case, the n th diagonal entry in D corresponds to the n th column of P .

Proof. If $A = PDP^{-1}$ for a diagonal D , let $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ be the columns of P . Multiply on the right by P to see that $AP = PD$. Now notice

$$AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ A\mathbf{v}_n], \quad PD = [\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n], \quad (1)$$

where λ_i is the i th diagonal entry of D . Matching column by column, we see that the columns of P are eigenvectors of A and must be independent, since P is invertible; moreover, λ_i is the eigenvalue corresponding to \mathbf{v}_i . On the other hand, if A has n independent eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, then set $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$. The columns of P are independent, so it is invertible. Let us define $D = P^{-1}AP$, so that $A = PDP^{-1}$ and therefore $AP = PD$. By the same reasoning as the first equation in (1), we have $AP = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ A\mathbf{v}_n] = [\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n]$, where λ_i is the i th eigenvalue of A . Therefore, $PD = [\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n]$. Since the columns of PD are linear combinations of the columns of P , and since the columns of P are linearly independent, it follows that D must be diagonal. \square

3 Diagonalization

We outline the diagonalization procedure for an $n \times n$ matrix A :

- Find the eigenvalues of A .
- Find bases for the corresponding eigenspaces.
- Figure out if you have n linearly independent eigenvectors. If the sum of dimensions of the eigenspaces of A is equal to n , you're set and the union of the bases for the different eigenspaces will consist of n linearly independent eigenvectors. Otherwise, it's not diagonalizable.
- P is the matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors.
- D is the matrix whose i th entry is the eigenvalue for the i th column of P .

Example 3.1. Diagonalize

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

The eigenvalues of A are $\lambda_1 = 4$ and $\lambda_2 = -2$. A basis for the λ_1 eigenspace is provided by

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

and a basis for the λ_2 eigenspace is provided by

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

Therefore, the matrices

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The eigenvectors we chose within each eigenspace were independent because we found a basis. Note that the eigenvectors from different eigenspaces are *automatically* independent, as predicted by our theorem from before.

It is not true that every matrix is diagonalizable. However, it is easy to see the following theorem holds:

Theorem 3.2. *If an $n \times n$ matrix has n distinct eigenvalues, then it is diagonalizable.*

What about if there are not n eigenvalues? Then the following theorem takes care of things:

Theorem 3.3. *If A is $n \times n$ with distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$, then:*

- *For each k , the eigenspace corresponding to λ_k has dimension \leq the algebraic multiplicity of λ_k ;*
- *A is diagonalizable if and only if the sum of the dimensions of the eigenspaces is n (we actually noted this above already);*
- *A is diagonalizable if and only if (a) its characteristic polynomial factors into linear factors (i.e., if and only if it has n real roots, possibly having multiplicity bigger than one) and (b) the dimension of the eigenspace corresponding to each eigenvalue λ_k is equal to the algebraic multiplicity of λ_k ;*
- *If A is diagonalizable and if for each k , \mathcal{B}_k is a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to λ_k , then the vectors in the union $\mathcal{B}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$ form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n of eigenvectors of A .*