- 1 If $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear transformation, an eigenvector of T is a non-zero $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with the property that $T(v) = \lambda v$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, called the eigenvalue of T to which v corresponds.
- 2 If a basis \mathcal{B} of \mathbb{R}^n consists entirely of eigenvectors of T, then the matrix of T with respect to \mathcal{B} is diagonal, with the corresponding eigenvalues as the diagonal entries.
- 3 Eigenvectors of T that correspond to distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent in \mathbb{R}^n . It follows that T can have at most n distinct eigenvalues. If it has n distinct eigenvalues, then it is diagonalizable.
- If the matrix of T with respect to the standard basis is A, then the matrix of T with respect to another basis \mathcal{B} is $P^{-1}AP$, where the columns of P are the basis elements of \mathcal{B} .

For $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$, it does not always happen that \mathbb{F}^n has a basis consisting of eigenvectors of A.

Examples

Section 3.5 The characteristic polynomial

Example Find a matrix P with
$$P^{-1}AP$$
 diagonal, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

To answer this, we need to find two linearly independent eigenvectors of A. These are non-zero solutions of

 $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} 2x + 2y \\ x + 3y \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x \\ \lambda y \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (\lambda - 2)x - 2y \\ -x + (\lambda - 3)y \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 2 & -2 \\ -1 & \lambda - 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ So we are looking for non-zero solutions $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ of the system $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 2 & -2 \\ -1 & \lambda - 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

These can occur only if the coefficient matrix is non-invertible. If it is invertible, the only solution is x = y = 0.

A 2×2 matrix is non-invertible if and only if its determinant is 0.

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 2 & -2 \\ -1 & \lambda - 3 \end{bmatrix} = (\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3) - (-2)(-1) = \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 4.$$

The Characteristic Polynomial of a 2×2 matrix

The characteristic polynomial of A is

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

The eigenvalues of A are the solutions of the characteristic equation $det(\lambda I - A) = 0$, 1 and 4. The eigenspace of A corresponding to $\lambda = 1$ is the set of all solutions of the system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 1 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \Longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1-2 & -2 \\ -1 & 1-3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the nullspace of the matrix $1I - A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$, which is

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix}$$
 , $t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$.

An eigenvector of A for $\lambda = 1$ is any non-zero element of this space, for example $\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

The characteristic polynomial of $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ is

$$\det(\lambda I_2 - A) = (\lambda - a)(\lambda - d) - (-c)(-b) = \lambda^2 - (a + d)\lambda + (ad - bc)$$

= $(\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2).$

The sum of the eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 is a + d, the trace of A. The product of the eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 is ad - bc, the determinant of A.

The eigenspace of A corresponding to λ_1 is the nullspace of the matrix $\lambda_1 I_2 - A$. Its non-zero elements are the eigenvectors of A corresponding to λ_1 .

Section 3.5.1: The Determinant (a digression)

For any 2 × 2 matrix
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
, we have
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}}_{adj(A)} = \begin{bmatrix} ad - bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad - bc \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{(ad - bc)}_{det(A)} I_2.$$

If ad - bc = 0, then A is not invertible.

If
$$ad - bc \neq 0$$
, then the equation shows that
 $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$.
The matrix $\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ is the adjugate of A .

The matrix A has an inverse if and only if $ad - bc \neq 0$. This means that the number ad - bc tells us whether or not the columns of A form a basis of \mathbb{F}^2 (or \mathbb{R}^2). The number ad - bc is the determinant of A. The version of the above equation for a 3×3 matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$ is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} ei - fh & -bi + ch & bf - ce \\ -di + fg & ai - cg & -af + cd \\ dh - eg & -ah + bg & ae - bd \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{adj}(A)} = \underbrace{(aei - afh - bdi + bfg + cdh - ceg)}_{\text{det}(A)}I_3$$

Definitions

- The minor $M_{i,j}$ of the (i, j)-entry of A is the determinant of the 2×2 matrix that remains when Row i and Column j are deleted from A.
- The cofactor $C_{i,j}$ is either $M_{i,j}$ or $-M_{i,j}$, according to $\begin{bmatrix} + & & + \\ & + & \\ + & & + \end{bmatrix}$
- The adjugate of A is has C_{j,i} in the (i, j)-position. It is the transpose of the matrix of cofactors of A.
- The determinant A can be found by multiplying each entry of any chosen row or column by its own cofactor, and adding the results.

The 3×3 case

The version of the above equation for a 3×3 matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$ is: $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - \begin{vmatrix} b & c \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} b & c \\ e & f \end{vmatrix} \\ - \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} a & c \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} - \begin{vmatrix} a & c \\ d & f \end{vmatrix} = \underbrace{(aei - afh - bdi + bfg + cdh - ceg)}_{det(A)} I_3.$

Definitions

- The minor $M_{i,j}$ of the (i, j)-entry of A is the determinant of the 2×2 matrix that remains when Row i and Column j are deleted from A.
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Dr Rachel Quinlan

Determinant Properties

- 1 Each of the definitions above applies to $n \times n$ matrices in general, and gives us a way to recursively define a $n \times n$ determinant, in terms of $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ determinants.
- **2** The cofactor expansion method is not generally the most efficient way to compute a determinant (it is ok in the 3×3 case). But it can be taken as the definition of a determinant.
- 3 In some special cases, the determinant is easier to compute. If A is upper or lower triangular, then det(A) is the product of the entries on the main diagonal of A. If A has a square $k \times k$ block A_1 in the upper left, a square $(n - k) \times (n - k)$ block in the lower right, and only zeros in the lower left $(n - k) \times k$ region, then det(A) = det(A₁) det(A₂).
- For a pair of n × n matrices A and B, det(AB) = det(A) det(B).
 This is the multiplicative property of the determinant, or the Cauchy-Binet formula. It is not obvious at all.

The characteristic polynomial of a 3×3 matrix

Example Using cofactor expansion by the first column, we find that the characteristic polynomial of $B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & -8 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ is $det(\lambda I_3 - B) = det \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 5 & -6 & -2 \\ 0 & \lambda + 1 & 8 \\ -1 & 0 & \lambda + 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $= (\lambda - 5) ((\lambda + 1)(\lambda + 2) - 0(8)) + (-1) ((-6)(8) - (\lambda + 1)) = (\lambda - 5) ((\lambda + 1)(\lambda + 2) - 0(8)) + (-1) ((-6)(8) - (\lambda + 1)) = (-6)(8) +$ $= (\lambda - 5)(\lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2) - (2\lambda - 46)$ $= \lambda^3 - 2\lambda^2 - 15\lambda + 36$ $= (\lambda - 3)(\lambda^2 + \lambda - 12)$ $= (\lambda - 3)(\lambda + 4)(\lambda - 3)$ $= (\lambda - 3)^2(\lambda + 4)$

Algebraic and Geometric Multiplicity

The eigenvalues of *B* are 3 (occurring twice as a root of the characteristic polynomial), and -4 (occurring once). We say that 3 has algebraic multiplicity 2 and -4 has algebraic multiplicity 1 as an eigenvalue of *B*. The *geometric multiplicity* of each eigenvalue is the dimension of its corresponding eigenspace.

$$3I_3 - B = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -6 & -2 \\ 0 & 4 & 8 \\ -1 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

The RREF of this matrix is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and the nullspace consists of all vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 5t \\ -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix}$, where $t \in \mathbb{R}$. This is the eigenspace of *B* corresponding to $\lambda = 3$. It has dimension 1, so 3 has geometric multiplicity 1 as an eigenvector of *B*.

Dr Rachel Quinlan

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Dr Rachel Quinlan

Theorem The geometric multiplicity of an eigenvalue is at most equal to its algebraic multiplicity.

Proof: Suppose that μ has geometric multiplicity k as an eigenvalue of the square matrix $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, and let $\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$ be a basis for the μ -eigenspace of A. Extend this to a basis \mathcal{B} of \mathbb{R}^n , and let P be the matrix whose columns are the elements of \mathcal{B} . Then the first k columns of $P^{-1}AP$ have μ in the diagonal position and zeros elsewhere. It follows that $\lambda - \mu$ occurs at least k times as a factor of det $(\lambda I_n - P^{-1}AP)$.

Corollary A matrix is diagonalizable if and only if the geometric multiplicity of each of its eigenvalues is equal to the algebraic multiplicity.