

Lecture 19:

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

Diagonalizability

Characteristic polynomial

Eigenspaces

Warmup

1. Compute the determinants of

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & -9 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2. Let $\lambda \in F$. Compute the determinants of

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 10 - \lambda & -9 \\ 4 & -2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} -2 - \lambda & -1 \\ 5 & 2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & -\lambda & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

[Your answers should be in terms of λ . [Reality check](#): evaluate your answers here $\lambda = 0$, and compare to your answers to 1.]

Answers to warmup:

1. $\det \begin{pmatrix} 10 & -9 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = 10(-2) - (-9)4 = 16;$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (-2)(2) - (-1)(5) = 1; \quad \text{and}$$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (-1)^{2+1}(2) \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + (-1)^{2+2}(0) \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$+ (-1)^{2+3}(-2) \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{expanding along row 2})$$

$$= -2((2)(3) - (1)(2)) + 0 - (-2)((1)(2) - (2)(-1)) = 0.$$

2. $\det \begin{pmatrix} 10 - \lambda & -9 \\ 4 & -2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (10 - \lambda)(-2 - \lambda) - (-9)4 = \lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 16;$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} -2 - \lambda & -1 \\ 5 & 2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (-2 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) - (-1)(5) = \lambda^2 + 1; \quad \text{and}$$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & -\lambda & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{expanding along row 1})$$

$$= (-1)^{1+1}(1 - \lambda) \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & -2 \\ 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} + (-1)^{1+2}(2) \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} + (-1)^{1+3}(1) \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -\lambda \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (1 - \lambda)(-\lambda(3 - \lambda) - (-2)(2)) - 2(2(3 - \lambda) - (-1)(-2)) + (2(2) - (-\lambda)(-1))$$

$$= -\lambda^3 + 4\lambda^2 - 4\lambda.$$

Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

Let V be a f.d. vector space over a field F , and let $f : V \rightarrow V$ be an endomorphism (linear). An **eigenvector** for f is a vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$ such that f only scales \mathbf{v} (the direction doesn't change):

$$f(\mathbf{v}) = \lambda \mathbf{v}, \quad \text{for some } \lambda \in F.$$

If $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$, then we call λ an **eigenvalue** for f .

[Root: *eigen* is a German word meaning "belonging to" or "inherent to".]

Similarly, for any matrix $X \in M_n(F)$, eigenvectors and eigenvalues of X are the same as eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the associated endomorphism on F^n (with respect to the standard ordered basis).

Example. For any $X \in M_n(F)$ and any $\lambda \in F$, we have

$$X\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} = \lambda\mathbf{0}.$$

So $\mathbf{0}$ is an eigenvector of any matrix. But this is exactly why we require that there's some *nonzero* \mathbf{v} satisfying $X\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ to call λ an eigenvalue of X .

(We want being an eigenvalue to be special.)

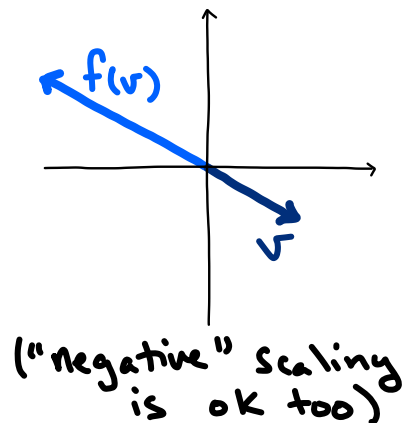
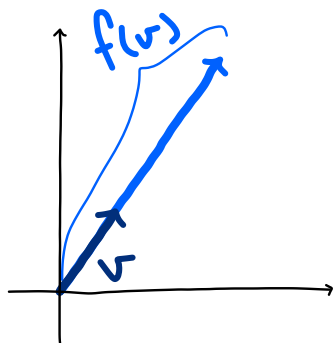
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Example. Let

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$X\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 2\mathbf{u};$$

and

$$X\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = 3\mathbf{v}.$$

So **2** and **3** are eigenvalues of X , and \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are eigenvectors of X (of eigenvalue **2** and **3**, respectively).

Notice: $\mathcal{B} = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle$ is a basis of F^2 . And with respect to this basis, the above calculations show

$$\text{Rep}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{B}}(f_X) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $f_X : F^2 \rightarrow F^2$ is the linear function associated to X .

In particular,

$$X = PDP^{-1} \quad \text{where } D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } P = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Why is this great? For example, what if we wanted to compute X^{100} ?

Theorem. Let $X \in M_n(F)$ with corresponding linear function $f_X : F^n \rightarrow F^n$. Suppose $\mathcal{B} = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \rangle$ is an ordered basis of eigenvectors with corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, i.e.,

$$X\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Let P be the matrix whose columns are $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, and let

$$D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$X = PDP^{-1}.$$

In this setting, we say X is **diagonalizable**.

One reason to care: Usually, matrix multiplication is computationally expensive, unless the matrices are very **sparse** (have lots of 0's). But diagonal matrices are very sparse! So if X is diagonalizable, then

$$X^\ell = (PDP^{-1})^\ell = (PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) \cdots (PDP^{-1}) = PD^\ell P^{-1};$$

and $D^\ell = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^\ell, \dots, \lambda_n^\ell)$. (By calculation!)

Important questions:

- When does an endomorphism even have such a nice basis?
- How do we find eigenvectors and eigenvalues?

Finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

For a matrix $X \in M_n(F)$ and a vector $\mathbf{v} \in F^n$, note that

$$X\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \mathbf{0} = X\mathbf{v} - \lambda\mathbf{v} = (X - \lambda I_n)\mathbf{v}.$$

So

$$X\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{N}(X - \lambda I_n).$$

Again, $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ is always a solution. But we're interested in *non-trivial* solutions! So $\lambda \in F$ is an eigenvalue for X if and only if $\mathcal{N}(X - \lambda I_n) \neq \{0\}$.

Determinant to the rescue!!!

$$\ker(X - \lambda I_n) \neq \{0\} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \text{rank}(X - \lambda I_n) < n \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \det(X - \lambda I_n) = 0.$$

To find the eigenvalues of X , solve $\det(X - \lambda I_n) = 0$ for $\lambda \in F$.

Example. Back to $X = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$: We have

$$X - \lambda I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 - \lambda & 2 \\ -6 & 6 - \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

So

$$\det(X - \lambda I_2) = (-1 - \lambda)(6 - \lambda) - 2(-6) = \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 6 = (\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3).$$

Thus $\det(X - \lambda I_2) = 0$ when $\lambda = 2$ or $\lambda = 3$;

and hence these are exactly the two eigenvalues of X .

You try:

1. Find the eigenvalues of

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & -9 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(See warmup.) Does it matter what F is?

2. If

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{then} \quad \det(X - \lambda I_4) = \lambda(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 4)^2.$$

This means that X has eigenvalues $\lambda = 0$, $\lambda = 2$, and $\lambda = 4$.

Compute the nullspaces of $X - 0I_4$ (this matrix is just X) and of $X - 2I_4$. (The computation of the nullspace of $X - 4I_4$ is on the next page.)

First, we have

$$X - 4I_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 2-4 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3-4 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 3-4 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 2-4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Recall that to compute the nullspace of $X - 4I_4$, we should row reduce:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} -2 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -2 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow[\text{row}_3 \mapsto \text{row}_3 - \text{row}_2]{\text{row}_1 \mapsto \text{row}_1 - 2\text{row}_2} \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -2 & 0 \end{array} \right) \\ & \xrightarrow[\text{row}_4 \mapsto \text{row}_4 + \text{row}_1]{\text{row}_2 \mapsto -\text{row}_2} \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{row}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{row}_2} \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \\ & \xrightarrow{\text{row}_1 \mapsto \text{row}_1 - \text{row}_2} \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right). \quad \text{So } \begin{cases} x_1 - x_4 = 0, \\ x_2 + x_3 + 2x_4 = 0. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $x_1 = x_4$ and $x_2 = -x_3 - 2x_4$, so that

$$\mathcal{N}(X - 4I_2) = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{c} x_4 \\ -x_3 - 2x_4 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{array} \right) \mid x_3, x_4 \in F \right\} = F \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

Continuing with the example from Problem 2:

We just saw that matrix $X = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ has eigenvalues $\lambda = 0, 2,$

and 4; and that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{N}(X - 0I_4) &= F\{(1, 1, 1, 1)^t\}, \\ \mathcal{N}(X - 2I_4) &= F\{(-1, 0, 0, 1)^t\}, \quad \text{and} \\ \mathcal{N}(X - 4I_4) &= F\{(0, -1, 1, 0)^t, (1, -2, 0, 1)^t\}. \end{aligned}$$

One can check that

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle$$

is a basis of F^4 (so long as F isn't too small). So

$$X = PDP^{-1} \quad \text{where } P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } D = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

General strategy:

- ▶ Find the eigenvalues of X by solving $\det(X - \lambda I_n) = 0$ for λ .
- ▶ For each eigenvalue λ , compute a basis for $\mathcal{N}(X - \lambda I_n)$.
- ▶ If this process results in finding n eigenvectors, $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, then A is **diagonalizable**. (This is a *significant* "if", but there's a reasonable backup plan.)

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space over F , and let $f : V \rightarrow V$ be an endomorphism. Back to the language of linear maps (instead of just matrices):

- ▶ The eigenvalues of f are the roots of $\det(f - \lambda \text{id})$. Note that the determinant $\det(f - \lambda \text{id})$ will always be a polynomial in the variable λ . We call

$$p_f(x) = \det(f - x \text{id})$$

the **characteristic polynomial** of f .

(The eigenvalues of f are exactly the roots of $p_f(x)$.)

- ▶ The eigenvectors of f associated to λ are those vectors in $\mathcal{N}(f - \lambda \text{id})$. We call this space the **eigenspace** of f corresponding to λ , or just the **λ -eigenspace** of f , denoted

$$V_\lambda = V_\lambda(f) = \{\mathbf{v} \in V \mid f(\mathbf{v}) = \lambda \mathbf{v}\}.$$

Note that because V_λ is a nullspace, it is a subspace of V .

- ▶ For $\lambda \in F$, if $(x - \lambda)^\ell$ is a factor of $p_f(x)$, but $(x - \lambda)^{\ell+1}$ is not, we call ℓ the **(algebraic) multiplicity** of λ , and denote it $\ell = m_\lambda$.

Thm. If λ is an eigenvalue of f , then $1 \leq \dim(V_\lambda(f)) \leq m_\lambda$.

- ▶ If there is a basis of V consisting of eigenvectors of f , we call such a basis an **eigenbasis**, and say that f is **diagonalizable** (since there is a basis in which f is represented as a diagonal matrix).
Sufficient (but not necessary): $\dim(V_\lambda(f)) = 1$ for all eigenvalues λ .

You try:

1. Above, you found the eigenvalues of

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & -9 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now compute the eigenspaces of each matrix.

[For X , the eigenspaces are subspaces of F^2 ; the eigenspaces of Z are subspaces of F^3 . You may assume that $F = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} .]

2. What are the eigenspaces of $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ if we're working over $F = \mathbb{C}$?

[Compute $p_X(x)$ and find its roots; then compute $V_\lambda(X) = \mathcal{N}(X - \lambda I_2)$ for each root λ .]

Does your answer change if we're working over $F = \mathbb{R}$?

[Note: Geometrically, in \mathbb{R}^2 , multiplication by X acts by rotating clockwise by $\pi/2$. Can you reconcile your answer with this geometric interpretation?]

3. Let $\lambda \in F$. Compute the eigenspaces of

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and of} \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$