

Basic Linear Algebra
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Lecture - 31
Diagonalization and Real Symmetric Matrices I

So let us begin today's lecture. We will start recalling what we have been doing. We have been looking at the definition of eigenvalues, eigenvectors and diagonalization of matrices.

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Recall

We showed that the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & -7 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

has two eigenvalues $\lambda = 2, -3$. Further we found eigenvectors

$$C_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } C_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We defined

$$P := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -7 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

checked that P is invertible, and

$$P^{-1} A P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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So let us just recall the example we have done. We had taken a matrix A as shown with first row $-5, -7$ and 2 and 4 and we showed that it has 2 Eigen values, $\lambda=2$ and -3 . For each one of this eigenvalues, we found eigenvectors. C_1 is the eigenvector for the eigenvalue 2 and C_2 is the eigenvector for the eigenvalue -3 and finding these eigenvectors is essentially solving a system of linear equations and this gave us the matrix P with first column as the first eigenvector.

Second column as the second eigenvector and this we showed that since these are eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues, these 2 vectors are linearly independent and as a result, this matrix P has got full rank, so it is invertible and then we will check the property that P inverse AP is a diagonal matrix and the diagonal being the eigenvalues 2 and -3 . So this was the illustration of how to find a matrix, which will diagonalise a given matrix A .

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Diagonalizable

This prompted us to ask the following:

Question:
 Given a matrix A when does there exist an invertible matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP$ will be a diagonal matrix, and how to find P ?
 Before answering the following:

Definition
 Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix with entries from $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} .
 A is said to be **diagonalizable** if there exists an invertible matrix P with entries from \mathbb{F} , such that $P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix.

So this prompted us to define and ask the question, given a matrix A , when does there exist an invertible matrix P , such that P inverse AP is a diagonal matrix and how to find that P . So we made a definition that a matrix A is diagonalizable if there exists a matrix P , which is invertible such that P inverse AP is a diagonal matrix and we stated a theorem. Actually we proved it also partially, so let us just go through the proof again.

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Diagonalizable

The answer is given by the following:

Theorem
 Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix. A is diagonalizable if and only if there exist scalars

$$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$$

and vectors

$$C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

such that the following holds:

- (i) $AC_i = \lambda_i C_i \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$. Thus A has n -eigenvalues.
- (ii) The set $\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$ is linearly independent, and hence is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

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If A is $n \times n$ matrix, then A is diagonalizable if and only if, so this is an if and only if statement, there exist scalars $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ and vectors C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n , such that the following holds 1, A applied to the vector C_i is $\lambda_i C_i$ and this essentially says that the scalar λ_i is an eigenvalue and C_i is an eigenvector for the eigenvalue and the diagonalizability is captured

by the fact that the set of this eigenvectors C_1, C_2, C_n is a linearly independent set and hence form the basis for R^n .

There are n vectors, which are linearly independent and form a basis. So let us just run through the proof again.

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Proof

Since A is diagonalizable, there exists an invertible matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP = D$, where D is a diagonal matrix.
Let C_1, \dots, C_n be the columns of P .
Then $P = [C_1 \dots C_n]$.
Since P is an invertible matrix, none of the column vectors $C_i = \mathbf{0}$. In fact, $P = [C_1 \ C_2 \ \dots \ C_n]$ being an invertible matrix, has rank n , and hence the set $\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$ is linearly independent.
Let

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

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So suppose P is, A is diagonalizable, then there is a matrix P such that P inverse AP is the diagonal matrix. So there is an invertible P implies there is a matrix P with this property. So let us call C_1, C_2, C_n the columns of that matrix P , right. So P is given by C_1, C_2, C_n . Since P is invertible, then none of these vectors could be 0, because all the vectors are, they form a linearly independent set.

So none of them is 0 and in fact being invertible matrix as a full rank, so they are linearly independent. So let us define D to be the matrix with a diagonal entries as $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$. Everything else is 0. So we are defining D as this and we want to check that these are the $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_n$ are eigenvalues. We want to check that. D is given to us. We are given P and we are given D . So D is given to us. This is D and C_1, C_2, C_n are the column vectors of P .

So we want to check that $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues and C_1 to C_n are the corresponding eigenvectors. So for that, we can also rewrite this equation $P^{-1}AP = D$, slightly differently.

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Proof

Then, $P^{-1}AP = D$ implies that

$$AP = PD,$$

i.e., $A[C_1 \dots C_n] = [C_1 \dots C_n]D,$
i.e., $[AC_1 \ AC_2 \dots \ AC_n] = [\lambda_1 C_1 \ \lambda_2 C_2 \dots \lambda_n C_n].$

Thus,

$$AC_j = \lambda_j C_j \text{ for all } 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

This proves one way.



Conversely,
Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be elements of \mathbb{F}^n such that $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ is a linearly independent set and for $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{F},$

$$AX_j = \lambda_j X_j, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

Define the matrix P as follows:

$$P := [X_1 \ X_2 \ \dots \ X_n].$$

Then $\text{rank}(P) = n,$ and hence is an invertible matrix.

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So the matrix multiplication, this implies if I multiply both on the left by P , then $AP = P \cdot D$ and let us write P and D in terms of the columns. So P is column as C_1, C_2, C_n . So this value is put here into D and what is this multiplication? That is precisely writing it as the columns being $AC_1, AC_2,$ and AC_n . This being the diagonal matrix is column where $\lambda_1 C_1, \lambda_2 C_2,$ and so on, right. So this is just matrix multiplication, nothing more than that.

So this is equal to this, that means $AC_1 = \lambda_1 C_1, AC_2 = \lambda_2 C_2$ and so on. So in general the j th entry AC_j is $\lambda_j C_j$ and that precisely says that λ_j is an eigenvalue with C_j as the eigenvector. So one way is done. So conversely let us suppose that we have got elements, vectors $X_1, X_2, X_n,$ says that is a linearly independent set and this $\lambda_j X_j$ are the corresponding eigenvalues. So $AX_i = \lambda_i X_i,$ so that is given to us, write the property.

So what we want to show. We want to show that there is a matrix P where that $P^{-1}AP$ is diagonal. So let us construct the matrix with these as the column vectors, right. So P is defined as, with these vectors as a column vectors, so these being linearly independent. So this is a linearly independent set, so this is invertible, right. So rank of P is $n,$ it is an invertible matrix.

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Proof cont...



Further,

$$\begin{aligned} AP &= A[\mathbf{X}_1 \cdots \mathbf{X}_n] \\ &= [A\mathbf{X}_1 \cdots A\mathbf{X}_n] \\ &= [\lambda_1\mathbf{X}_1 \cdots \lambda_n\mathbf{X}_n] = PD, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$D := \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence, $P^{-1}AP = D$, i.e., A is diagonalizable. ■



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So we can compute now what is AP and that comes out to be right AP is right to the column A times the column vectors of P X_1 up to X_n that is the same as AX_1 to X_n and using the property that AX_i is $\lambda_i X_i$, this comes out and that is precisely $P \cdot D$. So D , if you write D as a diagonal matrix λ_1 to λ_n , then we get $AP = P \cdot D$, P is invertible, so that can be written as $P^{-1}AP$, just writing.

There is nothing in the proof except that writing the matrix multiplication $A \cdot P$ as $A \cdot$ the column vectors and expressing it appropriately. So this proves the theorem that a matrix A is diagonalizable, if and only if there are n eigenvalues, right and there are eigenvectors corresponding to them form a linearly independent set. So that is the condition for diagonalization. So the question comes.

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Diagonalization

Problem: Given a $n \times n$ matrix A , when and how do find a linearly independent set of eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ for A ?

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Clearly, this set of n eigenvectors will form a basis.

We start with a theorem about linear independence of eigenvectors.

When they are linearly independent, everything is okay. So the problem is given $n \times n$ matrix, how do you find a linearly independent set of eigenvectors. So the question, does a given matrix have n eigenvalues and for each eigenvalue, you will have an eigenvector with a form linearly independent set or not. If yes, the matrix is diagonalizable. If not, you cannot help it and it is not diagonalizable, right.

So basically what we are saying is, this n eigenvectors will form a basis, because this is an $n \times n$, right. So saying that a matrix is diagonalizable is equivalent to saying finding n linearly independent eigenvectors for that matrix, right. Finding eigenvector means first you have to find the eigenvalues anyway. So that is a problem we want to take.

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Linear independence of eigenvectors



Theorem
 Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ be distinct eigenvalues of a square matrix A . Let $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$ be a corresponding choice of eigenvectors. Then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$ is a linearly independent set.

Proof:
 Let $\ell \leq r$ be the smallest integer such that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_\ell\}$ is linearly dependent.
 In that case $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{\ell-1}\}$ is linearly independent, and hence there exists scalars $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{\ell-1}$, not all zero, such that

$$\mathbf{v}_\ell = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_{\ell-1} \mathbf{v}_{\ell-1}. \quad (1)$$

Then

$$\lambda_\ell \mathbf{v}_\ell = A \mathbf{v}_\ell = A \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} \alpha_i \mathbf{v}_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} \alpha_i A \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} \alpha_i \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i \quad (2)$$

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So first of all, there is an observation that supposing you have got $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ are distinct eigenvalues of a square matrix. All the eigenvalues may not be distinct, right are the roots of the characteristic polynomial. So roots can repeat, right. So let us assume out of the n , $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ are distinct eigenvalues of the given matrix and $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$ are the corresponding eigenvectors, right.

Then the claim is this set is linearly independent. So what we are saying is even though all the eigenvalues need not be distinct, but if you collect the eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues, they will form a linearly independent set, right. So at least there is some achievement. They may not be, all of them may not be distinct, but whatever are distinct, for each one of them, we find an eigenvector.

So that many linearly independent vectors we have got, okay. So let us prove this. So let us assume, see this number is r . There are r linearly independent, sorry r eigenvalues. So let us assume that l , there is a number $l \leq r$, with the smallest integers is that $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_l$ is linearly dependent set, right. Assume that there is a number l , such that $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_l$ is linearly dependent, okay. Suppose such as thing exist, okay and let us pick up the smallest of them, right.

That means what, if l is the smallest, such that $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_l$ is linearly dependent set, then lesser l will be independent, right. This is the smallest vector, which is linearly dependent. So if you take

less, then that should be independent. So that means that, if you look at V_1, V_2, \dots, V_{l-1} , that is a linearly independent set, right. So that means what, so there is this scalars not all 0, such that, see this is linearly independent.

So V_l must be a linear combination of right, because that is the dependent. V_1, V_2, \dots, V_l is linearly dependent and V_1, V_2, \dots, V_{l-1} is independent. That means V_l must be a linear combination of the other 1. So let us write, so let us V_l be $= \alpha_1 V_1 + \alpha_2 V_2 + \dots + \alpha_{l-1} V_{l-1}$, where all of them cannot be 0, right. Because if all of them are 0, then V_l will be 0, okay, that is an eigenvector. So eigenvector cannot be 0 right, V_l is eigenvector. So we assume that is an eigenvector.

So that cannot be 0. So at least 1 of them is non-zero. $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{l-1}$, 1 of the scalars is not =0. So that is, so let us keep that. So let us multiply both sides by the scalar α_l . Then what you will get. So $\alpha_l V_l$ will be $= \lambda \alpha_l$, right, okay. So what is $A(V_l)$? See λV_l , λ is an eigenvalue. So what is λV_l . That is $=A(V_l)$, right? Because V_l is the eigenvector for the eigenvalue, right λ .

So this is because this is an eigenvalue and V_l is an eigenvector, but what is V_l from this equation, that is a linear combination. So we put this value here, okay and use linearity of A , so $A(\sum \alpha_i V_i)$, right. But $A(V_i)$, again each V_i is again a eigenvector, so what is this equal to $A(V_i)$, that is $\lambda_i (V_i)$, right. Is it okay? So the first equation is because V_l is an eigenvalue and from 1, this value is put here, right A of the summation.

And then by linearity, this is $\sum \alpha_i A(V_i)$ and each V_i being eigenvector, this is nothing but $\lambda_i (V_i)$, okay. So let us keep this equation as 2. From this equation also, I can multiply both sides. If I multiply both sides by λ , what is λV_l ? That is $\alpha_1 \lambda V_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda V_2 + \dots + \alpha_{l-1} \lambda V_{l-1}$, right. So I can multiply this equation also both sides by λ , I will get another value of λV_l .

So these 2 must be equal then, after multiplication, right. So multiplying this by λV_l , it will get the next equation.

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Linear Independence of eigenvectors

Also, from (1)

$$\lambda_\ell \mathbf{v}_\ell = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} \lambda_i \alpha_i \mathbf{v}_i. \quad (3)$$



Thus, from (2) and (3) we have:

$$\mathbf{0} = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} \alpha_i (\lambda_\ell - \lambda_i) \mathbf{v}_i.$$

The linear independence of $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{\ell-1}\}$ implies that

$$\alpha_i (\lambda_\ell - \lambda_i) = 0, \quad \text{for all } i.$$

Since, α_i is not zero for some i , we get $\lambda_\ell - \lambda_i = 0$ for that i , which is not possible as $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ are all distinct. Hence, $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ are linearly independent. ■

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So $\lambda_\ell \mathbf{v}_\ell = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} \lambda_i \alpha_i \mathbf{v}_i$, so from the 2 and 3, if I subtract the 2 equations, right both give me value of $\lambda_\ell \mathbf{v}_\ell$, right. So this is $\lambda_\ell \mathbf{v}_\ell$ as equation, this is 1 value and the other value is this, so subtract the 2, you get $0 = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} \alpha_i (\lambda_\ell - \lambda_i) \mathbf{v}_i$, that is the scalar comes out $\lambda_\ell - \lambda_i$, $i=1$ to $\ell-1$, right. Subtracting the 2 equations, that is all. Now I know that \mathbf{v}_i s are linearly independent and this is a linear combination, which is equal to 0. So that means what?

All the scalars must be equal to 0. So $\alpha_i (\lambda_\ell - \lambda_i)$ must be equal to 0, but at least 1 of the α_i is not equal to 0, right. That means for that particular i , $\lambda_\ell - \lambda_i$ must be equal to 0. If that product has to be 0. That means for that particular i , λ_ℓ will be equal to λ_i , but that is not possible because they are distinct. So our assumption must be wrong, right. So that is what we are saying. So by linear independence, all these scalars must be 0.

But for some α_i is not 0, so that means for some i , λ_i must be equal to λ_ℓ , which is a contradiction, because all are given to be distinct. So that means we assume there is ℓ , so that $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_\ell$ is linearly dependent, that means that is nothing, does not exist. That means all of them are linearly independent.

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Diagonalization

Theorem
If a $n \times n$ matrix A , has n distinct eigenvalues then A is diagonalizable.


If the characteristic polynomial has a multiple root there could be a problem.

Example: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Let us find its eigenvalues and eigenvectors. **Solution:**
 The characteristic polynomial is $D(t) = (t - 1)^2$.
 Hence only one eigenvalue which is repeated.

To find eigenvectors, we note that $A - I_2 = A - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is itself in reduced row echelon form.

Further its null space is $\mathcal{N}(A - I_2) = \mathbb{R} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, i.e., the span of the eigenvectors is only 1-dimensional, and hence there does not exist a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 consisting of eigenvectors. Thus A is not diagonalizable.



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So the theorem says, that if λ_1, λ_2 are distinct eigenvalues of the square matrix, and you pick up an eigenvector for each 1 of these eigenvalues, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r , then that is a linearly independent set. That means the eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent, right. So that is it. So in case we have all eigenvalues are distinct, then you will get n linearly independent eigenvectors. You are very lucky, okay.

If not, then the problem can come. So the problem can come, if the characteristic polynomial has multiple roots, right, a root is repeated, right and for that particular eigenvalue, you may be able to find 1 or 2 eigenvectors. We do not know, right. So let us look at an example. So let us look at the example of matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, right. So how do we find the eigenvalues? This is $A - \lambda I$, determinant = 0. So that will give you $(1 - \lambda)^2 = 0$, right.

Determinant of that will be $(t - 1)^2$, if t is the variable you are introducing. If $\lambda = 1$, so that means what, so there is only 1 eigenvalue, right and that has got, it is repeating, right. So there is 1 eigenvalue $t = 1$ and that is repeating, okay. So let us find the eigenvector corresponding to that eigenvalue. So how do you find the eigenvector? So look at the eigenvalue, what is the eigenvalue, $t = 1$. So $A - \lambda I$, right. So what is $A - \lambda I$? $\begin{bmatrix} 1 - 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - 1 \end{bmatrix}$ that becomes $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, okay.

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ that becomes 0, so everything is 0 except the second entry in the first row, right. So that $A - \lambda I$ for $\lambda = 1$. So what, this itself is in reduced row echelon form. We do not have to do

anything, right. So what is the rank of this matrix. We want to solve, homogenous system $A - \lambda I$ applied to $X=0$. We have to find solutions, to find eigenvectors for that, right. So for that, we have to know what is the rank of this. So what is the rank of this matrix?

That is 1, right. So rank is 1, so what is null t, that is equal to 1, $\text{rank} + \text{null t} = \text{the dimension}$, right. So null t means what, for the homogenous system, that is the dimension of the solution space. So dimension is 1. That means there is only 1 linearly independent eigenvector for the eigenvalue $\lambda=1$, right. We can find that. So how do you find that? So this applied $X_1, X_2=0$, right. So what does it mean? You can give X to any value, right 1, what is X_1 .

You can give it 0. So you get $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ as solution for this space, right. So this is 1 dimensional, so this solution space of $A - \lambda I$, $\lambda=1$ is of dimension 1 and you get a vector for this, which spans this one dimensional. So $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, right that is one of the vectors. So there is only 1 eigenvalue and that is repeated, but there is only 1 eigenvector. So that means what, I cannot find a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 consisting of eigenvectors. So what does the previous theorem tell me.

This matrix is not diagonalizable, right, because there is only 1 eigenvalue and for that eigenvalue, $\lambda=1$, I can find only 1 linearly independent eigenvector because the solution space has got dimension 1, right. So it depends on for a root, if it is repeated, can I find that many linearly independent eigenvectors for it or not, right. Essentially it boils down to that. So let us keep some names to these things.

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Algebraic/geometric multiplicity, defect

Henceforth, we denote $\mathcal{N}(A - \lambda I_n)$ as $E_\lambda = E_\lambda(A)$ and call it the λ -eigenspace of A .

Definition (Algebraic multiplicity)
 Let λ be an eigenvalue of A . The multiplicity of λ as a root of the characteristic polynomial $D_A(t)$ is called the **algebraic multiplicity** of λ . We write this number as $m_\lambda = m_\lambda(A)$.

Definition (Geometric multiplicity)
 Let λ be an eigenvalue of A . The dimension of the null space of $A - \lambda I_n$ is known as the **geometric multiplicity** of λ . We write this number as $g_\lambda = g_\lambda(A)$.

Definition (Defect)
 Let λ be an eigenvalue of A . The difference $m_\lambda - g_\lambda$ is known as the **defect** of λ and is denoted $\delta_\lambda = \delta_\lambda(A)$.

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So for the null space of $A - \lambda I$ that is solution space, we will start denoting it as E_λ , that is Eigen-subspace for the eigenvalue λ , right. All the vectors, which form a solution for $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$; applied $X=0$, right. So that is null space of that matrix. We have different names, okay. So what is, so we will start calling if λ is an eigenvalue, that means it is a root of the characteristic polynomial and root may be repeated.

So the number of times it is repeated, that is called the algebraic multiplicity of that eigenvalue. So as a root of the characteristic polynomial, it will be at least appearing once, because it is a root. It may appear twice, thrice or so many times, so number of times it appears, that is called algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalue, right and we denote it by M_λ . So that is M_λ or M_λ of A depending on if you want to stress, that is the matrix A .

So that is the algebraic multiplicity. Now on the other hand, for this eigenvalue, we are interested in eigenvectors, right. So how many eigenvectors exist and how many exists? That depends on the dimension of the null space. So that we call it as geometric multiplicity of the eigenvalue. So what is geometric multiplicity? That is the dimension of the null space of $A - \lambda I_n$. So that is same as the nullity of this matrix. Nullity gives the dimension, so that is called the geometric multiplicity and geometric multiplicity is written g_λ or g_λ of A .

So g for geometric multiplicity, M_λ for algebraic multiplicity, right. So when do you think a matrix will be diagonalizable? There may be roots, which are repeated, right, but if you count with multiplicity, there are N roots for a matrix of order $n \times n$. Some of the roots may be repeated, right, but for the roots, which are repeated, there are number of times it is repeated is algebraic multiplicity. Dimension of the null space of $A - \lambda A$ is geometric multiplicity.

If as many independent you can find as algebraic multiplicity, then you are through, right. then you will have total number of eigenvectors will be linearly independent and they will be n , right. So if it is less as happened in the previous example, $\lambda=1$ was an eigenvalue of multiplicity 2, algebraic, but geometric it was only 1. So that was lot of the defect in diagonalizing the matrix, right. So sometimes this number is called the defect for the matrix to be diagonalizable.

If both are equal, then it will become diagonalizable, right. Because for each eigenvalue, we will have as many eigenvector as is the algebraic multiplicity. So put them together, you will have a linearly independent basis, linearly independent set of eigenvectors forming a basis. So we can diagonalize that, okay. So that is what, so this is what normally called the defect, but that is not really important, okay, what you call that difference, okay.

Algebraic multiplicity will always be bigger than geometric multiplicity. Is that clear? Yes. The number of times root is repeated algebraically that many eigenvectors, you may not be able to find. You will be able to find only less of them, because they are independent.



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Diagonalization

Theorem
If the algebraic and the geometric multiplicities of an $n \times n$ matrix agree for every eigenvalue λ of A , then there exists a basis of \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A

Proof:
 Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be the distinct eigenvalues of A with multiplicities m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k respectively.
 Let $B_j = \{\mathbf{v}_{j1}, \mathbf{v}_{j2}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{jm_j}\}$ be a basis of E_{λ_j} , $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$.
 Then $B = \bigcup_j B_j$ will be an A -eigenbasis of \mathbb{R}^n .
 (Note that $m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_k = \deg D_A(t) = n$.)

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So theorem says if the algebraic and the geometric multiplicity of a matrix agree, for every value eigenvalue lambda, then the matrix is; then there is a basis consisting of eigenvectors and hence the matrix is diagonalizable, right. So it is quite clear what is the proof. Basically, for each if they are distinct eigenvalues with multiplicity M1, M2, and Mk, right for each we can find a basis right of as many as the algebraic multiplicity. So find the basis and put all the basis together.

For each eigenvalue, there is eigenspace, there is a basis, which has as many eigenvectors as is the algebraic multiplicity, if they are equal. Put them together, you will get a basis consisting of eigenvectors for the underlying space \mathbb{R}^n , okay. So their sum is equal to the degree of that is equal to \mathbb{R} , right. Algebraic multiplicity equal to geometric multiplicity, total= n , so for each one of them, there is a basis, put them together. So there is nothing complicated in this theorem.

Basically, that is how you will analyse whether a matrix is diagonalizable or not. So the main problem is given a matrix to show it is diagonalizable or not, what we have to do? We have to find, for the given matrix, what are the eigenvalues. Once you have the eigenvalues, find out corresponding eigenvectors, right. Find out the dimension of the corresponding eigenspace that is same as the null space of $A - \lambda I$, right.

If each is equal to the algebraic multiplicity dimensionality of $A - \lambda I$ = the algebraic multiplicity, then we are through, then we can find a basis consisting of eigenvectors, right.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:37)

The slide is titled "Similarity of matrices and diagonalization". It contains three main sections:

- Definition (Similarity):** Let A and B be two $n \times n$ matrices. We say A is similar to B if there is an invertible matrix P such that $B = P^{-1}AP$.
- Theorem:** If A and B are similar, then both have the same eigenvalues with the same multiplicities -both algebraic and geometric.
- Theorem (Diagonalization):** Let A be diagonalizable i.e. each eigenvalue of A is defect-free. Then A is similar to a diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are the eigenvalues of A , each occurring as many times as its multiplicity.

At the bottom of the slide, there are logos for NPTEL and CDEEP (Department of Mathematics, IIT Bombay), along with the name Prof. Indir K. Rana.

These are just rewording the things. We say 2 matrices A and B are similar if A can be obtained from B or B can be obtained from A by this process. $B = P^{-1}AP$, where P is invertible, right. So in terms of this the diagonalizability can be said as a matrix, any matrix A is similar to a diagonal matrix, if and only if, the algebraic multiplicities are equal to the geometric matrix and we can find that. So that is also the diagonalization process.

So we are rewriting in terms of the terminology of 1 or 2 matrices said to be similar because that useful later on in the other context also. So for us, it says that a matrix A is diagonalizable or similar to a diagonal matrix if and only if you can find an eigen basis. That means find a basis consisting of eigenvectors and that is same as, for each eigenvalue, the algebraic multiplicity is same as the geometric multiplicity.