

XI. Change of Basis, Diagonalization

Given ✓

Motivation: want to write down an expression for

$$T^m = \underbrace{T \circ \dots \circ T}_{m \text{ times}}$$

↑ (fixing basis)

Given $A \in \text{Mat}_{n \times n}$, compute $\underbrace{A^m = A \circ \dots \circ A}_{\text{can be very troublesome}}$

computing A^m can be troublesome, but there are some special convenient cases.

e.g., when A is "diagonal", i.e. $a_{ij} \neq 0 \Rightarrow i=j$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} := \text{diag.}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

$$\Rightarrow A^m = \text{diag.}(a_1^m, \dots, a_n^m)$$

Q: Given $T: (\mathbb{R}^n, \beta) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^n, \beta)$. can we find an alternative basis γ so that

$$T: (\mathbb{R}^n, \gamma) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^n, \gamma)$$

has matrix $[T]_\gamma^\gamma = \text{diag.}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$?

If we can, what is the relationship between
 $[T]_\beta^\beta$ and $[T]_\gamma^\gamma$?

An elementary example:

$$\text{on } \mathbb{R}^2, \quad \beta = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$T: (\mathbb{R}^2, \beta) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^2, \beta) \quad \text{defined by}$$

$$T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2x+3y \\ 2x+y \end{pmatrix} \quad ; \quad [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If we choose $\gamma = \{\gamma_1, \gamma_2\}$ so that

$$(\gamma_1)_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\gamma_2)_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

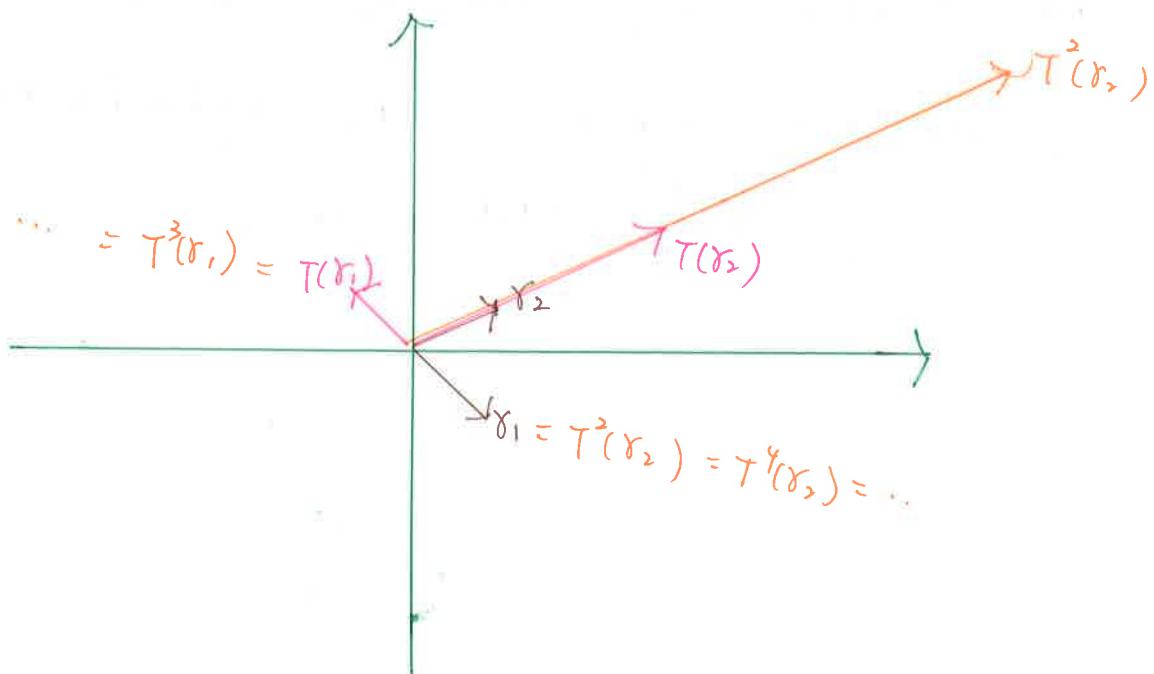
$$\rightarrow (\gamma_1)_{\beta} = (T(1))_{\beta} - (T(0))_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = -(-1)$$

or, without coordinate, $T(\gamma_1) = -\gamma_1$

$$\rightarrow (T(\gamma_2))_{\beta} = (T(1))_{\beta} + \frac{2}{3}(T(0))_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{8}{3} \\ \frac{8}{3} \end{pmatrix} = 4 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$T(\gamma_2) = 4\gamma_2.$$

We conclude: $[T]_{\gamma}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ and $([T]_{\gamma}^{\gamma})^m = \begin{pmatrix} (-1)^m & 0 \\ 0 & 4^m \end{pmatrix}$



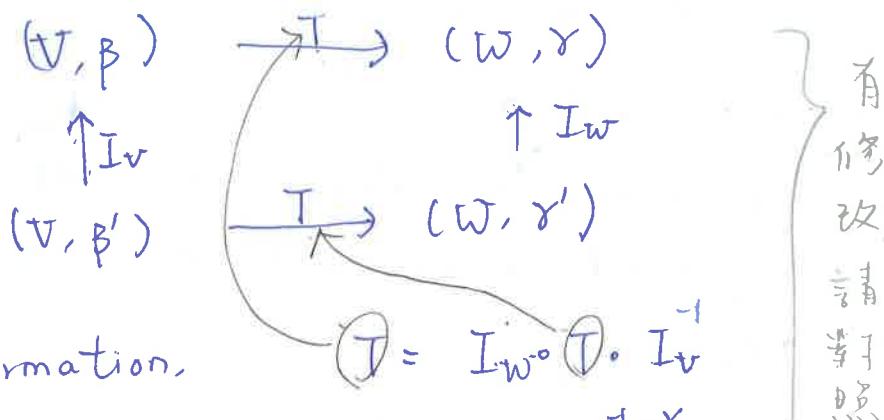
* Choice of Basis vs. Matrix Representation

Given $T: V \rightarrow W$, choose two sets of bases

$\beta = \{\beta_j\}_{j=1}^n, \beta' = \{\beta'_j\}_{j=1}^n$ for V and

$\gamma = \{\gamma_i\}_{i=1}^m, \gamma' = \{\gamma'_i\}_{i=1}^m$ for W .

What is the relationship between $[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$ and $[T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'}$?



As transformation,

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = [I_w \circ T \circ I_v^{-1}]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$$

$$= [I_w]_{\gamma'}^{\gamma} [T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} ([I_v]_{\beta}^{\beta'})^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow [T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} = ([I_w]_{\gamma'}^{\gamma})^{-1} [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} [I_v]_{\beta}^{\beta'} \quad \text{⊕}$$

↑ change of coordinate matrices

i.e. $\beta = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n\}, \beta' = \{\beta'_1, \dots, \beta'_n\}$

$$\Rightarrow [I_v]_{\beta'}^{\beta} = ((\beta'_1)_{\beta}, \dots, (\beta'_n)_{\beta}) ; \text{ column } j \text{ is coordinate representation of } \beta'_j \text{ in basis } \beta$$

We have the correspondence

$$L(V, W) \hookrightarrow \underset{\sim}{\text{Mat}}_{m \times n} \quad \text{"equivalent class"}$$

$$A \sim B \Leftrightarrow A = QBP,$$

an equivalent relation, since

$$\textcircled{1} A = I_m A I_n \Rightarrow A \sim A$$

$$\textcircled{2} A \sim B \Rightarrow A = QBP \Rightarrow B = Q^{-1}AP' \Rightarrow B \sim A$$

$$\textcircled{3} A \sim B \text{ & } B \sim C \Rightarrow A = QBP \text{ & } B = Q'C P' \Rightarrow A = QQ'C P'P \Rightarrow A \sim C$$

In particular, we discuss $T = W$ & $\beta = \gamma$ (4)

\oplus becomes

$$\begin{aligned} [T]_{\beta'}^{\beta} &= [I_V]_{\beta}^{\beta'} [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} [I_V]_{\beta}^{\beta}, \\ &= ([I_V]_{\beta}^{\beta})^{-1} [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} [I_V]_{\beta}^{\beta} \end{aligned}$$

Two $n \times n$ matrices are called similar if

$$B = \underbrace{Q^{-1} A Q}_{A \text{ conjugated with } Q}$$

Two similar matrices represent the same linear transformation, with appropriate choices of basis:

i.e. $B = Q^{-1} A Q$

If $A = [T]_{\beta}^{\beta}$ $\Rightarrow B = [T]_{\beta'}^{\beta'}$, where $Q = [I_V]_{\beta}^{\beta'}$

and we have the correspondence

$$L(W, V) \leftrightarrow \text{Mat}_{n \times n}/\sim$$

$A \sim B \Leftrightarrow A$ is similar to

Back to the elementary example.

$\beta = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$, $\beta' = \{(-1, 1), (2, 3)\}$: clearly.

加註 $\rightarrow \beta_1 = (-1, 1)$, $\beta_2 = (2, 3)$ in coordinates $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^n$

$$\Rightarrow Q = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow Q^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2/5 & -3/5 \\ 3/5 & 3/5 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2/5 & -3/5 \\ 3/5 & 3/5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonalization of $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Dragonization is a convenient tool to describe (5)

$$T^m = T \circ \dots \circ T$$

'm times'

Observe: if $B = Q^{-1}AQ \Rightarrow B^m = Q^{-1}A^mQ$ (induction)

and if $B = \text{diag. } (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) \Rightarrow B^m = \text{diag. } (\lambda_1^m, \dots, \lambda_n^m)$

$$\Rightarrow A^m = Q \text{ diag. } (\lambda_1^m, \dots, \lambda_n^m) Q^{-1}$$

In the elementary example, we have,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^m = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2/3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (-1)^m & 0 \\ 0 & 4^m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2/5 & -3/5 \\ 3/5 & 3/5 \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{This is}}$$

But we still need to find the $\{\gamma_j\}_{j=1}^n$ so that

$$[T]_Y^\gamma = \text{diag. } (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n).$$

* Diagonalization

Defn Given $T \in L(V, V)$, a vector $\overset{0}{\underset{\text{for}}{\text{if}}} v \in V$ is an eigenvector of T if $T(v) = \lambda v$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. λ is called the corresponding eigenvalue.

Observe a necessary condition for λ and v is that $v \in N(T - \lambda I)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Since } T(v) = \lambda v &\Rightarrow T(v) - \lambda v = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow T(v) - \lambda I(v) = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow (T - \lambda I)(v) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

\therefore for any basis β of V , $(v)_\beta \in N([T - \lambda I]_\beta^\beta)$

since $v \neq 0 \Rightarrow N([T - \lambda I]_\beta^\beta) \neq \{0\} \Rightarrow [T - \lambda I]_\beta^\beta$ not invertible

$$\Rightarrow \det([T - \lambda I_n]_\beta^\beta) = 0.$$

OR $\det([T]_\beta^\beta - \lambda I_n) = 0$
eg. to solve for λ .

Note: $\det([T]_\beta^\beta - \lambda I_n)$ is a polynomial in λ of degree $\leq n$

\therefore There are at most n eigenvalues,

and for each λ_i , $1 \leq i \leq n$, we row reduce $[T - \lambda_i I]_\beta^\beta$ to find its null space, whose basis elements are corresponding eigenvectors v .

If we can find n independent eigenvectors v_1, \dots, v_n
 \Rightarrow they form a basis called eigenbasis, and
 $\gamma = \{v_j\}_{j=1}^n$

$$[T]_{\gamma}^{\gamma} = \text{diag}(\underbrace{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_1}_{m_1}, \underbrace{\lambda_2 \dots \lambda_2}_{m_2}, \dots, \underbrace{\lambda_r \dots \lambda_r}_{m_r})$$

where $m_j = \text{nullity of } [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} - \lambda_j I_n$

and T (or the matrix $[T]_{\beta}^{\beta}$) is called diagonalizable

e.g. $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ w/

$$A = [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad ; \quad \beta = \{e_j\}_{j=1}^3$$

Find eigenvalues (& eigenvectors) of A

$$\det(A - \lambda I_3) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (1-\lambda)(2-\lambda)(3-\lambda)$$

\therefore eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2, \lambda_3 = 3$

$$\lambda_1 = 1 \rightarrow N \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \text{Sp} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}^{U_1} ; T(U_1) = U_1$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2 \rightarrow N \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) = N \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \text{Sp} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}^{U_2} ; T(U_2) = 2U_2$$

$$\lambda_3 = 3 \rightarrow N \left(\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ 2x_1 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \text{Sp} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}^{U_3} ; T(U_3) = 3U_3$$

$$\therefore w \cdot [T]_{\gamma}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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OR

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^n$.

Of course, things are not always this nice:
 we can't always solve $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ on \mathbb{R} ,
 and even if we do, we don't always get
 n distinct roots.

Moreover, even if λ_j is a root of algebraic
 multiplicity m_j (that is, $\det(A - \lambda I) = (\lambda - \lambda_j)^{m_j} \dots)$
 it doesn't always give m_j linearly independent
 eigenvectors ...

$$\text{eg, } A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det(A - \lambda I_3) = (1-\lambda)^2(3-\lambda) \quad \left(\begin{array}{cc} A - \lambda I & \text{is} \\ \text{upper} & \Delta \end{array} \right)$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3 \rightarrow A - 3I_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \text{nullity} = 1$$

$$\lambda_2 = 1 \rightarrow A - I_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \text{nullity} \geq 1$$

\therefore only get 2 eigenvectors, can't form eigenbasis \Rightarrow A not diagonalizable.

eg,

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

$$\det(A - \lambda I_4) = \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= -\lambda \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} - \det \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\lambda \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda^4 + 1 \rightarrow \text{no real solution!}$$

\therefore A is not diagonalizable

Facts:

- ① If $\det(A - \lambda I_n)$ has n distinct roots $\Rightarrow A$ is diagonalizable (HW. problem)
 - ② If $A \in \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ is symmetric ($A = A^T$), then A is diagonalizable
 - ③ If $A \in \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{C})$ is "self-adjoint" ($a_{ji} = \overline{a_{ij}}$), then A is diagonalizable.
- } Next Semester.

- End of Fall 2014 -