

Guest Lecture — Change of Basis & Matrix

Diagonalization

(Jonathan) Tyler Reichanadter

○ Introduction ~ Who am I?

Howdy!

I'm Tyler



- * I'm a GSI, but behind the curtains!
- * 4th year PhD, research in "computational quantum materials"
- * Enjoy weight-lifting, soccer, improv, through-hiking, moshi, etc.
- * Raised in Seattle, undergrad for math and physics in Boulder, Colorado.

Let's zoom out for one moment...
... and take in the forest for the trees.

1 Recap

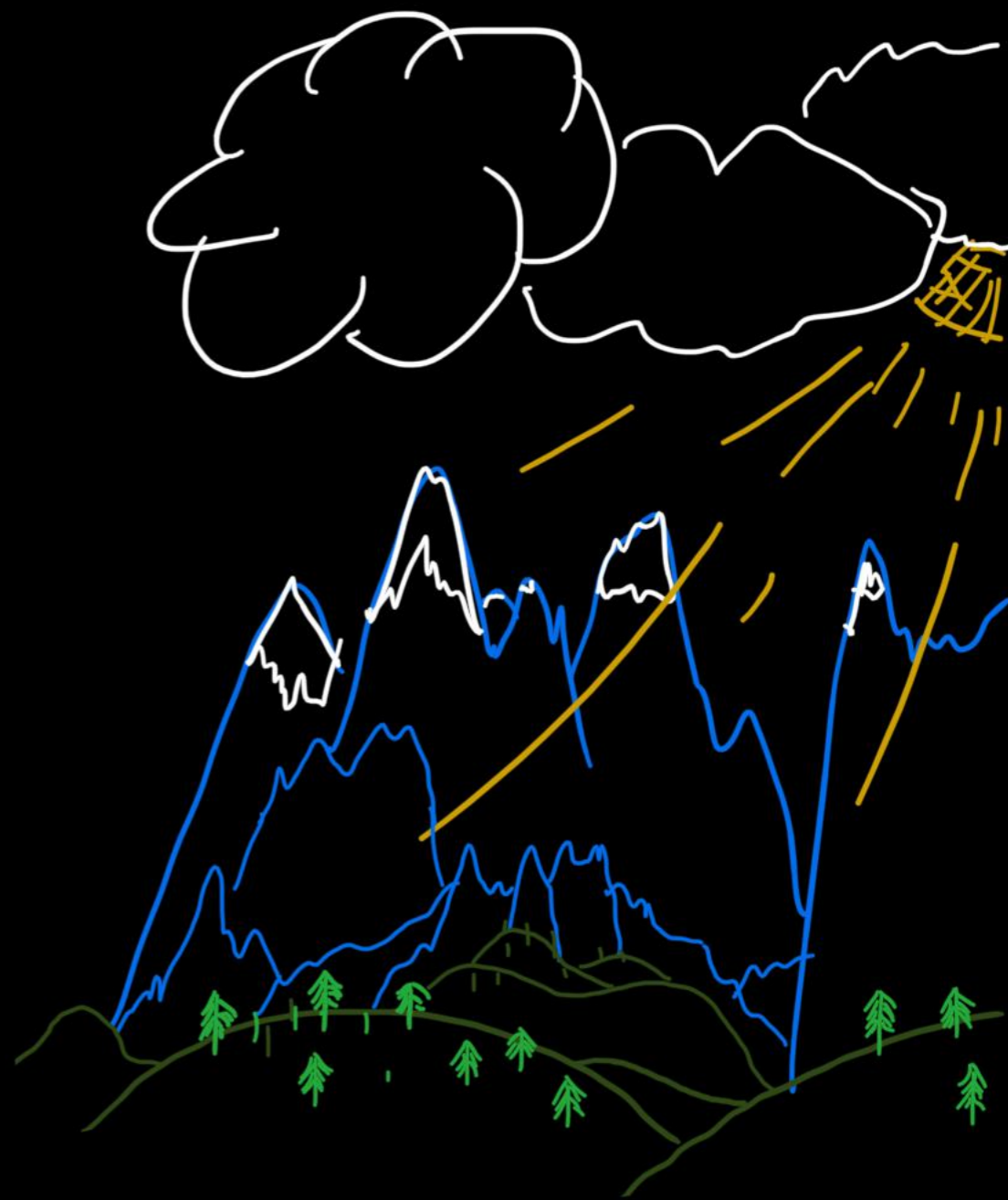
"What have we done in EECS 16A so far?"

- (1) set of eqns
- ↓
- (2) matrix-vector
- ↓
- (3) gaussian elimination
- ↓
- (4) span, linear independence
- ↓
- (5) matrices as transformations
- ↓
- (6) matrix inversion
- ↓
- (7) column space, null space
- ↓
- (8) eigenvalue & eigenspace
- ↓
- (9) change of basis

[Module 1: DONE]



yay!



Let's cover our eigenstuff once more.
Just to check our bases.

2 Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

$$A \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$$

Must be square! $A^{n \times n}$
But why?
 $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Any number at all!
What does $\lambda = 0$ imply?

Any non-zero vector
Why not $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$?
 $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ becomes trivial case ($A\vec{0} = \vec{0}$ regardless of A)

$A \vec{v} = \vec{0}$ A has a nontrivial nullspace!

Otherwise an equation like this could never be true

$$v_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} + v_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} + \dots + v_n \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \vec{0}$$

* Equivalent statements:

- (1) Columns of A are linearly dependent (lin. ind.)
- (2) A is not invertible.
- (3) $\det(A) = 0$.

Refresher!

Suppose we have a vector space as defined

$\text{span} \{ \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_k \}$ $\xrightarrow{+}$ Spans \mathbb{R}^n , if at least $k \geq n$ AND \vec{a}_j 's are lin. ind. ^{at least 'n'}

(note each $\vec{a}_j \in \mathbb{R}^n$) \rightarrow is a Basis for \mathbb{R}^n , if $k = n$ AND ALL \vec{a}_j 's are lin. ind.

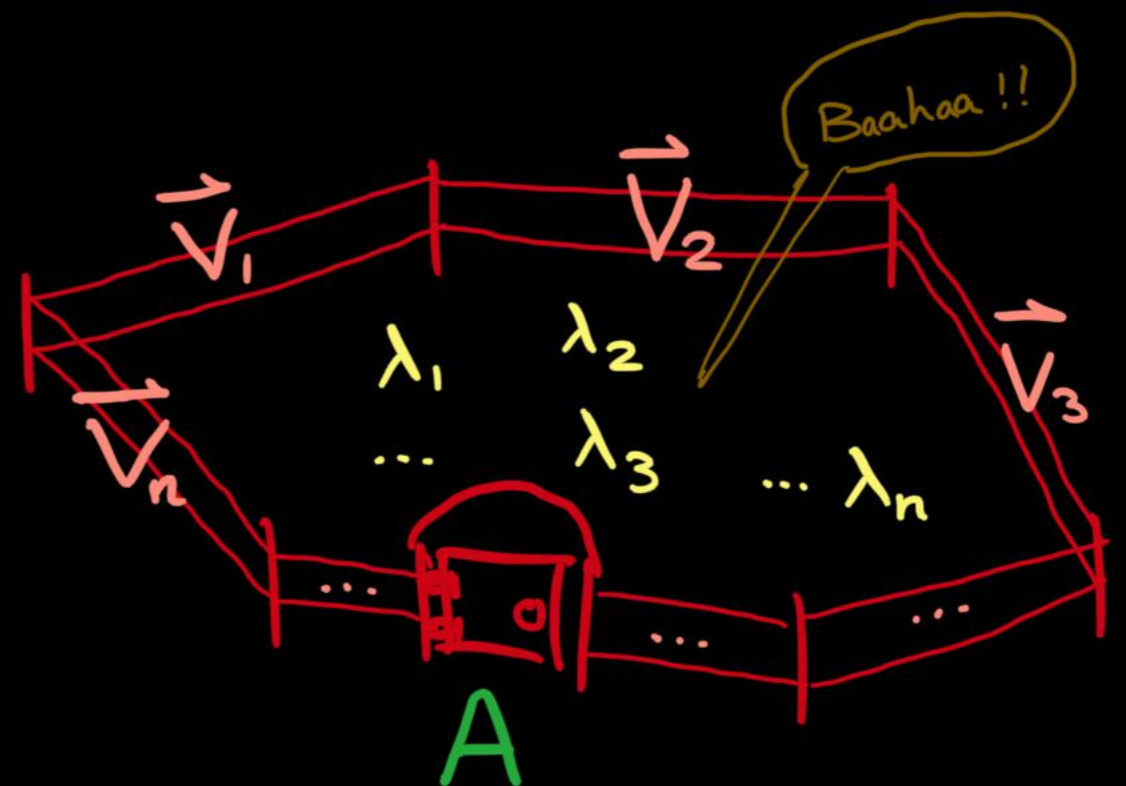
Eigenvalue / vector Machinery:

1. Form $B_\lambda = A - \lambda I$
2. Find each λ yielding a non-empty nullspace for B_λ
(equivalently, solve $\det(B_\lambda) = 0$).
Getting eigenvalues
3. For each λ , get the vector-space $\text{null}(B_\lambda) = \text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$
Getting Eigenvectors

* Note 1. If you are given λ 's already, you can skip to step 3.

* Note 2. If you are given \vec{v} 's already, you get λ 's literally through matrix multiplication $A\vec{v}_j$.

"In a broader sense, the eigenvalues form the heart of a matrix A , and the eigenvectors frame these eigenvalues"



Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\lambda I = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 1: $B_\lambda = A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 7-\lambda & 5 \\ 1 & 3-\lambda \end{bmatrix}$

If $B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$

Step 2: $\det(B_\lambda) = ad - bc$

$$= (7-\lambda)(3-\lambda) - 5$$

$$= \lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 21 - 5$$

$$= \lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 16 \equiv 0$$

~ OR you can 'see' this factors ~

$$= (\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 8) = 0$$

You can always use quadratic formula for $A^{2 \times 2}$ case!

$$\lambda = \frac{-B}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{B^2 - 4C}$$

$$= 5 \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{100 - 64}$$

$$= 5 \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{36}$$

$$= 5 \pm 3 \rightarrow \lambda = 2, 8$$

Step 3: (for $\lambda_1 = 2$)

$$A \vec{v}^{(1)} = \lambda_1 \vec{v}^{(1)} \leadsto B_{\lambda_1} \vec{v}^{(1)} = \vec{0} \quad \text{where } \vec{v}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1^{(1)} \\ v_2^{(1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 & | & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow v_1^{(1)} + \alpha = 0$$

$$\begin{cases} R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{5} R_1 \\ R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1 \end{cases}$$

Free parameter!

$$v_2^{(1)} = \alpha \quad (\text{any } \alpha \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$\vec{v}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} -\alpha \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ +1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Finding $\vec{v}^{(2)}$ for B_{λ_2} is left as an exercise

~ Note! There are "infinite" choices for $\vec{v}^{(1)}$, but it must live in the null-space of B_{λ_1} , which happens to be a 1-dimensional vector space:

$$\vec{v}^{(1)} \in \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ +1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

3 Change of Basis

When we started, we just thought of \vec{r} as an ordered list of numbers. Now we can see it as "coordinates" as well!

Each term tells us how far to move in some "direction"; which is also a vector!

$$\vec{r} = r_1 \vec{e}_1 + r_2 \vec{e}_2 + \dots + r_n \vec{e}_n \iff \text{Equivalently } \mathbb{I} \vec{r} = \vec{r}$$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \dots 0 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \dots 0 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 "Elementary column vectors"

What if we choose a new set of "directions" instead of \vec{e}_j 's?

$$\vec{r} = r_1 \vec{e}_1 + r_2 \vec{e}_2 \quad \leftarrow \text{Original basis}$$

$$\equiv r_1^{(v)} \vec{x}' + r_2^{(v)} \vec{y}' \quad \leftarrow \text{New basis}$$

But check this out!

$$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \vec{x}' & \vec{y}' \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}}_V \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} r_1^{(v)} \\ r_2^{(v)} \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{r}^{(v)}}$$

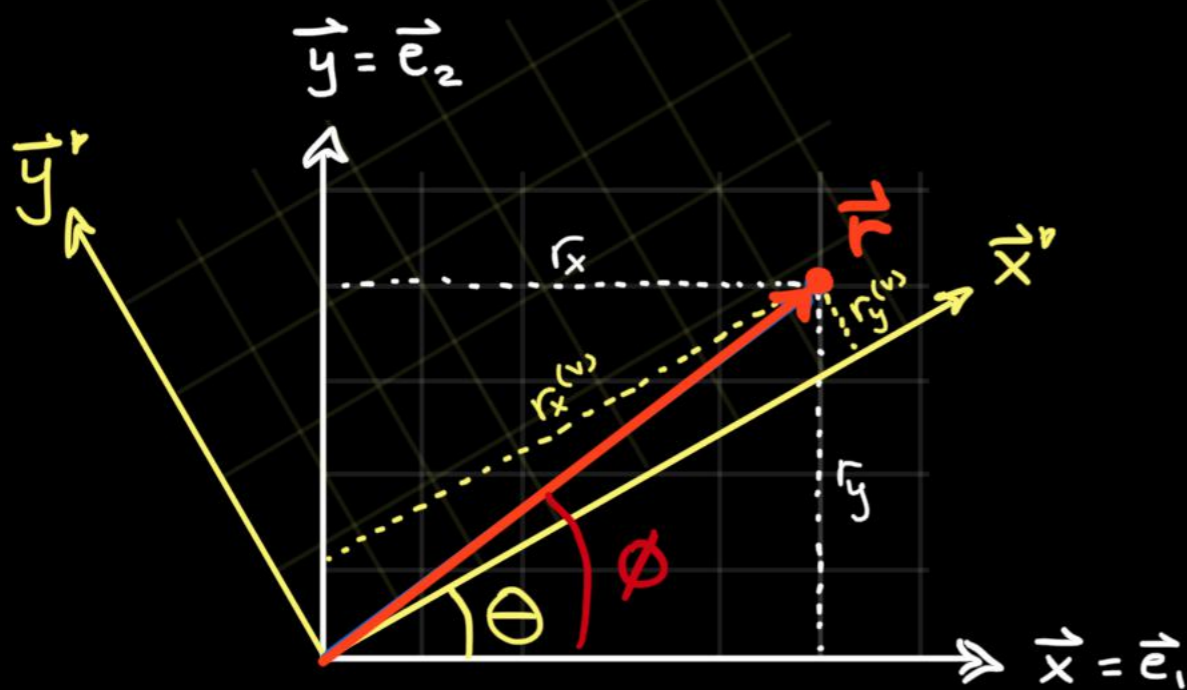
But we want to get $\vec{r}^{(v)}$ from \vec{r} !

So we must invert:

$$\left\{ \vec{r}^{(v)} = V^{-1} \vec{r} \right\}$$

"Same" vector \vec{r} , but written in V basis.

Example: Map \vec{r} from $\{\vec{x}, \vec{y}\}$ basis to $\{\vec{x}', \vec{y}'\}$ basis!



$$\cos(\theta) = c_\theta$$

$$\sin(\theta) = s_\theta$$

$$\vec{x}' = \begin{bmatrix} c_\theta \\ s_\theta \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{y}' = \begin{bmatrix} -s_\theta \\ c_\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} c_\theta & -s_\theta \\ s_\theta & c_\theta \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{matrix} \text{CCW} \\ +\theta \end{matrix}$$

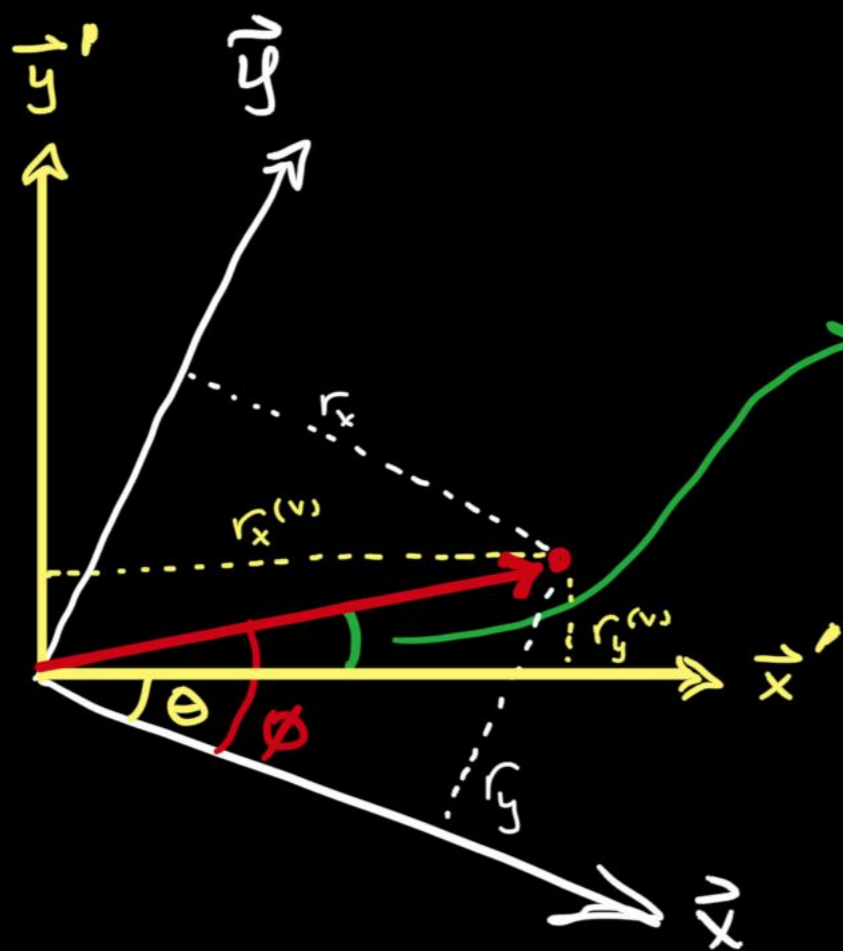
"Rotation by θ "

$$V^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} c_\theta & s_\theta \\ -s_\theta & c_\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Inverse is rotation by $-\theta$!

$$\vec{r}^{(V)} = \begin{bmatrix} c_\theta & s_\theta \\ -s_\theta & c_\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_x \\ r_y \end{bmatrix}$$

Viewing $\vec{r}^{(V)}$ in V basis:



$$= \phi - \theta$$

Just like from the original diagram, the change of basis here appears as a rotation by $-\theta$ CCW of \vec{r} !!

This was a cute example, but
can we generalize?

“What conditions are needed on

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \quad ? \quad \rightarrow$$

Hint 1: Recall that $\vec{r}^{(v)} = V^{-1} \vec{r}$.

Hint 2: What spaces do \vec{r} and $\vec{r}^{(v)}$ live in?

1: All column vectors must
be linearly independent.

2: $V^{n \times n}$ must be square since
 $\vec{r}, \vec{r}^{(v)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Implies there are 'n' \vec{v}_j 's.

Thus...

The \vec{v}_j 's must form a basis!

We may want transform between
two distinct bases $\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2\}$ and $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$:

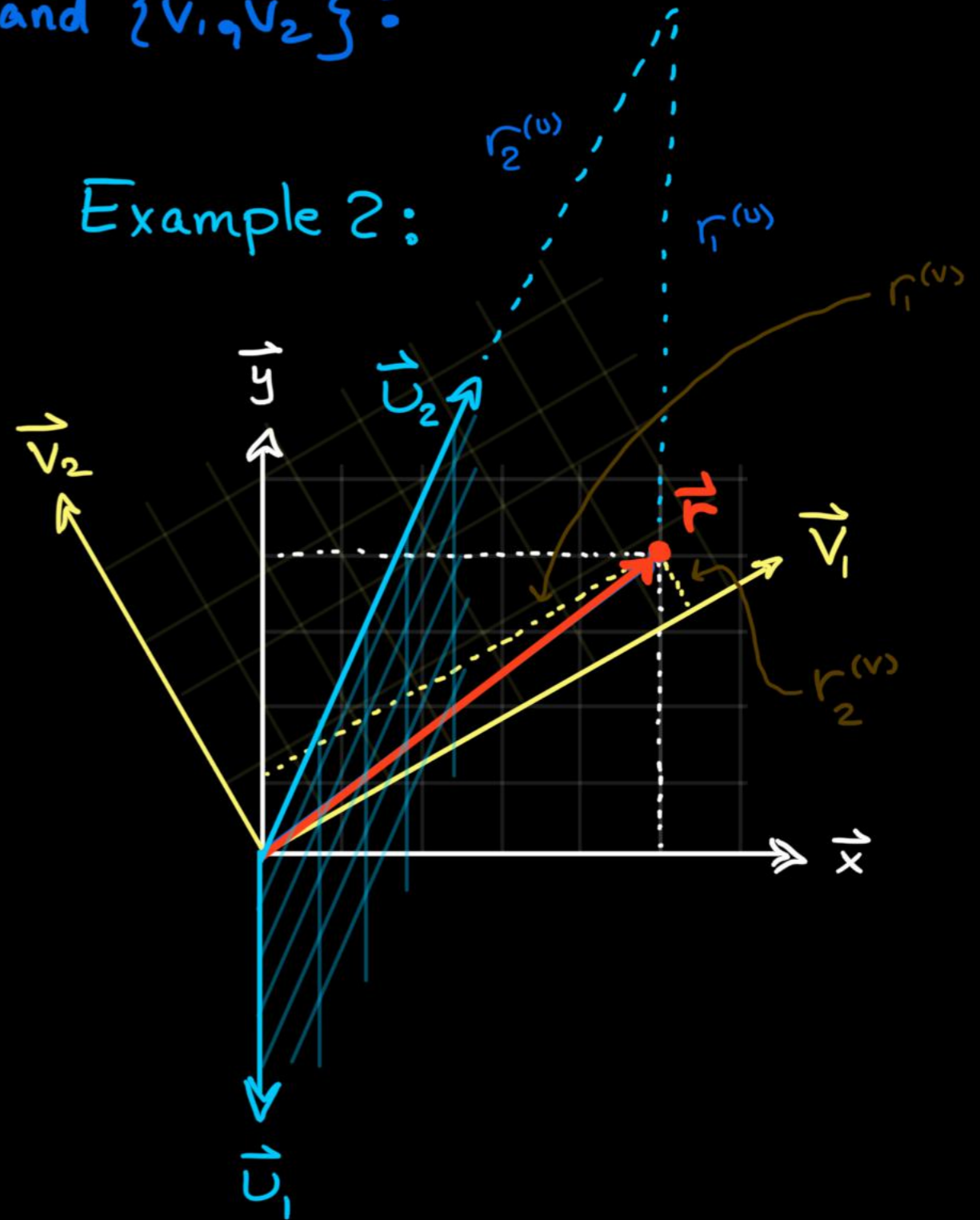
$$\vec{r}^{(u)} \rightarrow \vec{r}^{(v)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} &= r_1^{(v)} \vec{v}_1 + r_2^{(v)} \vec{v}_2 \\ &= r_1^{(u)} \vec{u}_1 + r_2^{(u)} \vec{u}_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{r} = \underbrace{V}_{\text{matrix}} \vec{r}^{(v)} = \underbrace{U}_{\text{matrix}} \vec{r}^{(u)}$$

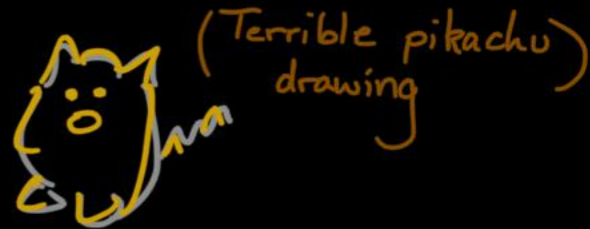
$$\vec{r}^{(v)} = V^{-1} U \vec{r}^{(u)}$$

Example 2:



Epiphany moment

"Can we use eigenvectors as our basis??"



Is that legal? **Yes!**

Well, terms & conditions apply...

Yes, always if all λ 's are distinct.

Most times yes, even if some λ 's repeat.

BUT WAIT!! What if the eigenvectors are linearly dep? :-

Fear Not!

* Claim: Given the eigenvals & vecs $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$ & $(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n)$ for matrix A , if $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ then \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 are linearly ind.

Proof: BY CONTRADICTION

↳ Suppose they are lin. dep., then $\exists \alpha, \beta \neq 0$ s.t. $\alpha \vec{v}_1 + \beta \vec{v}_2 = \vec{0}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{↳ Now } A(\alpha \vec{v}_1 + \beta \vec{v}_2) &= \alpha A\vec{v}_1 + \beta A\vec{v}_2 \\ &= \alpha \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 + \beta \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \\ &= \lambda_1 (\alpha \vec{v}_1 + \beta \vec{v}_2) + (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \beta \vec{v}_2 \end{aligned}$$

However, $A(\alpha \vec{v}_1 + \beta \vec{v}_2) = A\vec{0} = \vec{0}$.

So...

$$\vec{0} = \cancel{\lambda_1 \vec{0}} + (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \beta \vec{v}_2$$

Contradiction!

$$\therefore \alpha \vec{v}_1 + \beta \vec{v}_2 \neq \vec{0}$$

Thus \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 must be linearly independent! \square

Bonus Note:

So if all n eigenvalues λ_j 's are distinct for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then $\text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ forms a basis for \mathbb{R}^n !!

• But... what if you have less than 'n' eigenvalues for A ??

↳ Answer: 1. There are always 'n' eigenvalues, but some may be identical, eg $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 3$.
2. If $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 3$ for example, then $\text{null}(A - \lambda_1 I)$ will most often be 2D.

It's possible to still be 1D, but this is somewhat rare. In this case A is said to be "non-diagonalizable".

4 Matrix Diagonalization

Completing the story: Eigenvectors + Basis Change

$$\vec{x} = x_1^{(v)} \vec{v}_1 + x_2^{(v)} \vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_n \vec{v}_n \rightarrow \vec{x}^{(v)} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(v)} \\ x_2^{(v)} \\ \vdots \\ x_n^{(v)} \end{bmatrix}$$

where: $A\vec{v}_j = \lambda_j \vec{v}_j$

Step 1: Convert \vec{x} to $\vec{x}^{(v)}$ in eigvec basis ($\vec{x}^{(v)} = V^{-1}\vec{x}$)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Step 2: } A\vec{x}^{(v)} &= x_1^{(v)} A\vec{v}_1 + x_2^{(v)} A\vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_n^{(v)} A\vec{v}_n \\ &= x_1^{(v)} \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 + x_2^{(v)} \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_n^{(v)} \lambda_n \vec{v}_n \\ &= \Lambda \vec{x}^{(v)} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Step 3: Convert back from V basis: $A\vec{x} = V(A\vec{x})^{(v)}$
 $\Lambda V^{-1}\vec{x}$

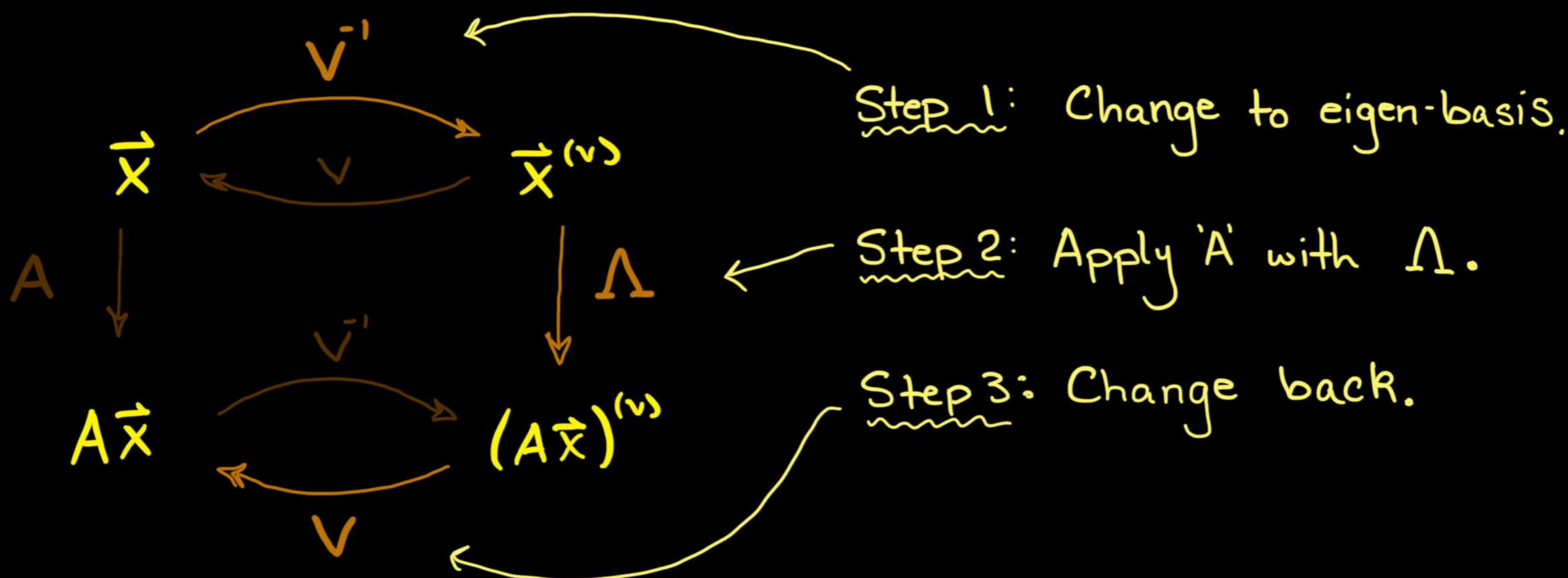
Today's
Punchline:

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

If non-diag, this becomes an upper triangular matrix

columns of eig-vecs eigenvalues on diagonal inv(V)

Diagonalizing Diagram



Is this really useful? Yes!!

* Example 1: Compute A^2

$$A^2 = \underbrace{V \Lambda V^{-1}}_{\text{Identity!}} \underbrace{V \Lambda V^{-1}}_{\text{Diagonal Matrices}} = V \Lambda \Lambda V^{-1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & & \\ & \lambda_2^2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

* Example 2: Compute A^N

$$A^N = \underbrace{V \Lambda V^{-1}} \underbrace{V \Lambda V^{-1}} \dots \underbrace{V \Lambda V^{-1}} = V \Lambda^N V^{-1}$$

In summary, from the diagonal form we can easily compute matrix products!

$$A^N = V \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^N & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2^N & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n^N \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$$

Fun fact: This works beyond integers, e.g. $N = 1/2$.
Even crazier... it works for any function $f(A)$!!

$$\text{Ex: } \log(A) = V \begin{bmatrix} \log(\lambda_1) & & 0 \\ & \log(\lambda_2) & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \log(\lambda_n) \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$$

* Example 3: Compute inverse A^{-1}

Use the same trick!

$$A^{-1} = V \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_1} & & 0 \\ & \frac{1}{\lambda_2} & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix}}_{\Lambda^{-1}} V^{-1}$$

Food for thought:
What happens if $\lambda_i = 0$??

$$\text{Verify } AA^{-1} = V \Lambda V^{-1} V \Lambda^{-1} V^{-1}$$

$$= V \underbrace{\Lambda \Lambda^{-1}} V^{-1}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_1} & & 0 \\ & \frac{1}{\lambda_2} & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}$$

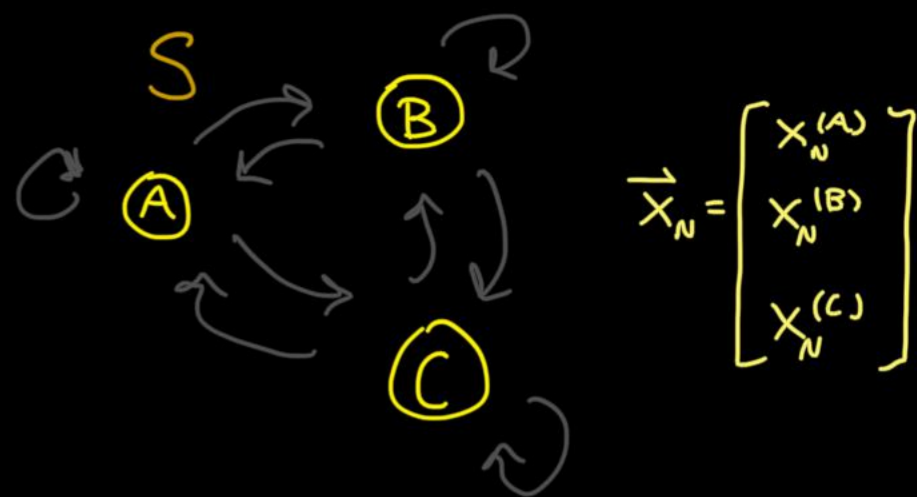
$$= V V^{-1}$$

$$= \mathbf{I} \quad \checkmark$$

* Example 4: Transition matrices!

Suppose we have some system where

$S\vec{x}_{n-1} = \vec{x}_n$. Can we find out what happens in the long run?
(steady state)



→ Start with \vec{x}_0 , so $\vec{x}_1 = S\vec{x}_0$

$$\vec{x}_2 = S\vec{x}_1 = S(S\vec{x}_0) = S^2\vec{x}_0$$

$$\text{thus } \vec{x}_{\text{final}} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S^N \vec{x}_0$$

→ Diagonalize $S = V\Lambda V^{-1}$, so then $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S^N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} V \Lambda^N V^{-1}$

$$= V \begin{bmatrix} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (\lambda_1)^N & & \\ & \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (\lambda_2)^N & \\ & & \dots & \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (\lambda_n)^N \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$$

Cases:

(a) $|\lambda_2| > 1$, blows up $\lambda_2^N \rightarrow \pm \infty$

(b) $|\lambda_2| < 1$, decays $\lambda_2^N \rightarrow 0$

(c) $\lambda_2 = +1$, constant $\lambda_2^N = 1$

this is the steady state ✓

(d) $\lambda_2 = -1$, alternating! $\lambda_2^N \rightarrow \pm 1$

weird infinite oscillations, but it cannot occur if S and \vec{x}_0 all have nonnegative values. ☺

Fin ☺