

28. [M] Construct a random integer-valued 4×4 matrix A , and verify that A and A^T have the same characteristic polynomial (the same eigenvalues with the same multiplicities). Do A and A^T have the same eigenvectors? Make the same analysis of a 5×5 matrix. Report the matrices and your conclusions.
29. [M] Construct a random integer-valued 4×4 matrix A .
- Reduce A to echelon form U with no row scaling, and use U in formula (1) (before Example 2) to compute $\det A$. (If A happens to be singular, start over with a new random matrix.)
 - Compute the eigenvalues of A and the product of these eigenvalues (as accurately as possible).
- c. List the matrix A , and, to four decimal places, list the pivots in U and the eigenvalues of A . Compute $\det A$ with your matrix program, and compare it with the products you found in (a) and (b).
30. [M] Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 28 & 21 \\ 4 & -15 & -12 \\ -8 & a & 25 \end{bmatrix}$. For each value of a in the set $\{32, 31.9, 31.8, 32.1, 32.2\}$, compute the characteristic polynomial of A and the eigenvalues. In each case, create a graph of the characteristic polynomial $p(t) = \det(A - tI)$ for $0 \leq t \leq 3$. If possible, construct all graphs on one coordinate system. Describe how the graphs reveal the changes in the eigenvalues as a changes.

SOLUTION TO PRACTICE PROBLEM

The characteristic equation is

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & -4 \\ 4 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (1 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) - (-4)(4) = \lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 18 \end{aligned}$$

From the quadratic formula,

$$\lambda = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{(-3)^2 - 4(18)}}{2} = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{-63}}{2}$$

It is clear that the characteristic equation has no real solutions, so A has no real eigenvalues. The matrix A is acting on the real vector space \mathbb{R}^2 , and there is no nonzero vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^2 such that $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ for some scalar λ .

5.3 DIAGONALIZATION

In many cases, the eigenvalue–eigenvector information contained within a matrix A can be displayed in a useful factorization of the form $A = PDP^{-1}$ where D is a diagonal matrix. In this section, the factorization enables us to compute A^k quickly for large values of k , a fundamental idea in several applications of linear algebra. Later, in Sections 5.6 and 5.7, the factorization will be used to analyze (and *decouple*) dynamical systems.

The following example illustrates that powers of a diagonal matrix are easy to compute.

EXAMPLE 1 If $D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, then $D^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^2 \end{bmatrix}$ and

$$D^3 = DD^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5^3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

In general,

$$D^k = \begin{bmatrix} 5^k & 0 \\ 0 & 3^k \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } k \geq 1$$

If $A = PDP^{-1}$ for some invertible P and diagonal D , then A^k is also easy to compute, as the next example shows.

EXAMPLE 2 Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Find a formula for A^k , given that $A = PDP^{-1}$, where

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION The standard formula for the inverse of a 2×2 matrix yields

$$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, by associativity of matrix multiplication,

$$\begin{aligned} A^2 &= (PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) = PD \underbrace{(P^{-1}P)}_I DP^{-1} = PDDP^{-1} \\ &= PD^2P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Again,

$$A^3 = (PDP^{-1})A^2 = (PDP^{-1})PD^2P^{-1} = PDD^2P^{-1} = PD^3P^{-1}$$

In general, for $k \geq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} A^k &= PD^kP^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5^k & 0 \\ 0 & 3^k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 5^k - 3^k & 5^k - 3^k \\ 2 \cdot 3^k - 2 \cdot 5^k & 2 \cdot 3^k - 5^k \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

A square matrix A is said to be **diagonalizable** if A is similar to a diagonal matrix, that is, if $A = PDP^{-1}$ for some invertible matrix P and some diagonal matrix D . The next theorem gives a characterization of diagonalizable matrices and tells how to construct a suitable factorization.

THEOREM 5

The Diagonalization Theorem

An $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

In fact, $A = PDP^{-1}$, with D a diagonal matrix, if and only if the columns of P are n linearly independent eigenvectors of A . In this case, the diagonal entries of D are eigenvalues of A that correspond, respectively, to the eigenvectors in P .

In other words, A is diagonalizable if and only if there are enough eigenvectors to form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n . We call such a basis an **eigenvector basis** of \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF First, observe that if P is any $n \times n$ matrix with columns $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, and if D is any diagonal matrix with diagonal entries $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, then

$$AP = A[\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ A\mathbf{v}_n] \quad (1)$$

while

$$PD = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = [\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2\mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n] \quad (2)$$

Now suppose A is diagonalizable and $A = PDP^{-1}$. Then right-multiplying this relation by P , we have $AP = PD$. In this case, equations (1) and (2) imply that

$$[A\mathbf{v}_1 \ A\mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ A\mathbf{v}_n] = [\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 \ \lambda_2\mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n] \quad (3)$$

Equating columns, we find that

$$A\mathbf{v}_1 = \lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1, \quad A\mathbf{v}_2 = \lambda_2\mathbf{v}_2, \quad \dots, \quad A\mathbf{v}_n = \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n \quad (4)$$

Since P is invertible, its columns $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ must be linearly independent. Also, since these columns are nonzero, the equations in (4) show that $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are eigenvalues and $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are corresponding eigenvectors. This argument proves the “only if” parts of the first and second statements, along with the third statement, of the theorem.

Finally, given any n eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, use them to construct the columns of P and use corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ to construct D . By equations (1)–(3), $AP = PD$. This is true without any condition on the eigenvectors. If, in fact, the eigenvectors are linearly independent, then P is invertible (by the Invertible Matrix Theorem), and $AP = PD$ implies that $A = PDP^{-1}$. ■

Diagonalizing Matrices

EXAMPLE 3 Diagonalize the following matrix, if possible.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & -3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

That is, find an invertible matrix P and a diagonal matrix D such that $A = PDP^{-1}$.

SOLUTION There are four steps to implement the description in Theorem 5.

Step 1. Find the eigenvalues of A . As mentioned in Section 5.2, the mechanics of this step are appropriate for a computer when the matrix is larger than 2×2 . To avoid unnecessary distractions, the text will usually supply information needed for this step. In the present case, the characteristic equation turns out to involve a cubic polynomial that can be factored:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = \det(A - \lambda I) &= -\lambda^3 - 3\lambda^2 + 4 \\ &= -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 2)^2 \end{aligned}$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = -2$.

Step 2. Find three linearly independent eigenvectors of A . Three vectors are needed because A is a 3×3 matrix. This is the critical step. If it fails, then Theorem 5 says that A cannot be diagonalized. The method in Section 5.1 produces a basis for each eigenspace:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Basis for } \lambda = 1: \quad \mathbf{v}_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Basis for } \lambda = -2: \quad \mathbf{v}_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

You can check that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is a linearly independent set.

Step 3. Construct P from the vectors in step 2. The order of the vectors is unimportant. Using the order chosen in step 2, form

$$P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \mathbf{v}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 4. Construct D from the corresponding eigenvalues. In this step, it is essential that the order of the eigenvalues matches the order chosen for the columns of P . Use the eigenvalue $\lambda = -2$ twice, once for each of the eigenvectors corresponding to $\lambda = -2$:

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is a good idea to check that P and D really work. To avoid computing P^{-1} , simply verify that $AP = PD$. This is equivalent to $A = PDP^{-1}$ when P is invertible. (However, be sure that P is invertible!) Compute

$$\begin{aligned} AP &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -3 & -5 & -3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \\ PD &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 4 Diagonalize the following matrix, if possible.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 3 \\ -4 & -6 & -3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION The characteristic equation of A turns out to be exactly the same as that in Example 3:

$$0 = \det(A - \lambda I) = -\lambda^3 - 3\lambda^2 + 4 = -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 2)^2$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = -2$. However, it is easy to verify that each eigenspace is only one-dimensional:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Basis for } \lambda = 1: \quad \mathbf{v}_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Basis for } \lambda = -2: \quad \mathbf{v}_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

There are no other eigenvalues, and every eigenvector of A is a multiple of either \mathbf{v}_1 or \mathbf{v}_2 . Hence it is impossible to construct a basis of \mathbb{R}^3 using eigenvectors of A . By Theorem 5, A is *not* diagonalizable. \blacksquare

The following theorem provides a *sufficient* condition for a matrix to be diagonalizable.

THEOREM 6

An $n \times n$ matrix with n distinct eigenvalues is diagonalizable.

PROOF Let $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ be eigenvectors corresponding to the n distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A . Then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is linearly independent, by Theorem 2 in Section 5.1. Hence A is diagonalizable, by Theorem 5. ■

It is not *necessary* for an $n \times n$ matrix to have n distinct eigenvalues in order to be diagonalizable. The 3×3 matrix in Example 3 is diagonalizable even though it has only two distinct eigenvalues.

EXAMPLE 5 Determine if the following matrix is diagonalizable.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -8 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION This is easy! Since the matrix is triangular, its eigenvalues are obviously 5, 0, and -2 . Since A is a 3×3 matrix with three distinct eigenvalues, A is diagonalizable. ■

Matrices Whose Eigenvalues Are Not Distinct

If an $n \times n$ matrix A has n distinct eigenvalues, with corresponding eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, and if $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$, then P is automatically invertible because its columns are linearly independent, by Theorem 2. When A is diagonalizable but has fewer than n distinct eigenvalues, it is still possible to build P in a way that makes P automatically invertible, as the next theorem shows.¹

THEOREM 7

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix whose distinct eigenvalues are $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$.

- For $1 \leq k \leq p$, the dimension of the eigenspace for λ_k is less than or equal to the multiplicity of the eigenvalue λ_k .
- The matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if the sum of the dimensions of the eigenspaces equals n , and this happens if and only if (i) the characteristic polynomial factors completely into linear factors and (ii) the dimension of the eigenspace for each λ_k equals the multiplicity of λ_k .
- If A is diagonalizable and \mathcal{B}_k is a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to λ_k for each k , then the total collection of vectors in the sets $\mathcal{B}_1, \dots, \mathcal{B}_p$ forms an eigenvector basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

EXAMPLE 6 Diagonalize the following matrix, if possible.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -3 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

¹The proof of Theorem 7 is somewhat lengthy but not difficult. For instance, see S. Friedberg, A. Insel, and L. Spence, *Linear Algebra*, 4th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 2002), Section 5.2.

SOLUTION Since A is a triangular matrix, the eigenvalues are 5 and -3 , each with multiplicity 2. Using the method in Section 5.1, we find a basis for each eigenspace.

$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = 5: \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -16 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = -3: \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ is linearly independent, by Theorem 7. So the matrix $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_4]$ is invertible, and $A = PDP^{-1}$, where

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} -8 & -16 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Compute A^8 , where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.
2. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 12 \\ -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Suppose you are told that \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 are eigenvectors of A . Use this information to diagonalize A .
3. Let A be a 4×4 matrix with eigenvalues 5, 3, and -2 , and suppose you know that the eigenspace for $\lambda = 3$ is two-dimensional. Do you have enough information to determine if A is diagonalizable?

WEB

5.3 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1 and 2, let $A = PDP^{-1}$ and compute A^4 .

$$1. P = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2. P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

In Exercises 3 and 4, use the factorization $A = PDP^{-1}$ to compute A^k , where k represents an arbitrary positive integer.

$$3. \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 2(a-b) & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$4. \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 \\ 2 & -6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

In Exercises 5 and 6, the matrix A is factored in the form PDP^{-1} . Use the Diagonalization Theorem to find the eigenvalues of A and a basis for each eigenspace.

$$5. A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$6. A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 4 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 & 9 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Diagonalize the matrices in Exercises 7–20, if possible. The real eigenvalues for Exercises 11–16 and 18 are included below the matrix.

$$7. \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 6 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$8. \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

9. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$
10. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
11. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\lambda = -1, 5$
12. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\lambda = 2, 5$
13. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 & -1 \\ -1 & -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\lambda = 1, 5$
14. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\lambda = 2, 3$
15. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\lambda = 0, 1$
16. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 5 & -2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\lambda = 0$
17. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
18. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & -2 \\ 3 & -3 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\lambda = -2, -1, 0$
19. $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & -3 & 0 & 9 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
20. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 21 and 22, A , B , P , and D are $n \times n$ matrices. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer. (Study Theorems 5 and 6 and the examples in this section carefully before you try these exercises.)

21. a. A is diagonalizable if $A = PDP^{-1}$ for some matrix D and some invertible matrix P .
 b. If \mathbb{R}^n has a basis of eigenvectors of A , then A is diagonalizable.
 c. A is diagonalizable if and only if A has n eigenvalues, counting multiplicities.
 d. If A is diagonalizable, then A is invertible.
22. a. A is diagonalizable if A has n eigenvectors.
 b. If A is diagonalizable, then A has n distinct eigenvalues.
 c. If $AP = PD$, with D diagonal, then the nonzero columns of P must be eigenvectors of A .
 d. If A is invertible, then A is diagonalizable.
23. A is a 5×5 matrix with two eigenvalues. One eigenspace is three-dimensional, and the other eigenspace is two-dimensional. Is A diagonalizable? Why?
24. A is a 3×3 matrix with two eigenvalues. Each eigenspace is one-dimensional. Is A diagonalizable? Why?

25. A is a 4×4 matrix with three eigenvalues. One eigenspace is one-dimensional, and one of the other eigenspaces is two-dimensional. Is it possible that A is *not* diagonalizable? Justify your answer.
26. A is a 7×7 matrix with three eigenvalues. One eigenspace is two-dimensional, and one of the other eigenspaces is three-dimensional. Is it possible that A is *not* diagonalizable? Justify your answer.
27. Show that if A is both diagonalizable and invertible, then so is A^{-1} .
28. Show that if A has n linearly independent eigenvectors, then so does A^T . [Hint: Use the Diagonalization Theorem.]
29. A factorization $A = PDP^{-1}$ is not unique. Demonstrate this for the matrix A in Example 2. With $D_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$, use the information in Example 2 to find a matrix P_1 such that $A = P_1 D_1 P_1^{-1}$.
30. With A and D as in Example 2, find an invertible P_2 unequal to the P in Example 2, such that $A = P_2 D P_2^{-1}$.
31. Construct a nonzero 2×2 matrix that is invertible but not diagonalizable.
32. Construct a nondiagonal 2×2 matrix that is diagonalizable but not invertible.

[M] Diagonalize the matrices in Exercises 33–36. Use your matrix program's eigenvalue command to find the eigenvalues, and then compute bases for the eigenspaces as in Section 5.1.

33. $\begin{bmatrix} 9 & -4 & -2 & -4 \\ -56 & 32 & -28 & 44 \\ -14 & -14 & 6 & -14 \\ 42 & -33 & 21 & -45 \end{bmatrix}$
34. $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -9 & -7 & 8 & 2 \\ -7 & -9 & 0 & 7 & 14 \\ 5 & 10 & 5 & -5 & -10 \\ -2 & 3 & 7 & 0 & 4 \\ -3 & -13 & -7 & 10 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$
35. $\begin{bmatrix} 13 & -12 & 9 & -15 & 9 \\ 6 & -5 & 9 & -15 & 9 \\ 6 & -12 & -5 & 6 & 9 \\ 6 & -12 & 9 & -8 & 9 \\ -6 & 12 & 12 & -6 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$
36. $\begin{bmatrix} 24 & -6 & 2 & 6 & 2 \\ 72 & 51 & 9 & -99 & 9 \\ 0 & -63 & 15 & 63 & 63 \\ 72 & 15 & 9 & -63 & 9 \\ 0 & 63 & 21 & -63 & -27 \end{bmatrix}$