

Week 8

April 20, 22

①

(Review)

○ Theorem If A and B are similar, then they have the same (multi)-set of eigenvalues.

Proof. Since $A \sim B$, \exists invertible matrix P ,

s.t. $P^{-1}AP = B$. Now, consider

$$\det(B - \lambda I)$$

$$= \det(P^{-1}AP - \lambda I)$$

$$= \det(P^{-1}AP - \lambda P^{-1}P)$$

$$= \det(P^{-1}(A - \lambda I)P)$$

$$= \det(P^{-1}) \det(A - \lambda I) \det(P)$$

$$= \det(A - \lambda I) \det(P) \det(P^{-1})$$

$$= \det(A - \lambda I) \det(PP^{-1})$$

$$= \det(A - \lambda I). \quad \blacksquare$$

By using the above fact, we can prove that

○ $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is not diagonalizable.

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Suppose not. Let $P = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix}$.

Then $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (?)

$$x + z = x \Rightarrow z = 0$$

$$y + w = y \Rightarrow w = 0$$

$\Rightarrow P$ is not invertible. 

Another fact

$$\lambda = 1,$$

$$\dim_{\text{Null}}(A - I) = \dim_{\text{Null}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$y = 0$ and x is free.

$$E_A(\lambda) = E_A(1)$$

$$\dim(E_A(1)) \neq 1.$$

In A ,

$\lambda = 1$ is of algebraic multiplicity "2".

Geometric multiplicity

Whether a matrix $(n \times n)$ is diagonalizable or not depends on the relationship between algebraic and geometric multiplicity of eigenvalues.

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Lemma Let $\det(A - \lambda I) = (-1)^n (\lambda - \lambda_1)^{\alpha_1} (\lambda - \lambda_2)^{\alpha_2} \cdots (\lambda - \lambda_t)^{\alpha_t}$

and $\dim(E_A(\lambda_i)) = g_i \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, t$. Then $g_i \leq \alpha_i, \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, t$

Proof. Assume that $\dim(E_A(\lambda_i)) = g_i$. Then, there exists a basis $B_i = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_{g_i}\}$ of $E_A(\lambda_i)$, moreover, $A\vec{v}_j = \lambda_i \vec{v}_j$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, g_i$

Since $E_A(\lambda_i)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n (or \mathbb{C}^n), B_i can be extended

to a basis B of \mathbb{R}^n such that $B = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_{g_i}\}$. Now,

A is similar to

$$\tilde{A} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} \lambda_i & 0 & & \\ & \lambda_i & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_i \\ \hline & & & * \\ \hline 0 & & & \end{array} \right].$$

$$\left(A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_{g_i} & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i \vec{v}_1 & \lambda_i \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \lambda_i \vec{v}_{g_i} & A\vec{v}_{g_i+1} & \dots & A\vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \left(\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 0 & & c_1 \\ & \lambda_i & & c_2 \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & & & \lambda_i \\ \hline & & & * \\ \hline 0 & & & c_n \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$A\vec{v}_{g_i+1} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n$

This implies that $(\lambda - \lambda_i)^{g_i} \mid \det(\tilde{A} - \lambda I)$. ▀

↓

$$g_i \leq \alpha_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, t$$

Theorem A is diagonalizable if and only if the geometric multiplicity of each eigenvalue of A is equal to the algebraic multiplicity.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Observe that if A is similar to B , then A and B have the same multiset of eigenvalues (spectrum).

Moreover, for each eigenvalue λ of A (so is B), $\dim E_A(\lambda) = \dim E_B(\lambda)$ (?)

Now, since for each diagonal matrix D whose geometric and algebraic multiplicity of every eigenvalue of D are equal, a diagonalizable matrix satisfies the same condition.

(\Leftarrow) It suffices to prove that A has n independent eigenvectors

correspond to its eigenvalues. Let $B_i = \{ \vec{v}_{i,1}, \vec{v}_{i,2}, \dots, \vec{v}_{i,g_i} \}$ be

a basis of $E_A(\lambda_i)$, $i=1,2,\dots,t$. Since $g_i = d_i$, $i=1,2,\dots,t$,

$B = \bigcup_{i=1}^t B_i$ has n vectors. Now, we claim B is an independent

set. We start with $n=2$. (By induction.)

Let $\underbrace{c_{1,1}\vec{v}_{1,1} + c_{1,2}\vec{v}_{1,2} + \dots + c_{1,g_1}\vec{v}_{1,g_1}}_{\vec{\alpha}} + \underbrace{c_{2,1}\vec{v}_{2,1} + c_{2,2}\vec{v}_{2,2} + \dots + c_{2,g_2}\vec{v}_{2,g_2}}_{\vec{\beta}} = \vec{0}$

(5)

First, if $\vec{\alpha}$ (or $\vec{\beta}$) is equal to $\vec{0}$, then all coefficients are equal to 0. (?) This implies that $B_1 \cup B_2$ is a l. independent set of $g_1 + g_2$ vectors. On the other hand, $\vec{\alpha} \neq \vec{0}$ and $\vec{\beta} \neq \vec{0}$.

By definition, $\vec{\alpha} \in E_A(\lambda_1)$ and $\vec{\beta} \in E_A(\lambda_2)$. But, now, $\vec{\alpha} = -\vec{\beta}$.

Therefore $\vec{\alpha} \in E_A(\lambda_2)$, i.e., $A\vec{\alpha} = \lambda_2\vec{\alpha}$ and $A\vec{\alpha} = \lambda_1\vec{\alpha}$.

So, $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$, a contradiction. Hence, we have proved the case $n=2$

Assume that the assertion is true for $n=k$, consider

$B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_k \cup B_{k+1}$. Since $\bigcup_{i=1}^k B_i$ is an independent set, we

may let $B' = \bigcup_{i=1}^k B_i$ and the proof follows by a similar argument

of $B' \cup B_{k+1}$. (In fact, we use the idea that

$$\text{Span}(B') \cap \text{Span}(B_{k+1}) = \{\vec{0}\}. \quad (?)$$

Note that if $\vec{\alpha} \in B'$, then $\vec{\alpha} \in E_A(\lambda_i)$ for some $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$. ▣

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$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & -6i \\ 4i & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, the characteristic poly. of A is $\lambda^2 - 12\lambda - 13$.

$$\text{Let } \lambda^2 - 12\lambda - 13 = f(\lambda).$$

$$f(A) = A^2 - 12A - 13I = \dots = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Another example

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 7 \\ 3 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, $p(\lambda; A) = f(\lambda) = -\lambda^3 + 17\lambda^2 - 66\lambda + 72$.

$$f(A) = \dots = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Theorem (Cayley-Hamilton)

Let $f(\lambda)$ be the characteristic polynomial of A , ^{$n \times n$ matrix}

Then, $f(A) = O$ ($n \times n$ matrix with all entries "0".)

Proof. Will be given later (after 2nd test).

Finding the inverse of a matrix A.

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 7 \\ 3 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = -\lambda^3 + 17\lambda^2 - 66\lambda + 72.$$

By Cayley-Hamilton's Theorem

$$-A^3 + 17A^2 - 66A + 72I = O^{3 \times 3}.$$

$$72I = A^3 - 17A^2 + 66A$$

$$= A(A^2 - 17A + 66I)$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{72}(A^2 - 17A + 66I) \quad (\text{See it?})$$

(*) 所以, 如果 A 有逆矩阵, 在代入 A 之后就会
得到 $I = A \cdot (A^{-1})$, A^{-1} 於是成为 A 的多项式
形式。

What if A is not invertible? Can we use

$f(A)$ to determine that "A has no inverse"?

(*) $A \mid f(A).$

More examples

○ $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible.

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^2 - 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \left| \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \left(2I - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

○ $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $f(\lambda) = (1-\lambda)(-\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \lambda$

$$f(A) = A^2 - A = 0$$

$f(A) = A(A - I) = 0$. Now, if A is invertible,

then $A - I = 0$, $A = I$ \rightarrow

Definition (Quadratic Form)

A quadratic form is a function $\vec{x} \mapsto \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$ of A (defined by A) from $\underline{\mathbb{R}^n}$ (\mathbb{C}^n) into \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C}).

(A is an $n \times n$ matrix.)

(*) Let A and B are real matrices (in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$) such that $B = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^T)$

Then A and B have identical quadratic form.

(**) If \vec{x} is an eigenvector of A and $\vec{x}^T \vec{x} = 1$, then

$$\lambda = \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}.$$

$$\vec{x}^T B \vec{x} = \vec{x}^T \left(\frac{1}{2} (A + A^T) \right) \vec{x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} + \vec{x}^T A^T \vec{x})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}) + \frac{1}{2} \vec{x}^T A^T \vec{x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}) + \frac{1}{2} (\vec{x}^T A \vec{x})^T$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}) + \frac{1}{2} (\vec{x}^T A \vec{x})$$

$$= \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$$

(real)

If \vec{x} is an eigenvector asso. with λ , i.e. $A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$ then $\frac{\vec{x}}{\|\vec{x}\|}$ is also an

eigenvector asso. with λ where

$$\|\vec{x}\| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times 1}, \quad \|\vec{x}\| = (\vec{x} \cdot \bar{\vec{x}})^{1/2}$$

