

Last time: We proved a number of very important things: let $A: V \rightarrow V$

- The eigenvalues of a matrix A are roots of its char. poly $p_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$
- If the roots are distinct, then V has a basis that consists of eigenvectors of A .
- This means, in this new basis of eigenvectors, the matrix for A is diagonal.

In terms of matrices, this means:

If A is the matrix of our linear operator with respect to the standard basis,

then we can form the transition matrix C

Its columns are the coordinates of the eigenvectors of A with respect to the standard basis.

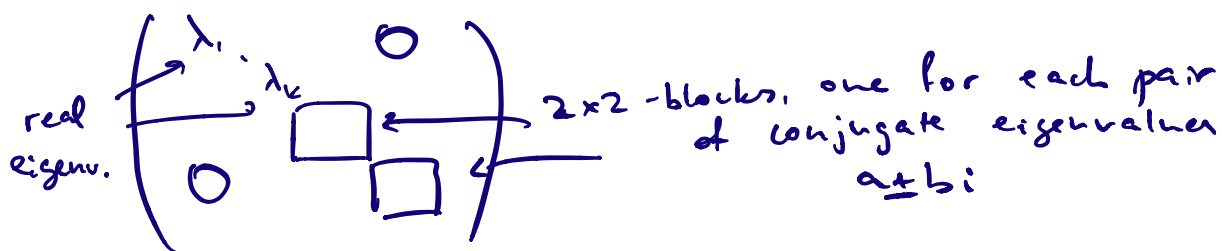
Then we have $C^{-1}AC = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$ - a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues of A on the diagonal.

Now, what happens if A doesn't have n distinct eigenvalues?

* If A is a real matrix, then its eigenvalues come in pairs of complex conjugates.

To each pair corresponds a plane in our space \mathbb{R}^n on which A acts via a composition of a rotation and a dilation.

More precisely, there exists a basis for \mathbb{R}^n in which the matrix of A is block-diagonal, with blocks of the form:



The blocks are of the form $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}$

here
 $\lambda = a \pm bi$
 $= \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} e^{i\theta}$

$$= \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

↑
rotation

(This is still under the condition that the eigenvalues are distinct)

(This part about real 2×2 -blocks will not be on exams).

Question: How does this relate to the matter of A being injective/surjective?

Here $A: V \rightarrow V$ - from a space to itself.

Recall that then the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1) A is injective
- 2) A is surjective
- 3) A^{-1} exists
- 4) $\det(A) \neq 0$.

Now we can add one more condition equivalent to the above: 0 is not an eigenvalue of A .

Indeed, 0 is an eigenvalue $\Leftrightarrow \ker(A) \neq 0$
(exists $v \neq 0$ s.t. $Av = 0 \cdot v$)

You can also see this using the det:

$$\det(A) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \det(A - 0 \cdot \text{Id}) = 0.$$

So the question of whether the eigenvalues are distinct is not about injectivity/surjectivity.

What happens when the eigenvalues are not distinct?

There is a number of possibilities.

Suppose λ is a root of $p_A(t)$ of multiplicity m :

$$p_A(t) = (t - \lambda)^m p_1(t) \leftarrow p_1(t) \text{ has no factor } t - \lambda.$$

Consider two main examples

Example 1 $A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \cdot \text{Id}.$

Then $p_A(t) = (\lambda - t)^m$

Every vector is an eigenvector for $\lambda \cdot \text{Id}!$

Example 2 Let $J_\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$

The char. poly is the same: $(\lambda - t)^3$.

But there is only one eigenvector:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$

has only one solution: $z = y = 0$
(up to scaling)

$$\begin{cases} \lambda x + y = \lambda x \\ \lambda y + z = \lambda y \\ \lambda z = \lambda z \end{cases}$$

$(1, 0, 0)$ is the only eigenvector
(up to scaling)

In other terms, here

$$\dim \ker (J_\lambda - \lambda \cdot \text{Id}) = 1$$

Def: $\dim \ker (A - \lambda \text{Id})$ is called the geometric multiplicity

of λ .

It is always \leq the algebraic multiplicity, but as we see, can be strictly smaller.

Jordan normal form

How much can we simplify a matrix up to a change of basis?

- If the characteristic polynomial of A has n distinct roots

$$P_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$$

then A has a basis of eigenvectors

In this basis, A is diagonal!

(for each v_i , $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$, so the i th column

of A is $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_i \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ i th place)

in the eigenvector basis, the matrix of A

$$\text{is } \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

- If $P_A(\lambda)$ has multiple roots: $P_A(\lambda) = (x - \lambda_1)^{k_1} \dots (x - \lambda_n)^{k_n}$
 then cannot always make it diagonal:
 But can set it to Jordan Normal Form (cannot prove)

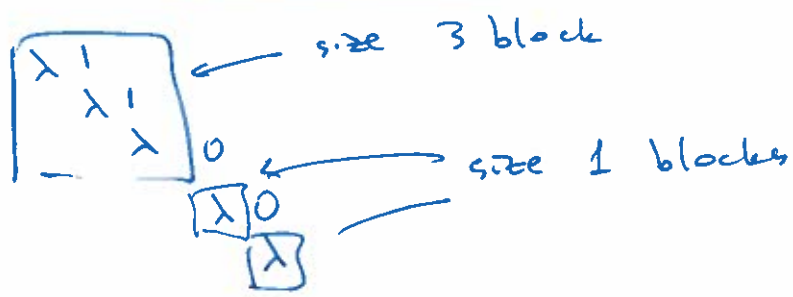
$$\begin{pmatrix} \square & & & \\ & \square & & \\ & & \square & \\ & & & \square \end{pmatrix}$$

each block looks like

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow J_n(\lambda) - \text{Jordan block}$$

the same eigenvalue

For a multiple eigenvalue, get smth like:



λ has algebraic multiplicity 5.
 $P_A(\lambda)$ has root of mult. 5 at λ .

each block \leftrightarrow one eigenvector.

here $\dim \ker(A - \lambda I) = 3$
 (the number of blocks)

Aside

Hard part: dealing with the situation when we do not have "enough" eigenvectors: when geometric multiplicity $\dim \ker(A - \lambda I) = 3$ smaller than algebraic multiplicity of λ .

↑ not part of this course

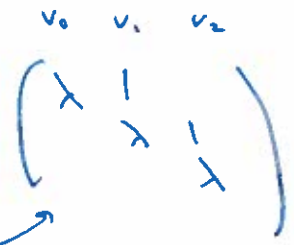
Then we need to find more basis vectors v_1, v_2, \dots such that:

$$(A - \lambda I)v_1 = v_0 \quad \leftarrow \text{the eigenvector}$$

$$(A - \lambda I)v_2 = v_1$$

$$\dots$$

This gives the Jordan block



here:

$$Av_0 = \lambda v_0$$

$$Av_1 = \lambda v_1 + v_0$$

$$Av_2 = \lambda v_2 + v_1$$

this is hard because $A - \lambda I$ is not invertible!
 So hard to prove they exist;
 also they are not unique
 - how to make good choices?

Last time: We stated the Jordan Normal Form Thm:

$A: V \rightarrow V$ there exists a basis for V s.t. the matrix of A looks like this:



block-diagonal
each block is $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$

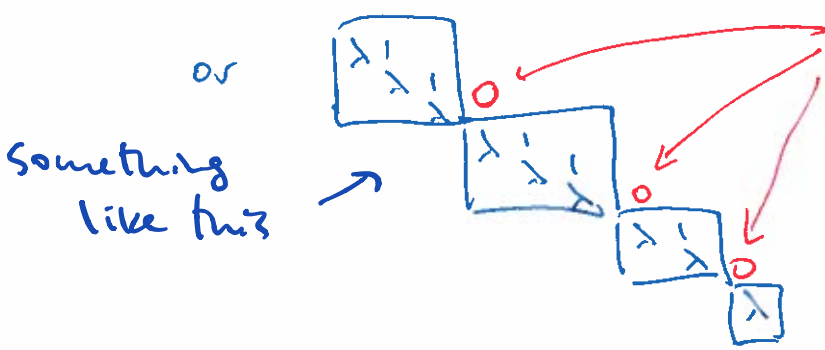
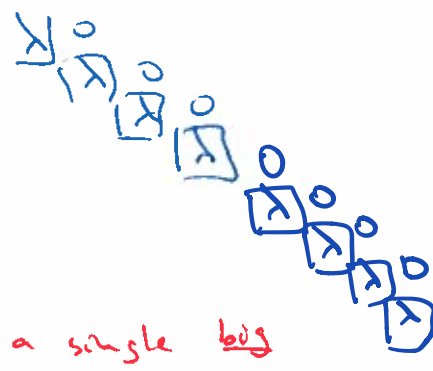
(Note: $\lambda \leftarrow 1 \times 1$ -block)

• Special case: $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow$ if V has a basis of eigenvectors diagonal.

• only multiple eigenvalues (roots of $p_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$ of multiplicity > 1 give rise to blocks)

• We proved that if the eigenvalues are distinct, the matrix can be diagonalized.

• Warning: a repeated root of $p_A(\lambda)$ can give rise to several blocks: it can be:



This is the difference between this and a single big block.

We will not do it.

(every partition of the algebraic multiplicity into the sum of the sizes of blocks is possible)

Side note: for a 2×2 Jordan block,

if λ is the only eigenvalue of $A: V \rightarrow V$,
 $\dim(V) = 2$,

then $\text{Im}(A - \lambda I) \subset \ker(A - \lambda I)$

this was saying: for a 2-dim space, if λ
has multiplicity 2, you get: $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$

ie. $A = \lambda I$

or $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$: $\ker(A - \lambda I)$ is 1-dim
and coincides with $\text{Im}(A - \lambda I)$

(ie. $(A - \lambda I)^2 = 0$).

Reminder: change of basis $\leftrightarrow A^{\text{new}} = C^{-1} A^{\text{old}} C$
 $C =$ change of basis matrix.

Why do we care? "Matrix calculus"

• What if you wanted to apply the usual functions
you know to matrices?

• we know how to add and multiply matrices.

\uparrow note: $AB \neq BA$.
 A^{-1} doesn't
always exist
if $A \neq 0$.

• Especially, one wants to compute powers of a matrix
(which corresponds to repeatedly applying the same
linear operator).

- What other functions can we apply?

Exponential!

$$e^A = ??$$

what is e^x ? (as a fn of x).

- a function s.t. $(e^x)' = e^x$
ie. solution to the equation $f' = f$.
(really, get a family of solutions,

(e is defined as its value at 1) $(c \cdot e^x)$, choose one s.t. $f(0) = 1$ so $c = 1$

- To compute: Taylor series:

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2!}x^2 + \frac{1}{3!}x^3 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}x^n + \dots$$

(recall $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n$)

(!) Can use this to define

$$e^A = \underset{\text{Id} = "1"}{I} + A + \frac{1}{2!}A^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}A^n + \dots$$

converges for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$
in fact, also converges for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$,
defining e^z on \mathbb{C}

If A is diagonal, $e^A = \begin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & e^{\lambda_n} \end{pmatrix}$

(with some work, prove all converges...)

- (A.H.) other functions that have convergent Taylor series — can be applied to matrices.

I did not say the next thing in class, but it gives a hint for the extras problem set, so I am including it in the notes. It is not going to be on exams.

An application

For d.t. equations: $f'(x) = \lambda f(x) \rightsquigarrow f(x) = c \cdot e^{\lambda x}$

Now you can deal with systems of d.t. eq:

f_1, \dots, f_n

$$\vec{f}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}' = A \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}$$

↑
vector
function

matrix of scalars

constant vector $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$

Solution:

$$\vec{f}(x) = e^{Ax} \cdot C$$

In practice, we diagonalize A , get $e^{\lambda_1 x} \dots e^{\lambda_n x}$
get solutions of the form $\sum c_i e^{\lambda_i x}$

/ Multiple eigenvalues lead to terms
of the form $x e^{\lambda x}, x^2 e^{\lambda x} \dots$ /

Also: higher order d.t. eq. can be converted to
systems of d.t. eq: $f'' = \lambda f$

trick: make $f_1 = f$
 $f_2 = f'$

Then $f'' = \lambda f$ becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \end{bmatrix}' = \begin{bmatrix} f_2 \\ \lambda f_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \lambda & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \end{bmatrix}$$