

Math 223, lecture 23

Q: Is every vector an eigenvector of Id_n ?

A: yes, $\text{Id}_n \cdot \underline{v} = 1 \cdot \underline{v} \Leftrightarrow \underline{v}$ is an eigenvector with ev. 1.

In general, fix $T \in \text{End}(U)$. For each λ set

$$U_\lambda = \text{Ker}(T - \lambda \cdot \text{Id}_n) = \text{Ker}(\lambda - T)$$

if $U_\lambda \neq \{0\}$ call λ an **eigenvalue**, U_λ the **eigenspace** (associated to λ), and elements of U_λ **eigenvectors**.

Call the set of eigenvalues the **spectrum** of T , write $\text{Spec}(T)$ for it.

Aside: This notion of "spectrum" is really only for f.d. vector spaces.

Last time: λ is an eigenvalue iff $\lambda - T$ is singular, iff $\det(\lambda - T) = 0$, iff $p_T(\lambda) = 0$

where $p_T(x) = \det(x \cdot \text{Id}_n - T)$ is the

$(\underline{w}_1, \dots, \underline{w}_m) \in W_2$ is a basis

ω is a volume form on W_1 : linear in each u_i (if is), zero if $u_i = -u_j$ ($i \neq j$) (if is)

ω is non-zero (if $\exists u_i, \dots, u_n \in W_1$ are a basis, then $\{u_i\} \cup \{w_j\}$ are a basis of V)

So $\det A \omega(u_1, \dots, u_n) =$

$$= \omega(\tilde{A}u_1, \dots, \tilde{A}u_n) = f(Au_1, \dots, Au_n, \underline{w}_1, \dots, \underline{w}_m)$$

$$= f(\tilde{A}u_1, \dots, \tilde{A}u_n, \tilde{A}w_1, \dots, \tilde{A}w_m)$$

$$= (\det \tilde{A}) \cdot f(u_1, \dots, u_n, w_1, \dots, w_m)$$

$$= \det \tilde{A} \cdot \omega(u_1, \dots, u_n)$$

But can choose $\{u_i\}$ so $\omega(u_1, \dots, u_n) \neq 0$

$$\text{then } \det A = \det \tilde{A}.$$

Anomaly: to find eigenvalues it seems you need to know about det.

Not really the case:

Thm: Every linear map on a vector space ^{fd.} has at least one eigenvalue (after extension to scalars)

Pf 1: The char poly, $p_T(x)$ is monic, degree $= \dim V$. It has roots

(fact: every complex polynomial has complex roots)

Pf 2: let $\underline{v} \in V$ be a non-zero vector.

consider the vectors $\underline{v} = T^0 \underline{v}, T^1 \underline{v}, T^2 \underline{v}, \dots, T^n \underline{v}$

That's a sequence of $n+1$ vectors; if we take $n = \dim V$, they must be linearly dependent.

So have scalars $\{a_i\}_{i=0}^n$ not all zero, s.t.

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i (T^i \underline{v}) = \underline{0} \quad (\Leftrightarrow) \quad \left(\sum_{i=0}^n a_i T^i \right) \cdot \underline{v} = \underline{0}$$

$$(\Leftrightarrow) \quad q(T) \cdot \underline{v} = \underline{0} \quad \text{where} \quad q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i.$$

(q is non-constant: if $q = a_0$ then $q_0(\tau) = a_0$,
with $a_0 \neq 0$, then $q_0 \underline{v} = \underline{0}$ would violate $\underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$)

so

let λ be a root of q . Then $(x - \lambda) | q(x)$:

can write $q(x) = (x - \lambda) \cdot r(x)$

Then $\underline{0} = q(\tau) \underline{v} = (\tau - \lambda) r(\tau) \cdot \underline{v} = (\tau - \lambda) (r(\tau) \underline{v})$
HW:

~~maybe~~ If $r(\tau) \underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$ then it's an eigenvector
with ev. λ (killed by $\tau - \lambda$). But why is $r(\tau) \underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$?

so let q be the poly of least degree st
 $q(\tau) \underline{v} = \underline{0}$.

then $\deg r = \deg q - 1 < \deg q$, so $r(\tau) \underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$

Aside: ("Power method") if take random \underline{v} ,

then vectors $\underline{v}, \tau \underline{v}, \tau^2 \underline{v}, \dots, \tau^n \underline{v}, \dots$

typically
normalised, converge to eigenvector corresponding
to largest eigenvalue (in magnitude).

[why? suppose $\underline{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \underline{v}_i$, $T\underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i$.
 then $T^n \underline{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i T^n \underline{v}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \lambda_i^n \underline{v}_i$
 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the largest λ will dominate)

Example: (complex roots) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{so if } A\underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v},$$

$$-\underline{v} = A^2 \underline{v} = A(A\underline{v}) = A(\lambda \underline{v}) = \lambda(A\underline{v}) = \lambda^2 \underline{v}$$

so $\lambda^2 = -1$ no real numbers like this

But have complex roots $\pm i$.

(aside $A^2 = -I \Leftrightarrow A^2 + I = 0$, and char poly
 is $P_A(x) = x^2 + 1$.)

eigenvectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$

so $y = \lambda x, -x = \lambda y.$

eg. take $x=1$, get eigenvectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} i \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{i^2 = -1}{=} i \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -i \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{(-i)^2 = -1}{=} -i \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$$

This will be our approach to extension of scalars: work with matrices, freely switch between real & complex entries

Trick for homework & exams.

say matrix has integral (or rational) entries (common in examples in Math 223)

Then $p_r(x)$ has integral (or rational) coefficients. Clean denominators to set integral coeff.

Thm: let $p \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ have the form

$$p = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i x^i$$

with $a_0 a_d \neq 0$ (i.e. $\deg p = d$, 0 is not a root)
 suppose that $p(\frac{r}{s}) = 0$ where $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$, $s \neq 0$,
 $\gcd(r, s) = 1$. Then $r | a_0$, $s | a_d$.

Conclusion: to find the rational roots, try all combinations $\frac{r}{s}$, where $r | a_0$, $s | a_d$
 (often $a_d = 1$ so $s = 1$)

Pf: Say $p(\frac{r}{s}) = 0$. Then $\sum_{i=0}^d a_i (\frac{r}{s})^i = 0$

multiply by s^d . Get: $\sum_{i=0}^d a_i r^i s^{d-i} = 0$

$$\text{so } \begin{cases} a_0 s^d = -r \left(\sum_{i=1}^d a_i r^{i-1} s^{d-i} \right) \\ a_d r^d = -s \left(\sum_{i=0}^{d-1} a_i r^i s^{d-i-1} \right) \end{cases}$$

so $r | a_0 s^d$, $s | a_d r^d$, but r is prime to s ,

so $r | a_0$, $s | a_d$.

Example: Say $p(x) = x^2 + 5x + 6$.

~~then say~~ Rational root thm says: if rational roots exist, must be integers, one of

$\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 6$ (divisors of 6)

$$p(1) = 12, p(-1) = 2, p(2) = 20, \boxed{p(-2) = 0}$$

~~$p(x) = x^2 + 5x + 6$~~ and $\frac{x^2 + 5x + 6}{x + 2} = x + 3$ so other

root is -3 .

(beyond 223)

General view: say V is an F -Vsp,

$K \supset F$ is a bigger field.

Fix a basis $\{v_i\}_{i \in B} \subset V$.

"Define" $V_K = \left\{ \sum_{i \in B} a_i v_i \mid a_i \in K \right\}$

~~$V_K \cong V$~~ (check: if change basis, we get an "equivalent" space)

$$(\mathbb{R}^n)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \underline{e}_i \mid a_i \in \mathbb{C} \right\}, \underline{e}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\cong \mathbb{C}^n$$

$$\dim_K V_K = \dim_{\mathbb{F}} V \quad (\text{have same basis})$$

$$\dim_{\mathbb{F}} V_K = (\dim_{\mathbb{F}} K) \cdot \dim_{\mathbb{F}} V$$

Think of \mathbb{C}^n as a real vsp, has basis:

$$\{ \underline{e}_j \}_{j=1}^n \cup \{ i \underline{e}_j \}_{j=1}^n$$