

Lecture - 6 - Thursday - 28.1.16
- 3-5 p.m.

Eigenvector, Eigenvalues.

(No class was
there on 22.1.16
due to Kshitij)

$A \rightarrow n \times n$ matrix.

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

↗ eigen vector ($\neq 0$)
↘ eigenvalue.

$|\lambda I - A| = 0 \rightarrow$ characteristic equation.

$$(\lambda I - A)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}.$$

$\lambda = 5$ $E_{\lambda=5} =$ eigenspace corresponding to $\lambda = 5$
 ↗ eigen vectors corresponding to $\lambda = 5$.
 $= \{ \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} \}$

$g_{\lambda=5} \rightarrow$ geometric multiplicity
 $=$ dimension of eigen space $E_{\lambda=5}$

$a_{\lambda=5} \rightarrow$ algebraic multiplicity
 $=$ multiplicity of λ as a root.

$a_{\lambda} \geq g_{\lambda}$, always.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda = 0, 0$$

$a_{\lambda=0} = 2, \quad g_{\lambda=0} = 1$

Cayley-Hamilton theorem.

Every square matrix, say $A_{n \times n}$ is a zero of its characteristic polynomial. If $a_0\lambda^n + a_1\lambda^{n-1} + a_2\lambda^{n-2} + \dots + a_n = 0$ be the characteristic equation for A , then A will satisfy

$$a_0 A^n + a_1 A^{n-1} + a_2 A^{n-2} + \dots + a_n I_n = \mathbf{0}.$$

Ex. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ characteristic equation of $A: \lambda^2 = 0$

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Ex.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 0 \\ -2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow *$$

Characteristic equation

$$(\lambda - 5)^2 (\lambda - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 25)(\lambda - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^3 - 11\lambda^2 + 35\lambda - 25 = 0$$

- (i) Verify Cayley-Hamilton theorem for the matrix "A" given in (*).
(ii) Compute "A³" using Cayley-Hamilton theorem for the matrix "A".

Similar Matrices.

A \rightarrow $n \times n$ matrix.

An $n \times n$ matrix B is said to be similar to the matrix A, if

$$B = P^{-1}AP \rightarrow (1)$$

for some non-singular matrix P. Premultiply (1) by P & postmultiply

(1) by P^{-1} . Then get

$$PB P^{-1} = PP^{-1}A PP^{-1} = IAI = A.$$

$$A = PB P^{-1} = (P^{-1})^{-1} B (P^{-1})$$

Let $Q = P^{-1}$, $A = Q^{-1} B Q$, for some nonsingular Q.

\Rightarrow A is similar to B.

Thus if B is similar to A, A is similar to B.

We can say A & B are similar matrices if $B = P^{-1}AP$ holds.

Theorem. If A & B are similar matrices, then they have same determinant, rank, trace, characteristic polynomial and eigenvalues.

Definition. A square matrix A is said to be diagonalisable if it is similar to a diagonal matrix D .

$$\text{i.e. } A = P^{-1}DP \\ \text{or, } D = PAP^{-1}.$$

Theorems helpful for diagonalisation.

Theorem 1. The eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.

$$A \rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = -5, \lambda_3 = 3$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1, (a, a, 2a) \rightarrow a(1, 1, 2)$$

$$\lambda_2 = -5, (a, 0, -a) \rightarrow a(1, 0, -1)$$

$$\lambda_3 = 3, (2a, 3a, 0) \rightarrow a(2, 3, 0)$$

$(1, 1, 2), (1, 0, -1), (2, 3, 0)$ are linearly independent.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 0 \\ -2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = 1, 5, 5$$

$$E_{\lambda=1} = \{(c, c, 0) : c \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$E_{\lambda=5} = \{(b, -b, c) : b, c \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) \in E_{\lambda=1}$$

$$\hookrightarrow = c \underbrace{(1, 1, 0)}_{v_1}$$

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in E_{\lambda=5}$$

$$= b \underbrace{(1, -1, 0)}_{v_2} + c \underbrace{(0, 0, 1)}_{v_3}$$

v_1, v_2, v_3 are linearly independent

Theorem If an $n \times n$ matrix A has n distinct eigen values, then it is similar to a diagonal matrix, whose elements are the eigen values of A .

if eigen values of A are 1, 2, 3, then A is similar to $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$.

Theorem. If $g_{\lambda} = a_{\lambda}$ for each eigenvalue of A , then A is similar to a diagonal matrix or A is diagonalizable.

How to diagonalize a matrix A ?

steps. 1. Find eigen values of $A_{n \times n}$, say $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m$; $m \leq n$.

2. Find geometric multiplicity of each eigen value.

3. If $g_{\lambda} = a_{\lambda}$ for each λ , then A is diagonalizable.

Otherwise, stop.

4. How to proceed \rightarrow shown by an example.

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

$$a_{\lambda=1} = 1, \quad g_{\lambda=1} = 1$$

$$a_{\lambda=5} = 2, \quad g_{\lambda=5} = 2.$$

$P \rightarrow$ is a matrix formed by the linearly independent eigen vectors.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{v}_{\lambda=1} & \tilde{v}_{\lambda=5} & \tilde{v}_{\lambda=5} \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = D$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{v}_{\lambda=5} & \tilde{v}_{\lambda=1} & \tilde{v}_{\lambda=5} \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = D$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{v}_{\lambda=5} & \tilde{v}_{\lambda=1} & \tilde{v}_{\lambda=5} \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = D$$

$$(P \mid I) = \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2: R_1 - R_2} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow 2R_1 - R_2} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} R_1 \rightarrow \frac{R_1}{2} \\ R_2 \rightarrow \frac{R_2}{2} \end{array}} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$P^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercise. Check $P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$

Eigenvalues for special matrices.

Let $A_{n \times n}$ be a matrix. Then A is symmetric if $A^T = A \Rightarrow a_{ij} = a_{ji}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 2 \\ -5 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -5+i & 1 \\ -5+i & i & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 9-i \end{pmatrix}$$

symmetric matrix

$A_{n \times n}$ is skew symmetric if $A^T = -A$, $a_{ji} = -a_{ij}$

put $j=i$, $a_{ii} = -a_{ii} \Rightarrow a_{ii} = 0$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -5 & 2 \\ 5 & 0 & 6 \\ -2 & -6 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2-i & 6i \\ -2+i & 0 & 3 \\ -6i & -3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

skew symmetric matrix.

Real	<u>symmetric</u> $A^T = A$	<u>skew-symmetric</u> $A^T = -A$	<u>orthogonal</u> $A^T A = I = A A^T$
Complex	<u>Hermitian</u> $A^* = A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A}^T = A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A} = A^T$	<u>skew-Hermitian</u> $A^* = -A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A}^T = -A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A} = -A^T$	<u>unitary</u> $A^* A = I = A A^*$ $A^* = A^{-1}$

Theorem. Eigenvalues of a Hermitian (symmetric) matrix are real, eigenvalues of a skew-Hermitian (skew-symmetric) matrix are purely imaginary or zero, eigenvalue λ of a unitary (orthogonal) matrix is such that $|\lambda| = 1$.

Proof. A is Hermitian $\Rightarrow A^* = A \Rightarrow A^T = \bar{A}$
 (symmetric) ($A^T = A$).

A is skew-Hermitian $\Rightarrow A^* = -A \Rightarrow A^T = -\bar{A}$
 (skew-symmetric) ($A^T = -A$).

(orthogonal) $\Rightarrow A^T A = A^T A = I$

A is unitary $\Rightarrow A^* A = I \Rightarrow (\bar{A})^T A = I$
 $\Rightarrow A^T \bar{A} = I$, also $\bar{A} A^T = I$.

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix.

λ be an eigen value & \underline{v} be the corresponding eigen vector of A . ($\underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$).

$$\therefore A \underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v} \longrightarrow (1)$$

$$\text{Let } \underline{v} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \because \underline{v} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \text{at least one of } x_i\text{'s} \neq 0.$$

$$P^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercise. check $P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$

Eigenvalues for special matrices.

Let $A_{n \times n}$ be a matrix. Then A is symmetric if $A^T = A \Rightarrow a_{ij} = a_{ji}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 2 \\ -5 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -5+i & 1 \\ -5+i & i & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 9-i \end{pmatrix}$$

symmetric matrix

$A_{n \times n}$ is skew symmetric if $A^T = -A$, $a_{ji} = -a_{ij}$

put $j=i$, $a_{ii} = -a_{ii} \Rightarrow a_{ii} = 0$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -5 & 2 \\ 5 & 0 & 6 \\ -2 & -6 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2-i & 6i \\ -2+i & 0 & 3 \\ -6i & -3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

skew symmetric matrix.

	<u>symmetric</u> $A^T = A$	<u>skew-symmetric</u> $A^T = -A$	<u>orthogonal</u> $A^T A = I = A A^T$
Real			
	<u>Hermitian</u> $A^* = A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A}^T = A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A} = A^T$	<u>skew-Hermitian</u> $A^* = -A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A}^T = -A$ $\Rightarrow \bar{A} = -A^T$	<u>unitary</u> $A^* A = I = A A^*$ $A^* = A^{-1}$
Complex			

Theorem. Eigenvalues of a Hermitian (symmetric) matrix are real, eigenvalues of a skew-Hermitian (skew-symmetric) matrix are purely imaginary or zero, eigenvalue λ of a unitary (orthogonal) matrix is such that $|\lambda| = 1$.

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A is unitary $\Rightarrow A^* A = I \Rightarrow (\bar{A})^T A = I$
 $\Rightarrow A^T \bar{A} = I$, also $\bar{A} A^T = I$.

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix.

λ be an eigen value & \underline{v} be the corresponding eigen vector of A . ($\underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$).

$$\therefore A \underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v} \rightarrow (1)$$

Let $\underline{v} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ $\therefore \underline{v} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow$ at least one of x_i 's $\neq 0$.

Premultiply both sides of (1) by \bar{V}^T

$$\bar{V}^T A \underline{V} = \bar{V}^T \lambda \underline{V} = \lambda \bar{V}^T \underline{V}$$

Notice, $\bar{V}^T \underline{V} = [\bar{x}_1 \ \bar{x}_2 \ \dots \ \bar{x}_n] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = [\sum |x_i|^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \neq 0$
 $= m(\text{say})$.

So, $\lambda m = \underset{1 \times n}{\bar{V}}^T \underset{n \times n}{A} \underset{n \times 1}{\underline{V}}$

R.H.S. will give us a 1×1 matrix i.e. some number z .

So, $z = \bar{V}^T A \underline{V}$

Also, we've $m \neq 0$, is real.

$\therefore \lambda = \frac{z}{m}$ will be real/purely imaginary.

Case I. A is Hermitian.

$$A^T = \bar{A}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{z} &= \overline{\bar{V}^T A \underline{V}} = \underline{V}^T \bar{A} \bar{\underline{V}} = \underline{V}^T A^T \bar{\underline{V}} = (\bar{V}^T A \underline{V})^T \\ &= z^T = z \quad (\because z \text{ is a number it is invariant under}) \\ &\quad \text{transposition.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e. } a - ib = a + ib$$

$$\Rightarrow b = 0 \quad \therefore z = a, \text{ real}$$

So λ is real in this case.

Case II Try it!

Case III A is unitary.

$$\Rightarrow A^T \bar{A} = \bar{A} A^T = I$$

$$A \underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v} \rightarrow (1)$$

Take transpose on both sides of (1)

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

Take conjugate on both sides of (2)

$$\overline{\underline{v}^T A^T} = \overline{\lambda \underline{v}^T}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\underline{v}}^T \bar{A}^T = \bar{\lambda} \bar{\underline{v}}^T \rightarrow (3)$$

Multiply both sides of (3) by both sides of (1).

$$\bar{\underline{v}}^T \bar{A}^T A \underline{v} = \lambda \bar{\lambda} \bar{\underline{v}}^T \underline{v}$$

$$\text{or } \bar{\underline{v}}^T A^* A \underline{v} = \lambda \bar{\lambda} \bar{\underline{v}}^T \underline{v}$$

$$\text{or } \bar{\underline{v}}_{1 \times n}^T I_{n \times n} \underline{v}_{n \times 1} = \lambda \bar{\lambda} m$$

$$\text{or } \bar{\underline{v}}^T \underline{v} = |\lambda|^2 m$$

$$\text{or } m = |\lambda|^2 m$$

$$\text{or } |\lambda|^2 = 1 \quad (\because m \neq 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow |\lambda| = +1$$

Orthogonal matrix

$$A^T A = I \text{ or } A^T A = I$$

i.e. if $A^T = A^{-1}$.

Take determinant. $|A^T| |A| = 1$

$$\Rightarrow |A|^2 = 1 \Rightarrow |A| = \pm 1.$$

\Rightarrow An orthogonal matrix is always nonsingular.

Theorems.

1. If A & B are two symmetric matrices, then $A \pm B$ is also symmetric.
2. If A & B are both symmetric matrices of the same order, then AB is symmetric if and only if $AB = BA$.
3. If A be an $n \times n$ matrix, then the matrices AA^T & $A^T A$ are symmetric.
4. Any square matrix A (real / complex) can be expressed as a sum of symmetric matrix $\frac{A+A^T}{2}$ & a skew symmetric matrix $\frac{A-A^T}{2}$.
$$\therefore A = \frac{1}{2} (A+A^T) + \frac{1}{2} (A-A^T).$$
5. If A is an orthogonal matrix then $\det A = \pm 1$ i.e. A is always non-singular.
6. If A is an orthogonal matrix, then A^{-1} is also orthogonal.
7. If A & B are orthogonal matrices of the same order then AB & BA are orthogonal.

Complex Matrices.

A matrix A whose elements are taken from the field C (whose elements are complex) is a complex matrix.

$$A = P + iQ ; P, Q \text{ are real matrices.}$$

Here we define.

$$A^* = \bar{A}^T \text{ (Conjugate transpose),}$$