

Linear Algebra II - Jordan Canonical Form

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Nilpotent Linear Transformations

In the last lecture, we have shown that for the linear transform T on V , when $f_T(x)$ splits, V can be decomposed as a direct sum of generalized eigenspaces. Since each generalized eigenspace is T -invariant, it remains to find a nice matrix representation of T restricted on each generalized eigenspace.

Therefore, we may assume that V is equal to a single generalized eigenspace $E_\infty(\lambda)$. On the other hand, we can also replace T by $T - \lambda I$ so that we can further assume that $\lambda = 0$ and $V = E_\infty(0) = \ker_\infty(T)$.

Definition A linear transform T is nilpotent if $T^k \equiv 0$ for some positive integer k .

The following are equivalent definitions of nilpotency and its proof is left to readers as exercise.

Theorem 1. *The following are equivalent.*

1. T is nilpotent.
2. $T^n \equiv 0$ where $n = \dim V$.
3. $T^k \equiv 0$ for some positive integer k .

Now suppose that T is nilpotent. Let \vec{v} be a nonzero vector. Let $\alpha = \{\vec{v}, T(\vec{v}), \dots, T^{m-1}(\vec{v})\}$ is the basis of the cyclic subspace W generated by \vec{v} . Then we have

$$T^m(\vec{v}) = a_0\vec{v} + \dots + a_{m-1}T^{m-1}(\vec{v})$$

for some a_0, \dots, a_{m-1} in F such that

$$f_{T|_W}(x) = x^m - a_{m-1}x^{m-1} - \dots - a_0,$$

the characteristic polynomial of T restricted on W . On the other hand, $f_{T|_W}(x)$ divides $f_T(x) = x^n$, which means $f_{T|_W}(x) = x^m$ and $T^m(\vec{v}) = \vec{0}$. In this case, we have

$$\text{Rep}_\alpha(T|_W) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Besides, it is convenient to express the action of T on W by the diagram

$$\vec{0} \leftarrow T^{m-1}(\vec{v}) \leftarrow \cdots \leftarrow T(\vec{v}) \leftarrow \vec{v}.$$

The goal of this lecture is the following theorem.

Theorem 2. *For a nilpotent linear transformation T on V , V can be decomposed as a direct sum of cyclic subspaces of T .*

Proof. Let us prove the theorem by induction on $n = \dim V$. If $n = 1$, then V itself is the cyclic subspace of any nonzero vector. Suppose theorem holds for cases of dimension $< n$.

Case a): Suppose $\ker(T) \not\subseteq \operatorname{Im}(T)$, then there exists some $\vec{v} \in \ker(T)$ with $\vec{v} \notin \operatorname{Im}(T)$. We will decompose V as a direct sum of two nonzero T -invariant subspaces, then by induction, each of them can be decomposed as a directed sum of cyclic subspaces and so is V .

Note that

$$F\vec{v} + \operatorname{Im}(T) = F\vec{v} \oplus \operatorname{Im}(T),$$

so we can decompose V as

$$V = F\vec{v} \oplus \operatorname{Im}(T) \oplus W$$

for some subspace W . Since

$$T(F\vec{v}) = \{\vec{0}\} \quad \text{and} \quad T(\operatorname{Im}(T) \oplus W) \subseteq T(V) = \operatorname{Im}(T),$$

$F\vec{v}$ and $\operatorname{Im}(T) \oplus W$ are both T -invariant.

Case b): Suppose $\ker(T) \subseteq \operatorname{Im}(T)$. Since 0 is always an eigenvalue of T , $\ker(T)$ is nonzero and the dimension of $\operatorname{Im}(T)$ is smaller than the dimension of V . By induction,

$$\operatorname{Im}(T) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_i).$$

for some nonzero $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k \in V$. From the above decomposition, it is easy to see that $\dim \ker(T) = k$ and

$$\operatorname{Im}(T) = \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^k F\vec{v}_i \right) \oplus \operatorname{Im}(T^2).$$

Since $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k$ all lie in $\operatorname{Im}(T)$, for each i , we can find $\vec{u}_i \in V$ such that $T(\vec{u}_i) = \vec{v}_i$. To complete the proof, we shall show that $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \text{cyclic}(\vec{u}_i)$, or equivalent

$$V = \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^k F\vec{u}_i \right) \oplus \operatorname{Im}(T).$$

First, by the dimension formula,

$$\dim V = \dim \ker(T) + \dim \operatorname{Im}(T) = k + \dim \operatorname{Im}(T).$$

It remains to show $\left(\sum_{i=1}^k F\vec{u}_i \right) + \operatorname{Im}(T)$ is a direct sum. Suppose $\sum_{i=1}^k a_i \vec{u}_i + \vec{v} = \vec{0}$ for some $a_i \in F$ and $\vec{v} \in \operatorname{Im}(T)$. Applying T to this equation, we obtain

$$\vec{0} = T \left(\sum_{i=1}^k a_i \vec{u}_i + \vec{v} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \vec{v}_i + T(\vec{v}) \in \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^k F\vec{v}_i \right) \oplus \operatorname{Im}(T^2).$$

We conclude that $a_1 = \dots = a_k = 0$ and hence $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$. Thus, $\left(\sum_{i=1}^k F\vec{w}_i\right) + \text{Im}(T)$ is a direct sum. \square

Next, let us discuss the uniqueness of cyclic subspace decomposition. Consider the following example. Suppose

$$V = \text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_1) \oplus \text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_2) \oplus \text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_3) \oplus \text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_4)$$

and the action of T can be characterized by

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T^2(\vec{v}_1) & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_1) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_1 \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_2) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_2 & & \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_3) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_3 & & \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_4. & & & & \end{array}$$

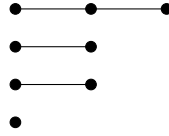
From the above diagram, the **red parts** form the basis of $\ker(T)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T^2(\vec{v}_1) & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_1) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_1 \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_2) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_2 & & \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_3) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_3 & & \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_4. & & & & \end{array}$$

Similarly, the **blue parts** form the basis of $\ker(T^2)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T^2(\vec{v}_1) & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_1) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_1 \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_2) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_2 & & \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & T(\vec{v}_3) & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_3 & & \\ \vec{0} & \leftarrow & \vec{v}_4. & & & & \end{array}$$

Remark. If we only need care about the sizes of cyclic subspaces then it is common to use "the dot diagram" as



Let d_i be the dimension of $\text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_i)$. We conclude that

$$\dim \ker(T) = \#\{i | d_i \geq 1\}.$$

and

$$\dim \ker(T^2) = \#\{i | d_i \geq 1\} + \#\{j | d_j \geq 2\}.$$

In general, suppose $V = \oplus_{i=1}^k \text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_i)$. Let $d_i = \dim \text{cyclic}(\vec{v}_i)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \dim \ker(T) &= \#\{i | d_i \geq 1\} \\ \dim \ker(T^2) - \dim \ker(T) &= \#\{i | d_i \geq 2\} \\ &\vdots \\ \dim \ker(T^r) - \dim \ker(T^{r-1}) &= \#\{i | d_i \geq r\}. \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 3 (Uniqueness of cyclic decomposition). *For a nilpotent linear transformation T on V , let $V = \oplus_{i=1}^k W_i = \oplus_{j=1}^r U_j$ be two cyclic subspace decompositions. If none of subspace is the zero subspace, then $r = k$. Moreover, if $\dim W_i \geq \dim W_j$ and $\dim U_i \geq \dim U_j$ for all $i > j$, then $\dim W_i = \dim U_i$ for all i .*

Explicit Cyclic Subspace Decomposition

The basis principle to compute cyclic subspace decompositions is to find the highest dimensional cyclic subspaces first.

Example Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 12 & -9 \\ -1 & -6 & 6 \\ -1 & -4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

By direct computation, we have

$$\dim \ker(A) = 1, \dim \ker(A^2) = 2, \text{ and } \dim \ker(A^3) = 3$$

which implies that the dot diagram is



In this case, V admits a basis of the form

$$\vec{0} \leftarrow A^2(\vec{v}_1) \leftarrow A(\vec{v}_1) \leftarrow \vec{v}_1$$

To find \vec{v}_1 , note that

$$\text{Im}(A^2) = \text{Im}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 0 & 18 \\ -3 & 0 & -9 \\ -2 & 0 & -6 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \text{span}\{A^2(\vec{v}_1)\}.$$

Therefore, we can choose $A^2(\vec{v}_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Finally let $\alpha = \{\vec{v}_1, A(\vec{v}_1), A^2(\vec{v}_1)\}$ and $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & -1 & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ be the matrix of change basis. Then

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

Example Let

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

By direct computation, we have

$$\dim \ker(A) = 2 \text{ and } \dim \ker(A^2) = 3$$

which implies that the dot diagram is



In this case, V admits a basis of the form

$$\begin{array}{l} \vec{0} \leftarrow A(\vec{v}_1) \leftarrow \vec{v}_1 \\ \vec{0} \leftarrow \vec{v}_2. \end{array}$$

First, let us find \vec{v}_1 . Note that

$$\text{Im}(A) = \text{span}\{A(\vec{v}_1)\}.$$

Therefore, we can choose $A(\vec{v}_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. To find \vec{v}_2 , note that

$$\text{span}\{A(\vec{v}_1), \vec{v}_2\} = \ker(A) = \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\}.$$

Therefore, we can choose $v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Finally let $\alpha = \{\vec{v}_1, A(\vec{v}_1), \vec{v}_2\}$ and $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ be the matrix of change basis. Then

$$P^{-1}AP = \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right).$$