

# Invariant Subspaces(不变子空间)

## Lecture 13

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# Eigenvalues

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Invariant Subspaces
- 3 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- 4 Restriction and Quotient Operators
- 5 Homework Assignment 13

# Introduction

Linear maps from one vector space to another vector space were the objects of study in Chapter 3. Now we begin our investigation of linear maps from a finite-dimensional vector space to itself. Their study constitutes the most important part of linear algebra.

Learning objectives for this Chapter:

- 1 invariant subspaces
- 2 eigenvalues, eigenvectors, and eigenspaces
- 3 each operator on a finite-dimensional complex vector space has an eigenvalue and an upper-triangular matrix with respect to some basis

# Invariant Subspaces

- In this chapter we develop the tools that will help us understand the structure of operators. Recall that an operator is a linear map from a vector space to itself. Recall also that we denote the set of operators on  $V$  by  $\mathcal{L}(V)$ ; in other words,  $\mathcal{L}(V) = \mathcal{L}(V, V)$ .
- Let's see how we might better understand what an operator looks like. Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . We have a direct sum decomposition

$$V = U_1 \oplus U_2 \cdots \oplus U_m$$

- Where each  $U_j$  is a proper subspace of  $V$ , then to understand the behavior of  $T$ , we need only understand the behavior of each  $T|_{U_j}$ ; here  $T|_{U_j}$  denotes the restriction of  $T$  to the smaller domain  $U_j$ . Dealing with  $T|_{U_j}$  should be easier than dealing with  $T$  because  $U_j$  is a smaller vector space than  $V$ .

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- However, if we intend to apply tools useful in the study of operators (such as taking powers), then we have a problem:  $T|_{U_j}$  may not map  $U_j$  into itself; in other words,  $T|_{U_j}$  may not be an operator on  $U_j$ .
- Thus we are led to consider only decomposition of  $V$  of the form above where  $T$  maps each  $U_j$  into itself.
- The notion of a subspace that gets mapped into itself is sufficiently important to deserve a name.

## 5.2 Definition *invariant subspace*

Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . A subspace  $U$  of  $V$  is called *invariant* under  $T$  if  $u \in U$  implies  $Tu \in U$ .

In other words,  $U$  is invariant under  $T$  if  $T|_U$  is an operator on  $U$ .

# Example

**5.3 Example** Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . Show that each of the following subspaces of  $V$  is invariant under  $T$ :

- (a)  $\{0\}$ ;
- (b)  $V$ ;
- (c)  $\text{null } T$ ;
- (d)  $\text{range } T$ .

*The most famous unsolved problem in functional analysis is called the **invariant subspace problem**. It deals with invariant subspaces of operators on infinite-dimensional vector spaces.*

Remark:

1. Must an operator  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  have any invariant subspaces other than  $\{0\}$  and  $V$ ?
2. Later we will see that this question has an affirmative answer if  $V$  is finite-dimensional and  $\dim V > 1$  (for  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ ) or  $\dim V > 2$  (for  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ ).

# Invariant Subspaces

Although null  $T$  and range  $T$  are invariant under  $T$ , they do not necessarily provide easy answers to the question about the existence of invariant subspaces other than  $\{0\}$  and  $V$ .

## Example

Suppose that  $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}))$  is defined by  $T(p) = p'$ . Then  $\mathcal{P}_4(\mathbb{R})$ , which is a subspace of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ , is invariant under  $T$  because if  $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$  has degree at most 4, then  $p'$  also has degree at most 4.

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

We will return later to a deeper study of invariant subspaces. Now we turn to an investigation of the simplest possible nontrivial invariant subspaces—invariant subspaces with dimension 1. The equation  $Tv = \lambda v$ , which we have just seen is intimately connected with 1-dimensional invariant subspace, is important enough that the vectors  $v$  and scalars  $\lambda$  satisfying it are given special names.

## 5.5 Definition *eigenvalue*

Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . A number  $\lambda \in \mathbf{F}$  is called an *eigenvalue* of  $T$  if there exists  $v \in V$  such that  $v \neq 0$  and  $Tv = \lambda v$ .



## Remarks

The word eigenvalue is half-German, half-English. The German adjective eigen means “own” in the sense of characterizing an intrinsic property. Some mathematicians use the term characteristic value instead of eigenvalue.

# Eigenvalue

The comments above show that  $T$  has a 1-dimensional invariant subspace if and only if  $T$  has an eigenvalue. In the definition above, we require that  $v \neq 0$  because every scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  satisfies  $T0 = \lambda 0$ .

## 5.6 Equivalent conditions to be an eigenvalue

Suppose  $V$  is finite-dimensional,  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ , and  $\lambda \in F$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- (a)  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $T$ ;
- (b)  $T - \lambda I$  is not injective;
- (c)  $T - \lambda I$  is not surjective;
- (d)  $T - \lambda I$  is not invertible.

*Recall that  $I \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  is the identity operator defined by  $Iv = v$  for all  $v \in V$ .*

# Eigenvector

## Eigenvector

### 5.7 Definition *eigenvector*

Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbf{F}$  is an eigenvalue of  $T$ . A vector  $v \in V$  is called an *eigenvector* of  $T$  corresponding to  $\lambda$  if  $v \neq 0$  and  $Tv = \lambda v$ .

Because  $Tv = \lambda v$  if and only if  $(T - \lambda I)v = 0$ , a vector  $v \in V$  with  $v \neq 0$  is an eigenvector of  $T$  corresponding to  $\lambda$  if and only if  $v \in \text{null}(T - \lambda I)$ .

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5.8 Example Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{F}^2)$  is defined by

$$T(w, z) = (-z, w).$$

- (a) Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $T$  if  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}$ .
- (b) Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $T$  if  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C}$ .

## Solution.

(a) If  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ , then  $T$  is a counterclockwise rotation by  $90^\circ$  about the origin in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . An operator has an eigenvalue if and only if there exists a nonzero vector in its domain that gets sent by the operator to a scalar multiple of itself. A  $90^\circ$  counterclockwise rotation of a nonzero vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  obviously never equals a scalar multiple of itself. Conclusion: if  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ , then  $T$  has no eigenvalues (and thus has no eigenvectors).

(b)

(b) To find the eigenvalues of  $T$ , we must find the scalars such that  $T(w, z) = \lambda(w, z)$  has some solution other than  $w = z = 0$ . The equation  $T(w, z) = \lambda(w, z)$  is equivalent to the simultaneous equations

$$-z = \lambda w, w = \lambda z.$$

It follows that  $-1 = \lambda^2$ . The solutions to this equation are  $\lambda = i$  and  $\lambda = -i$ . You should be able to verify that  $i$  and  $-i$  are eigenvalues of  $T$ . Indeed, the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalue  $i$  are the vectors of the form  $(w, -wi)$ , with  $w \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $w \neq 0$ , and the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalue  $-i$  are the vectors of the form  $(w, wi)$  with  $w \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $w \neq 0$ .

# eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent

Now we show that eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.

## 5.10 Linearly independent eigenvectors

Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . Suppose  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$  are distinct eigenvalues of  $T$  and  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  are corresponding eigenvectors. Then  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  is linearly independent.

## Proof.

**Proof.** Suppose  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  is linearly dependent. Let  $k$  be the smallest positive integer such that  $v_k \in \text{span}(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k-1})$ ; the existence of  $k$  with this property follows from the Linear Dependence Lemma (2.21). Thus there exist  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{k-1} \in \mathbb{F}$  such that

$$v_k = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_{k-1} v_{k-1} \cdots \cdots (*).$$

Apply  $T$  to both sides of this equation, getting

$$\lambda_k v_k = a_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + a_{k-1} \lambda_{k-1} v_{k-1}.$$

## Solution

Multiply both sides of (\*) by  $\lambda_k$  and then subtract the equation above, getting

$$0 = a_1(\lambda_k - \lambda_1)v_1 + \cdots + a_{k-1}(\lambda_k - \lambda_{k-1})v_{k-1}.$$

Because we chose  $k$  to be the smallest positive integer satisfying  $v_k \in \text{span}(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k-1})$ ,  $v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}$  is linearly independent. Thus the equation above implies that all the  $a$ 's are 0 (recall that  $\lambda_k$  is not equal to any of  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{k-1}$ ). However, this means that  $v_k$  equals 0 (see (\*)), contradicting our hypothesis that  $v_k$  is an eigenvector. Therefore our assumption that  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  is linearly dependent was false.



# Number of Eigenvalues

## Number of eigenvalues.

The corollary below states that an operator can not have more distinct eigenvalues than the dimension of the vector space on which it acts.

### 5.13 Number of eigenvalues

Suppose  $V$  is finite-dimensional. Then each operator on  $V$  has at most  $\dim V$  distinct eigenvalues.

**Proof.** Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . Suppose  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$  are distinct eigenvalues of  $T$ . Let  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  be corresponding eigenvectors. Then 5.10 implies that the list  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  is linearly independent. Thus  $m \leq \dim V$  (see 2.23), as desired.

# Restriction and Quotient Operators

If  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  and  $U$  is a subspace of  $V$  invariant under  $T$ , then  $U$  determines two other operators  $T|_U \in \mathcal{L}(U)$  and  $T/U \in \mathcal{L}(V/U)$  in a natural way, as defined below.

## 5.14 Definition $T|_U$ and $T/U$

Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  and  $U$  is a subspace of  $V$  invariant under  $T$ .

- The *restriction operator*  $T|_U \in \mathcal{L}(U)$  is defined by

$$T|_U(u) = Tu$$

for  $u \in U$ .

- The *quotient operator*  $T/U \in \mathcal{L}(V/U)$  is defined by

$$(T/U)(v + U) = Tv + U$$

for  $v \in V$ .

## Example

- Suppose  $T$  is an operator on a finite-dimensional vector space  $V$  and  $U$  is a subspace of  $V$  invariant under  $T$ , with  $U \neq \{0\}$  and  $U \neq V$ .
- In some sense, we can learn about  $T$  by studying the operators  $T|_U$  and  $T/U$ , each of which is an operator on a vector space with smaller dimension than  $V$ . For example, proof 2 of 5.27 makes nice use of  $T/U$ .
- However, sometimes  $T|_U$  and  $T/U$  do not provide enough information about  $T$ . In the next example, both  $T|_U$  and  $T/U$  are 0 even though  $T$  is not the zero operator.

# Example

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**5.15 Example** Define an operator  $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{F}^2)$  by  $T(x, y) = (y, 0)$ . Let  $U = \{(x, 0) : x \in \mathbf{F}\}$ . Show that

- (a)  $U$  is invariant under  $T$  and  $T|_U$  is the 0 operator on  $U$ ;
- (b) there does not exist a subspace  $W$  of  $\mathbf{F}^2$  that is invariant under  $T$  and such that  $\mathbf{F}^2 = U \oplus W$ ;
- (c)  $T/U$  is the 0 operator on  $\mathbf{F}^2/U$ .

# Solution

## Solution

- (a) For  $(x, 0) \in U$ , we have  $T(x, 0) = (0, 0) \in U$ . Thus  $U$  is invariant under  $T$  and  $T|_U$  is the 0 operator on  $U$ .
- (b) Suppose  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$  such that  $\mathbf{F}^2 = U \oplus W$ . Because  $\dim \mathbf{F}^2 = 2$  and  $\dim U = 1$ , we have  $\dim W = 1$ . If  $W$  were invariant under  $T$ , then each nonzero vector in  $W$  would be an eigenvector of  $T$ . However, it is easy to see that 0 is the only eigenvalue of  $T$  and that all eigenvectors of  $T$  are in  $U$ . Thus  $W$  is not invariant under  $T$ .
- (c) For  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}^2$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}(T/U)((x, y) + U) &= T(x, y) + U \\ &= (y, 0) + U \\ &= 0 + U,\end{aligned}$$

where the last equality holds because  $(y, 0) \in U$ . The equation above shows that  $T/U$  is the 0 operator.

# Homework Assignment 13

5.A: 2, 14, 18, 22, 34, 36.