

Linear Algebra II

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Proposition 0.1

Let F be an algebraically closed field. Suppose the elements of $\mathcal{F} \subset L(V)$ are pairwise commutative, then \mathcal{F} is simultaneously triangulable.

Remark 0.2 — The inverse of this proposition is not true: Just let \mathcal{F} be the set consisting of all the upper triangular matrices.

Lemma 0.3

There's a common eigenvector of \mathcal{F} .

Proof of lemma. WLOG \mathcal{F} is finite. (In fact, $\text{span } \mathcal{F} \subset L(V)$ is a finite dimensional vector space, so we can take a basis \mathcal{F}_0 .)

Now by induction, if T_1, \dots, T_{k-1} have common eigenvector α , let $T_i \alpha = c_i \alpha$. Then

$$W = \bigcap_{i=1}^{k-1} \ker(T_i - c_i \text{id}_V) \neq \{0\}$$

is a T_k -invariant space.

So any eigenvector α' of $T_k|_W$ is the common eigenvector. □

Proof of the proposition. It suffices to prove that there exists an \mathcal{F} -invariant flag. By the lemma, the proof is nearly identical as the proof of previous proposition. □

§0.1 Decomposition of linear maps

In this section we mainly study how a linear map is decomposed into irreducible maps and the structure of irreducible maps.

Recall that every vector space V is an $F[x]$ -module given a linear operator T . If a subspace $W \subset V$ is a T -invariant space, then W is a submodule of V .

Hence it leads to decompose V into direct sums of submodules.

Definition 0.4. Let V, W be isomorphic vector spaces. $T \in L(V)$, $T' \in L(W)$. If there exists an isomorphism $\Phi : V \rightarrow W$ s.t. $\Phi \circ T = T' \circ \Phi$, we say T and T' are **equivalent**.

Definition 0.5 (Primary maps). Let $T \in L(V)$ be a linear map. We say T is **primary** if p_T is a power of prime polynomials.

Theorem 0.6 (Primary decomposition)

Let $T \in L(V)$, $p_T = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i}$, where p_i are different monic prime polynomials of degree 1. We have

$$V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k W_i, \quad W_i = \ker(p_i^{r_i}(T)),$$

with $W_i \neq \{0\}$ and $T|_{W_i}$ primary.

Proof. Let $f_i = \prod_{j \neq i} p_j^{r_j}$, f_i and p_i are coprime.

Note that $f_i(T) \neq 0$ and $f_i(T)p_i^{r_i}(T) = p_T(T) = 0$, thus $p_i^{r_i}(T)$ is not invertible, which implies $W_i \neq \{0\}$.

W_i independent : If there exists $\alpha_j \in W_j$ s.t. $\sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j = 0$, applying f_i we get $f_i(\alpha_i) = 0$. But $p_i^{r_i}(\alpha_i) = 0 \implies \alpha_i = 0, \forall i$.

To prove $V = \sum_{i=1}^k W_i$, observe that

$$\gcd(f_1, \dots, f_k) = 1 \implies \exists g_1, \dots, g_k \text{ s.t. } 1 = \sum_{i=1}^k g_i f_i \implies \alpha = \sum_{i=1}^k g_i(f_i \alpha), \quad \forall \alpha \in V.$$

Since $f_i \alpha \in W_i$, W_i is T -invariant $\implies g_i f_i \alpha \in W_i$.

Lastly, we'll prove that the minimal polynomial q_i of $T|_{W_i}$ is $p_i^{r_i}$.

Clearly $p_i^{r_i}(T|_{W_i}) = 0$, so $q_i \mid p_i^{r_i}$.

On the other hand, $q_1 q_2 \dots q_k$ is an annihilating polynomial of T , hence

$$\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i} \mid \prod_{i=1}^k q_i \implies q_i = p_i^{r_i}, \quad \forall i.$$

□

§0.2 Cyclic decomposition

In the following contents we'll assume $R = F[x]$ if it's not specified.

Definition 0.7 (Cyclic maps). Let V be a finite dimensional vector space and $T \in L(V)$. For $\alpha \in V$, $R\alpha = \{f\alpha \mid f \in R\} = \text{span}\{\alpha, T\alpha, \dots\}$ is the smallest T -invariant subspace containing α .

We say T is **cyclic** if $\exists \alpha$ s.t. $V = R\alpha$. In this case α is called a **cyclic vector**.

Here $R\alpha$ is called the cyclic subspace spanned by α .

Remark 0.8 — The word “cyclic” comes from the theory of modules.

Note that $\dim R\alpha = 1 \iff \alpha$ is an eigenvector.

Example 0.9

Let $A = E_{21} \in F^{2 \times 2}$. Then A is cyclic because $A\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2$, $A\varepsilon_2 = 0$. This means ε_1 is a cyclic vector of A ,

Now there's a natural question: When is T cyclic and how to find its cyclic vectors?

For a given vector α , let $M_\alpha = \{f \in R \mid f\alpha = 0\}$ is an ideal of R .

Note that $M_T \subset M_\alpha$ as $f \in M_T \implies f(T)\alpha = 0$, so M_α is nonempty, it has a generating element p_α , called the **annihilator** of α .

Proposition 0.10

Let $d = \deg p_\alpha$, then $\{\alpha, T\alpha, \dots, T^{d-1}\alpha\}$ is a basis of $R\alpha$. In particular, $\dim R\alpha = \deg p_\alpha$.

Proof. Linear independence:

If $\sum_{i=0}^{d-1} c_i T^i \alpha = 0$, let $g = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} c_i x^i$.

$$g\alpha = 0 \implies g \in M_\alpha \implies p_\alpha \mid g.$$

But $\deg g \leq d-1 < d = \deg p_\alpha \implies g = 0$.

Spanning:

Clearly $T^i \alpha \in R\alpha$. $\forall f \in R$, let $f = qp_\alpha + r$ with $\deg r < \deg p_\alpha$. Hence $f\alpha = r\alpha \in \text{span}\{\alpha, T\alpha, \dots, T^{d-1}\alpha\}$. \square

Since α is a cyclic vector $\iff \dim R\alpha = \dim V$, and $\deg p_\alpha \leq \deg p_T \leq \deg f_T = \dim V$, so we care whether these two inequalities can attain the equality.

Proposition 0.11

There exists $\alpha \in V$ s.t. $p_\alpha = p_T$.

Proof. Let $p_T = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i}$.

$$W_i = \ker(p_i^{r_i}(T)) \implies V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k W_i.$$

We claim that $\ker(p_i^{r_i-1}(T)) \subsetneq W_i$ as $p_{T_{W_i}} = p_i^{r_i}$.

Take a vector $\alpha_i \in W_i \setminus \ker(p_i^{r_i-1}(T))$. By definition $p_{\alpha_i} \mid p_i^{r_i}$, $p_{\alpha_i} \nmid p_i^{r_i-1} \implies p_{\alpha_i} = p_i^{r_i}$.

Let $\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i$. If $f\alpha = 0$, then $f\alpha_i = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$ as $f\alpha_i \in W_i$.

$$f\alpha_i = 0 \implies p_{\alpha_i} \mid f \implies p_T \mid f.$$

This means we must have $p_\alpha = p_T$. \square

Now we come to a conclusion:

Corollary 0.12

T is cyclic $\iff \deg p_T = \dim V \iff p_T = f_T$.

In this case, α is a cyclic vector $\iff p_\alpha = p_T$.

Let $n = \dim V$, T be a cyclic map, α be a cyclic vector. By previous proposition, $\{\alpha, T\alpha, \dots, T^{n-1}\alpha\}$ is a basis of V . Denote the basis by \mathcal{B} .

Observe that $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is equal to

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -c_0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -c_1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -c_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -c_{n-2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & -c_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

where c_i are the coefficients of $p_\alpha = p_T = f_T = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i$. For a monic polynomial f , define C_f to be the matrix as above, called the **companion matrix** of f .

Proposition 0.13

If exists a basis \mathcal{B} s.t. $[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = C_f$ for some monic polynomial f , then T is cyclic and $p_T = f$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$, we have $T^i \alpha_1 = \alpha_{i+1} \implies R\alpha_1 = V$ and $p_{\alpha_1} = f$. □

Remark 0.14 — In fact we can check directly that f is the characteristic polynomial of C_f .

This gives another proof of Cayley-Hamilton theorem:

Proof. For any $\alpha \in V$, consider $T_{R\alpha} \mid f_T$.

$$f_{T_{R\alpha}} = f_{C_{p_\alpha}} = p_\alpha \mid f_T$$

This implies that f_T is an annihilating polynomial of α , which means $f_T(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in V$, i.e. $f_T(T) = 0$. □

Theorem 0.15 (Cyclic decomposition)

Let $T \in L(V)$, $\dim V = n$. There exists $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r \in V$ s.t. $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^r R\alpha_i$.

Furthermore, $p_{\alpha_r} \mid \cdots \mid p_{\alpha_1} = p_T$, $f_T = \prod_{i=1}^r p_{\alpha_i}$.

Here p_{α_i} 's are called the **invariant factors** of T . The invariant factors are *totally determined* by T .

First we prove a lemma:

Lemma 0.16

Let $\alpha \in V$ with $p_\alpha = p_T$, $\forall L \in V/R\alpha$, exists $\beta \in L$ s.t. $p_\beta = p_L$.

Here $f \cdot L := f(T_{V/R\alpha})L$, so $fL = 0 \iff f(T)\beta \in R\alpha, \forall \beta \in L$.

Proof. For all $\beta \in L$, we must have $p_\beta L = 0$, since $L = \beta + R\alpha, T(R\alpha) = R\alpha$.

If $p_L \beta \neq 0$, since $p_L \beta \in R\alpha$, thus $p_L \beta = f\alpha$ for some $f \in R$.

Because $p_L \mid p_\beta \mid p_\alpha = p_T$,

$$\left(\frac{p_\alpha}{p_L} \right) f\alpha = p_\alpha \beta = 0.$$

We have $\frac{p_\alpha}{p_L}f$ is an annihilator of α , hence it's a multiple of p_α , i.e. $p_L \mid f$.

Let $f = p_L h$, $\beta_0 = \beta - h\alpha$, we have $p_L \beta_0 = f\alpha - p_L h\alpha = 0 \implies p_{\beta_0} = p_L$. \square

Returning to our original theorem, we'll prove by induction on n .

Take $\alpha_1 \in V$ s.t. $p_{\alpha_1} = p_T$. Consider $V/R\alpha_1$, its dimension is strictly lesser than n . By induction hypo, $\exists L_2, L_3, \dots, L_r \in V/R\alpha_1$, such that

$$V/R\alpha_1 = \bigoplus_{i=1}^r RL_i, \quad p_{L_r} \mid \dots \mid p_{L_2}.$$

Take $\alpha_i \in L_i$ s.t. $p_{\alpha_i} = p_{L_i}$, we must have $p_{\alpha_r} \mid \dots \mid p_{\alpha_1} = p_T$.

If there exists $g_i \alpha_i \in R\alpha_1$ s.t. $\sum_{i=1}^r g_i \alpha_i = 0$, then

$$\sum_{i=2}^r g_i L_i = 0 \implies g_i L_i = 0 \implies g_i \alpha_i = 0.$$

For any $\gamma \in V$, since $\gamma \in \gamma + R\alpha_1$, by induction hypo, $\gamma + R\alpha_1 = \sum_{i=2}^r h_i L_i$.

This means $\gamma - \sum_{i=2}^r h_i \alpha_i \in R\alpha_1$, this completes the existence part of the theorem.

As for the uniqueness part, just note that $p_T = \text{lcm}(p_1, \dots, p_r) = p_1$ and $f_T = p_1 \cdots p_r$, the rest can be done with induction. (Details are left to readers)

Theorem 0.17

Let G be a finite abelian group, then $\exists g_1, \dots, g_r \in G \setminus \{0\}$, such that $G = \bigoplus_{i=1}^r \mathbb{Z}g_i$ and $|\mathbb{Z}g_r| \mid \dots \mid |\mathbb{Z}g_1|$.

Remark 0.18 — The proof is identical to the proof above.

§0.3 Rational canonical forms

Let $d_i = \deg p_i = \dim R\alpha_i$, $\mathcal{B}_i = \{\alpha_i, \dots, T^{d_i-1}\alpha_i\}$ is a basis of $R\alpha_i$. Then $[T_{R\alpha_i}]_{\mathcal{B}_i}$ is the companion matrix C_{p_i} , hence T can be represented as a blocked diagonal matrix with each block is C_{p_i} for invariant factors p_i . This is called the **rational canonical form** of T .

Definition 0.19. We say $A \in F^{n \times n}$ is **rational** if exists monic $p_1, \dots, p_r \in F[x]$, such that $p_r \mid \dots \mid p_1$ and $A = \text{diag}(C_{p_1}, \dots, C_{p_r})$.

Theorem 0.20

Let $T \in L(V)$, then T has a unique rational canonical form.

Proof. If $[T]_{\mathcal{B}'} = \text{diag}(C_{q_1}, \dots, C_{q_r})$ is another rational canonical form, let $\mathcal{B}' = (\mathcal{B}'_1, \dots, \mathcal{B}'_r)$.

It's easy to observe that $\text{span } \mathcal{B}'_i = R\beta_i$, where β_i is the first element in \mathcal{B}_i , so $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^r R\beta_i$ is a cyclic decomposition of V , by the previous theorem we deduce the canonical form is unique. \square

So far we've proved that $A \sim B \iff A, B$ have the same rational canonical form. Note that this canonical form does not require any extra properties of the base field F .

Next we'll see some applications of it. Different from Jordan canonical forms, rational canonical forms focus more on theory than computation.

Proposition 0.21 (Rational canonical forms don't depend on fields)

Let $A \in F^{n \times n}$ has rational canonical form A' , and the invariant factors are $p_1, \dots, p_r \in F[x]$.

If $K \subset F$ is a smaller field s.t. $A \in K^{n \times n}$, then A' is still the rational canonical form of A in K . i.e. $A' \in K^{n \times n}$, and $\exists P \in K^{n \times n}, A' = PAP^{-1}$.

Proof. Let A'' be the rational form of A on K . By the uniqueness of rational canonical forms, we must have $A' = A''$, since they are both the rational form of A on F . \square

Proposition 0.22 (Similarity in larger fields implies similarity in smaller fields)

Let A, B be matrices on F , and $A \sim B$ in F . If $A, B \in K^{n \times n}$, where K is a subfield of F , then $A \sim B$ in K as well.

Proof. Let C be the rational canonical form of A, B , since $A, B \in K^{n \times n}$, by the previous proposition, $C \in K^{n \times n}$ and $A \sim C \sim B$ in K . \square

Proposition 0.23

$\forall A \in F^{n \times n}, A \sim A^t$.

Proof. Firstly when $A = C_f$ for some $f \in F[x]$, A has only one invariant factor f . Note that $f_{A^t} = p_{A^t} = f_A = p_A = f$, so the invariant factor of A^t is also f , by rational canonical forms we're done.

Next for generic matrix A , just take the rational canonical form B . By above we have

$$A \sim B \implies A \sim B \sim B^t \sim A^t.$$

\square

Example 0.24 (How to compute the rational canonical forms (in low dimensions))

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -6 & -6 \\ -1 & 4 & 2 \\ 3 & -6 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{Q}^{3 \times 3}$. First observe that $f_A = (x-1)(x-2)^2$.

Since $(x-1)(x-2)$ is the minimal polynomial of A , so the invariant factors are $p_1 = (x-1)(x-2), p_2 = (x-2)$. Hence the rational canonical form of A is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Next we'll find vectors α_1, α_2 s.t. $p_{\alpha_i} = p_i$. So $P = (\alpha_1, A\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$ will be the transition matrix.

Proposition 0.25

Let T be a diagonalizable map, $\sigma(T) = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$. Let V_1, \dots, V_k be the primary decomposition of V ,

- Let $\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i, \beta_i \in V_i$, then $R\alpha = \text{span}\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k\}$, $p_\alpha = \prod_{\beta_i \neq 0} (x - c_i)$.
- Let $d_i = \dim V_i$, then $p_j = \prod_{d_i \geq j} (x - c_i)$.