

## B24 Aug II Lec 1 Notes

Proof: Cayley-Hamilton theorem

Case 1: Assume A is a diagonal matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

then PA(2) = (2,-2) ... (2n-2), so

Thus the composition of the diagonal matrices would be .O.

Case 2: Assume A is diagonalizable , i.e.

for D diagonal.

Then PA(2) = det (A-21) = det (D-21) = PD(2)

And so

$$P_{A}(A) = P_{D}(A) = (\lambda, I - A) \cdots (\lambda_{n} I - A)$$

$$= (\lambda, I - QDQ^{-1}) \cdots (\lambda_{n} I - QDQ^{-1})$$

$$= Q(\lambda, I - D)Q^{-1} \cdots Q(\lambda_{n} I - D)Q^{-1}$$

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$$= QQQ^{-1} \qquad \text{from case}$$

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Case 3: A is upper triangular

If the diagonal entries of A are distinct, then A is diagonalizable, and so case 2 applies. If the diagonal entries of A are not distinct, we argue as follows.

For each  $K \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $A_K$  be a matrix such that each entry of  $A_K$  converges to the corresponding entry of A as  $K + \infty$ , and  $A_K$  has distinct diagonal entries.

e.g. 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.09 & 1 \\ 0 & 1.01 \end{bmatrix}$ 

so for each K, Ak is diagonalizable, So PAK(AK) = O. Moreover,

$$P_{AK}(A) \rightarrow P_{A}(A)$$
, and so  $P_{AK}(AK) \xrightarrow{K+\infty} P_{A}(A)$ , and so  $P_{A}(A) = 0$ 

constant sequence O

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Proof ((ontinued ...):
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Case 4:

For any matrix A, there exists upper triangular D and invertible Q so that  $A = Q \, D \, Q^{-1}$ 

(Q,D are not necessarily real even lif A is)

hence the reasoning of case 2 applies:

$$P_A(\lambda) = P_D(\lambda) = c(\lambda - \lambda_1) \cdots (\lambda - \lambda_n)$$

So

$$P_{A}(A) = P_{D}(A) = c (A-\lambda,I) \cdots (A-\lambda nI)$$

$$= c (QDQ^{-1} - \lambda,I) \cdots (QDQ^{-1} - \lambda nI)$$

$$= c Q(D-\lambda,I) Q^{-1} \cdots Q(D-\lambda_nI) Q^{-1}$$

$$= c Q P_{D}(D) Q^{-1}$$

$$= c Q Q Q^{-1} = 0$$

0

Definition:

 $\sigma(A)$  is the set of eigenvalues of A.

Theorem: Spectral mapping theorem

Let A be a square matrix, and p a polynomial. Then

e.g. A=[ 1 2], p(2)=2+1

$$\sigma(A) = \{1,3\}$$
  $p(\sigma(A)) = \{1^2+1,3^2+1\}$   
= \{2,10\}

P(A) = A2+I

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 8 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 8 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

· o(p(A)) = p(o(A))

Proof:

Let p(x) = cn l" + ... + c, l . + c.

Case 1: p(o(A)) = o(p(A))

Let leo(a). WTS p(l) & o(p(a))

Let x to s.t. Ax = lx. Then:

= 
$$(C_n \lambda^n + ... + c_i \lambda + C_o)_X$$

$$= p(y) \times$$

So. p(λ) ε σ(p(A))

Case 2 p(o(A)) 2 o(p(A))

Let ue o(p(A)).

Define q(2) = p(2) - u

Then  $q(A) = p(A) - \alpha I$  is not invertible, since an eigenvector for p(A) is sent to 0 by q(A).

one of the factors A-z; I must be non-invertible, i.e., Z; is an eigenvalue, of A.