

1 Transpose

Transpose can be seen as the behavior of a linear system, that is to say, it contains the properties of linearity. The definition of transpose is as below,

For an arbitrary $n \times m$ matrix A^1 , the transpose of A is,

$$A \longrightarrow A^T = B$$

Where,

$$a_{i,j} = b_{j,i} , \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, m$$

By this definition, we see that $A^T = B$ is a $m \times n$ matrix, and simply put, **the rows become columns, and the columns become rows.**

2 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Eigenvalues are useful when we want to find out the **powers of matrix**. First, we shall talk about what is **Eigenvectors**, it is originated from a concept that **almost every vector will change its direction after the matrix A acting on them**. However, there are some vectors that wouldn't change their direction, that is,

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

Where λ is a real number(or a complex number). And we call λ A's **eigenvalue** and \mathbf{x} A's **eigenvector**.

In **Dirac Notation**, a vector \mathbf{x} can be seen as a **ket**² and the matrix A can be seen as an **operator**. There Dirac notation is as shown below:

$$A|x\rangle = \lambda|x\rangle$$

¹with n rows and m columns.

²However, there is a slightly difference between them, that is, the ket emphasizes on its direction but not its magnitude, yet for vector we consider both.

3 The Way to Find Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

As we may see in the following sections, it is worth mentioning the properties with eigenvalue:

m by m matrix should have \mathbf{m} eigenvalues and \mathbf{m} eigenvectors.

As for the way to find out eigenvalue, we should use the following formula which would be fully explained in the following context:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

Example: consider a 2 by 2 matrix A ,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} .8 & .3 \\ .2 & .7 \end{pmatrix}$$

and then we shall see $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} .8 - \lambda & .3 \\ .2 & .7 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 1.5\lambda + 0.5 = (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - \frac{1}{2})$$

So the two eigenvalues are $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$. For these eigenvalues, we can see that the matrix $A - \lambda I$ becomes *singular matrix*³. And since the definition of eigenvector is as below:

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

It is clearly⁴ that

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

So we can conclude that **eigenvectors** are in the **nullspace**⁵ of $A - \lambda I$, that is, we'll have the following equation for the **example**:

$$(A - I)\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{0}$$

³The definition of singular matrix is that the determination is 0, that is, not invertible

⁴one can check this by writing out the system of equations

⁵Nullspace is the space of solutions of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, and is denoted by $\mathbf{N}(A)$. One can simply check that we are able to add and multiply without leaving the nullspace, so it is a subspace.

If we write it out explicitly,

$$\begin{pmatrix} -0.2 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & -0.3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and then we'll have $0.2x_1 - 0.3y_1 = 0$, thus we can choose the eigenvector \mathbf{x}_1 to be $(.6, .4)$. Similarly, we'll have $\mathbf{x}_2 = (.5, -.5)$. Because of the definition of eigenvalue and eigenvector, we'll have the following properties:

When A is squared, the eigenvectors stay the same, but the eigenvalues are squared.

The fact that **all other vectors are combinations of the eigenvectors**, and the proof needs to be specified. However, for now we shall use this properties and that **Each eigenvector is multiplied by its eigenvalue, when we multiply by A**, and we can accomplish all multiplication of all vectors with matrix A. After a short introduction to eigenvalue and eigenvector, one should know that *special matrix will have special eigenvalue and eigenvector whose patterns and properties are worth studying.*

4 Diagonalizing a Matrix

From the above sections, we've already learnt the concept and definition of eigenvector and eigenvalue. In this section, we'll go through the most important application of them, that is, **Diagonalization**.

Suppose the n by n matrix A has n linearly independent⁶ eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$.

Put them into the **columns** of an **eigenvector matrix S**.

Then we would have $S^{-1}AS$ is the **eigenvalue matrix Λ** which is a diagonal matrix with **eigenvalue λ on its diagonal**.

The proof is simple, consider A times S:

$$AS = A \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 & \dots & \lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

where we make use of the definition of eigenvalue and eigenvector. and then the trick is to **split this matrix AS into S times Λ** .

⁶without n independent eigenvectors, we can't diagonalize.

$$(\lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \quad \dots \quad \lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n) = (\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{x}_n) \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 & \dots \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} = S\Lambda$$

then we get $AS = S\Lambda$ which implies $S^{-1}AS = \Lambda$.

There are some remarks about Λ

- **Remark 1** if the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are all different. Then it is automatic that the eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ are independent.⁷ And any matrix with no repeated eigenvalues can be diagonalized.
- **Remark 2** Some matrix with too few eigenvalues will make them undiagonalizable.
- **Remark 3** The eigenvectors are not unique, in other words, one can multiply some *nonzero* constant.

⁷The reason is that, if we try to express 0, for example, and consider only two eigenvalues λ_1, λ_2 and also two eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$. And we have $c_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{0}$, **multiplied by A** and **multiplied by λ_2** , we'll get $c_1 \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{0}$ and $c_1 \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{0}$, and then we get $c_1 = 0, c_2 = 0$, which means there is only one way to express $\mathbf{0}$.