Math 201 lecture for Wednesday, Week 10

## **Eigenspaces**

Before getting started, we make an observation which should have probably already been mentioned:

**Proposition.** Let A, B be  $n \times n$  matrices representing a linear function  $f: V \to V$  with respect to different bases. Then their characteristic polynomials are the same:  $p_A(x) = p_B(x)$ .

*Proof.* We have  $A = P^{-1}BP$  for some  $n \times n$  matrix P. Then

$$p_A(x) = \det(A - xI_n)$$
  
=  $\det(P^{-1}BP - xI_n)$   
=  $\det(P^{-1}BP - xP^{-1}I_nP)$   
=  $\det(P^{-1}BP - P^{-1}(xI_n)P)$  (x is a scalar)  
=  $\det(P^{-1}(B - xI_n)P)$   
=  $\det(P^{-1})\det(B - xI_n)\det(P)$   
=  $\det(B - xI_n).$ 

For the last step, recall that  $det(P^{-1}) = det(P)^{-1}$ , which follows from multiplicativity of the determinant:

$$1 = \det(I_n) = \det(P^{-1}P) = \det(P^{-1})\det(P).$$

Thus, it makes sense to talk about the **characteristic polynomial of a linear transformation**: it the characteristic polynomial of any matrix representing the transformation.

Last time, we discussed the following algorithm that determines whether a matrix is diagonalizable and, if it is, shows how to diagonalize it.

## **Diagonalization Algorithm** Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ .

- (a) Find the eigenvalues of A as the zeros of its characteristic polynomial,  $p_A(x) = \det(A xI_n)$ .
- (b) For each eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , compute a basis for the eigenspace  $E_{\lambda} = \ker(A \lambda I_n)$ .
- (c) The matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if of the total number of eigenvectors in the bases found in the previous step is n. In other words, A is diagonalizable if and only if  $\sum_{\lambda} \dim E_{\lambda} = n$  where the sum is over all eigenvalues  $\lambda$  of A. If so, then the union of these vectors is a basis for  $F^n$ . Create a matrix P whose columns are these vectors. Then  $P^{-1}AP = D$ , where D is a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues along the diagonal, and we get a corresponding commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F^n & \xrightarrow{A} & F^n \\ P^{-1} & & \swarrow \\ F^n & \xrightarrow{D} & F^n. \end{array}$$

The matrix  $P^{-1}$ , considered as a linear function, takes coordinates with respect to the basis of eigenvalues.

As mentioned last time, Step (c) of the diagonalization algorithm depends on the fact that eigenvectors with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent. (Thus, when we combine the bases for all of the eigenspaces, we end up with a linearly independent set.) We now prove this.

**Proposition.** Let V be any vector space, and let  $f: V \to V$  be a linear transformation. Let  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in V$  be eigenvectors for f with corresponding eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ :

$$f(v_i) = \lambda_i v_i$$

for i = 1, ..., k. Suppose  $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k$  are *distinct*. Then  $v_1, ..., v_k$  are linearly independent.

*Proof.* We will prove this by induction on k. The case k = 1 is OK since, by definition, an eigenvector is a nonzero vector. Suppose  $v_1, \ldots, v_{k-1}$  are linearly independent for some k > 1 and that

$$a_1v_1 + \dots + a_kv_k = 0$$

for some  $a_i \in F$ . Let  $id_V$  be the identity transformation defined by  $id_V(v) = v$  for all  $v \in V$ . Apply the linear transformation  $f - \lambda_k id_V$  to the above dependence relation to get

$$(f - \lambda_k \mathrm{id}_V)(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_k v_k) = (f - \lambda_k \mathrm{id}_V)(0) = 0$$
  

$$\Rightarrow \quad f(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_k v_k) - \lambda_k \mathrm{id}_V(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_k v_k) = 0$$
  

$$\Rightarrow \quad (a_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + a_k \lambda_k v_k) - (a_1 \lambda_k v_1 + \dots + a_k \lambda_k v_k) = 0$$
  

$$\Rightarrow \quad a_1(\lambda_1 - \lambda_k) v_1 + \dots + a_{k-1}(\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda_k) v_{k-1} + a_k(\lambda_k - \lambda_k) v_k = 0$$
  

$$\Rightarrow \quad a_1(\lambda_1 - \lambda_k) v_1 + \dots + a_{k-1}(\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda_k) v_{k-1} = 0$$

Since  $v_1, \ldots, v_{k-1}$  are linearly independent, all the coefficients are zero:

$$a_1(\lambda_1 - \lambda_k) = \dots = a_{k-1}(\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda_k) = 0.$$

Since the  $\lambda_i$  are distinct, this implies  $a_1 = \cdots = a_{k-1} = 0$ . Therefore, the original equation,  $a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_kv_k = 0$  becomes  $a_kv_k = 0$ . Since  $v_k$  is an eigenvector, it is nonzero. Hence,  $a_k = 0$ , as well.

**Corollary.** Suppose dim V = n and  $f: V \to V$  is a linear transformation. Then if f has n distinct eigenvalues, it is diagonalizable.

*Proof.* Each eigenvalue has at least one corresponding eigenvector. From the above proposition, if f has n distinct eigenvalues, then it has n linearly independent eigenvectors. Since V has dimension n, these eigenvectors form a basis for V. Let  $\alpha$  be an ordered basis consisting of those eigenvectors. Then  $[f]^{\alpha}_{\alpha}$  is diagonal.

**Remark.** The Proposition implies that the union of bases for the eigenspaces of A forms a linearly independent sets. For instance, for convenience, suppose that A has three (distinct) eigenvalues  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$ , and  $\lambda_3$ , and suppose the corresponding eigenspaces have bases  $\{u_1, \ldots, u_p\}, \{v_1, \ldots, v_q\}, \{v_2, \ldots, v_q\}, \{v_1, \ldots, v$  and  $\{w_1, \ldots, w_r\}$ , respectively. We would like to show that the union of these sets is linearly dependent. So suppose we have a relation

$$a_1u_1 + \dots + a_pu_p + b_1v_1 + \dots + b_qv_q + c_1w_1 + \dots + c_rw_r = 0.$$

Let  $u = \sum_{i=1}^{p} a_i u_i$ ,  $v = \sum_{i=1}^{q} b_i v_i$ , and  $w = \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_i w_i$ . Then we have  $u \in E_{\lambda_1}$ ,  $v \in E_{\lambda_2}$ , and  $w \in E_{\lambda_3}$  and

$$u + v + w = 0.$$

By the Proposition, must have u = v = w = 0. Otherwise, this relation would be a nontrivial linear relation among eigenvectors with distinct eigenvalues. (Note that the only element of an eigenspace that is not an eigenvector is the zero vector.)

**Warning.** The converse to the corollary is not true. For instance, consider the identity function on  $F^n$ . Its matrix is  $I_n$ , which is already diagonal, and 1 is its only eigenvalue:

$$p_{I_n}(x) = \det(I_n - xI_n) = \det((1 - x)I_n) = (1 - x)^n \det(I_n) = (1 - x)^n.$$

So  $I_n$  is diagonalizable (in fact, it's already diagonal) even though its eigenvalues are not distinct.

## CRAMER'S RULE

**Definition.** Let  $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ . For  $i, j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , let  $A^{ij} \in M_{(n-1) \times (n-1)}(F)$  be the matrix formed by removing the *i*-th row and *j*-th column of A. The *i*, *j*-th minor of A is det $(A^{ij})$ , and the *i*, *j*-th cofactor of A is  $(-1)^{i+j} \det(A^{ij})$ . The adjugate of A is the matrix  $\operatorname{adj}(A) \in M_{n \times n}(F)$  with *i*, *j*-th coordinate

$$\operatorname{adj}(A)_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(A^{ji}).$$

(Note we are using  $A^{ji}$ , not  $A^{ij}$ .)

**Theorem (Cramer's rule).** Let  $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$  be an invertible matrix, and let  $b \in F^n$ . Then the solution to the system of linear equations Ax = b is given by

$$x_j = \frac{\det(M_j)}{\det(A)}$$

for j = 1, ..., n where  $M_j \in M_{n \times n}(F)$  is the matrix formed by replacing the *j*-th column of A with b.

**Corollary.** If  $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$  is invertible, then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)}\operatorname{adj}(A)$$

where adj(A) is the *adjugate* of A, defined by

**Corollary.** If  $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$  is invertible and  $F = \mathbb{R}$  of  $F = \mathbb{C}$ , then

- (a) the solution for the system of equations Ax = b is a continuous function of the entries of A and b, and
- (b) the entries of  $A^{-1}$  are continuous functions of the entries of A.

*Proof.* The entries in the determinant of a matrix B are polynomials in the entries of B. A quotient f/g of polynomials f and g is a continuous function wherever g is nonzero.

**Example.** Consider the matrix

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 3 & -1 & 6 \\ -7 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \end{array}\right).$$

The adjugate of A is

$$\operatorname{adj}(A) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -8 \\ 18 & -6 & -48 \\ -2 & -2 & -4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

For instance, to find the 1, 2-entry of adj(A) is

$$(-1)^{1+2} \det(A^{2,1}) = (-1)^3 \det \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = 2.$$

Using Cramer's rule to compute the inverse of A, we get

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \operatorname{adj}(A) = -\frac{1}{24} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -8 \\ 18 & -6 & -48 \\ -2 & -2 & -4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{12} & -\frac{1}{12} & \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{3}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & 2 \\ \frac{1}{12} & \frac{1}{12} & \frac{1}{6} \end{pmatrix}.$$