# Math 350: Linear Algebra 

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## Outline

(1) Jordan Blocks
(2) Algebra Interlude
(3) Jordan Canonical Forms

4 Today
(5) Minimal Polynomial
(6) Homework
(7) Quiz \#8
(8) Final Orientation

## Past... and Future

A high point recently:

## Theorem

Let $\mathbf{T}$ be a linear operator on the finite-dimensional inner product space $\mathbf{V}$. Then $\mathbf{T}$ is self-adjoint (i.e. $\mathbf{T}=\mathbf{T}^{*}$ ) if and only if there exists an orthonormal basis of $\mathbf{V}$ consisting of eigenvectors of $\mathbf{T}$. Alternatively, if $\mathbf{T}$ is self-adjoint, there is an unitary operator $\mathbf{U}$ such that UTU* $=$ Diagonal.

This is a powerful result. It requires very specific hypotheses which fortunately occur in many important problems. These are analytic/algebraic theorems, need $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$.

Now...

## Jordan blocks

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be a 8-by-8 matrix with 3 eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}$ of multiplicities $3,2,3$ resp. Here is an example:

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\boxed{J_{1}} & O & 0 \\
O & \mathbf{J}_{2} & O \\
O & O & J_{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrrr}
\lambda_{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda_{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{2} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3} & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3} & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3}
\end{array}\right]
$$

The color coded blocks are called Jordan Blocks

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbf{J}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\lambda & 1 & 0 \\
0 & \lambda & 1 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda
\end{array}\right] \\
\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{J}-x \mathbf{I})=(\lambda-x)^{3}, \quad \text { eigenvalue: } \lambda \text { (triple) } \\
\text { eigenspace: } N(\mathbf{J}-\lambda \mathbf{I}),\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right] \text { (single) }
\end{gathered}
$$

Not diagonalizable: Eigenspace too small. We are going to define another subspace.

$$
\mathbb{N}=\mathbf{J}-\lambda \mathbf{I}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Observe:

$$
\mathbb{N}^{2}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad \mathbb{N}^{3}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

This show that the nullspace of $(\mathbf{J}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{3}$ has dimension 3 .
Part of the usefulness of these blocks is that we can define and calculate functions such as $\exp \mathbf{J}, \sin \mathbf{J}$, etc and have an analysis based on them.

## A big theorem

Our goal is to prove and illustrate the use of
Theorem
Let $\mathbf{T}$ be a linear operator on the finite-dimensional vector space $\mathbf{V}$. If the characteristic polynomial of $\mathbf{T}$ splits, then $\mathbf{T}$ has a matrix representation made up of Jordan blocks. Moreover, the number and sizes of the blocks for each eigenvalue are unique.

For example, if $\mathbf{A}$ is a 8-by-8 matrix with 3 eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}$ of multiplicities $3,2,3$ resp. there is an invertible matrix $\mathbf{P}$ such that
$\mathbf{P A P}^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc} & & \\ \boldsymbol{J}_{1} & O & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{J}_{2} & O \\ 0 & O & \boldsymbol{J}_{3}\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrrr}\lambda_{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{2} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3} & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3}\end{array}\right]$

We know very well what is need to achieve diagonalization of a matrix A: we need a basis $\mathcal{A}=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ of eigenvectors. This requires that for each eigenvalue $\lambda$,

$$
\operatorname{dim} E_{\lambda}=\text { algebraic multiplicity of } \lambda
$$

Diagonalization will not occur if one of the eigenspaces is too small. Let us do something about it.

## Generalized eigenspace

## Definition

Let $\mathbf{T}$ be a linear operator of the vector space $\mathbf{V}$ and let $\lambda$ be a scalar. $\mathbf{A}$ nonzero vector $v \in \mathbf{V}$ is a generalized eigenvector of $\mathbf{T}$ if $(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(v)=O$ for some positive integer $p$. We denote this set, together with the vector $O$, by $K_{\lambda}$.

Note that eigenvectors correspond to the case $p=1$. Consider

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \quad e_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right], \quad e_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

$\lambda=1$ is the only eigenvalue. $e_{1}$ is an eigenvector: $(\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{I})\left(e_{1}\right)=0$
$e_{2}$ is not an eigenvector: $(\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{I})\left(e_{2}\right) \neq O$ but $(\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{I})^{2}\left(e_{2}\right)=O$, so $e_{2}$ is a generalized eigenvector.

## Proposition

Let $\mathbf{T}$ be a linear operator of the vector space $\mathbf{V}$, and let $\lambda$ be an eigenvalue of T .
(1) $K_{\lambda}$ is a $\mathbf{T}$-invariant subspace of $\mathbf{V}$ containing the eigenspace $E_{\lambda}$.
(2) For any scalar $\mu \neq \lambda$, the restriction of $\mathbf{T}-\mu \mathbf{I}$ to $K_{\lambda}$ is one-one.

Proof: 1. If $u, v \in K_{\lambda}$,

$$
(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(u)=O, \quad(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{q}(v)=O
$$

If $m$ is the larger of the integers $p, q$,

$$
(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{m}(u+v)=(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{m}(u)+(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{m}(v)=O+O=O .
$$

The scaling property is also clear. As for $\mathbf{T}$-invariant assertion, if $u \in K_{\lambda},(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(\mathbf{T}(u))=\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(u)=O$, therefore $\mathbf{T}(u) \in K_{\lambda}$.

Part 2. of the Theorem on generalized eigenspaces: That $\mathbf{T}-\mu \mathbf{I}$, $\mu \neq \lambda$, is one-one on $K_{\lambda}$ :

If $u \in K_{\lambda}$, that is $(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(u)=0$ and $(\mathbf{T}-\mu \mathbf{I}) u=O$ then we claim $u=0$.

Deny. We may assume $v=(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}(u) \neq 0$. But then

$$
\begin{gathered}
(\mathbf{T}-\mu \mathbf{I}) v=(\mathbf{T}-\mu \mathbf{I})(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1} u=(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}(\mathbf{T}-\mu \mathbf{I}) u=0 \\
\quad \text { and } \quad(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I}) v=(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p} u=O
\end{gathered}
$$

so $\mathbf{T}(v)=\lambda v$ and $\mathbf{T}(v)=\mu v, \mu \neq \lambda, v \neq O$, a contradiction.

## Corollary

$\operatorname{dim} K_{\lambda} \leq$ algebraic multiplicity of $\lambda$.
Proof: Let $f(x)=\prod_{i}\left(x-\lambda_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}$ be the characteristic polynomial of $\mathbf{T}$.
Part 1 of the Proposition says that $K_{\lambda}$ is a $\mathbf{T}$-invariant subspace, while Part 2 says that the restriction of $\mathbf{T}$ to $K_{\lambda}$ has no eigenvalue $\neq \lambda$. By a previous result, we know that the characteristic polynomial $g(x)$ of this restriction divides $f(x)$.lt follows that $g(x)=(x-\lambda)^{n}$,

$$
n \leq m=\text { algebraic muliplicity of } \lambda
$$

Later we will show that $n=m$.

## GCD of polynomials

If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are polynomials in $\mathbf{F}[x]$, the greatest common divisor is the monic polynomial of highest degree $h(x)$ that divides $f(x)$ and $g(x)$

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(f(x), g(x))=h(x)
$$

For example,

$$
\operatorname{gcd}\left((x-1)^{3}(x-2)^{2},(x-1)(x-2)^{4}\right)=(x-1)(x-2)^{2} .
$$

An elementary, but very useful fact, is that long division provides an effective method to find gcds.

## Proposition

A polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree $f(x) \geq 1$ has multiple roots if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f(x), f^{\prime}(x)\right) \neq 1$.

Thus, while it is hard to find the roots of a polynomial $f(x)$, it is easy to determine whether it has multiple roots!
The explanation is very simple: If $f(x)$ has a root of algebraic multiplicity $m$,

$$
f(x)=(x-a)^{m} g(x), \quad g(a) \neq 0
$$

its derivative

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=m(x-a)^{m-1} g(x)+(x-a)^{m} g^{\prime}(x)
$$

has $a$ as a root with multiplicity $m-1$. This implies that $(x-a)^{m-1}$ is a common factor of $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$, and therefore will be a factor of $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f(x), f^{\prime}(x)\right)$.
(1) If $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f(x), f^{\prime}(x)\right)=1$, then $f(x)$ has no repeated (complex) roots.
(2) Suppose $f(x)$ is the characteristic polynomial of a 3-by-3 complex matrix $\mathbf{A}$, and we must decide whether it is diagonalizable. What to do?
(1) If $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f(x), f^{\prime}(x)\right)=1$, by the discussion above the roots are distinct, and we are done: $\mathbf{A}$ is diagonalizable.
(2) If there is a double root $a$ and a single root $b$, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f(x), f^{\prime}(x)\right)=(x-a)$. We check the dimension of the eigenspace $E_{a}$, if $\operatorname{dim} E_{a}=2$, ok, otherwise not diagonalizable.
(3) If $a$ is a triple root, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f(x), f^{\prime}(x)\right)=(x-a)^{2}$. Again we check whether $\operatorname{dim} E_{a}=3$.

## Long division

Recall the long division algorithm for polynomials in $\mathbf{F}[x]$ : If $f(x), g(x) \neq 0$ are polynomials, there exist polynomials $q(x), r(x)$ such that

$$
f(x)=q(x) g(x)+r(x), \quad r(x)=0 \text { or } \operatorname{deg} r(x)<\operatorname{deg} g(x)
$$

Look at a consequence:

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(f(x), g(x))=\operatorname{gcd}(g(x), r(x))
$$

since any polynomial $p(x)$ that divides (both) $f(x), g(x)$ will divide $g(x), r(x)$, and conversely. Note that the data of $g(x), r(x)$ has lower degrees, so we can turn this into an algorithm:

## gcd algorithm

Starting at

$$
f(x)=q(x) g(x)+r(x)
$$

(1) Iterating, if $r(x) \neq 0$ and we divide $g(x)=q_{1}(x) r(x)+r_{1}(x)$, then any polynomial $p(x)$ that divides (both) $f(x), g(x)$ will divide $r(x), r_{1}(x)$, and conversely.
(2) Since $\operatorname{deg} g(x)>\operatorname{deg} r(x)>\operatorname{deg} r_{1}(x)>\cdots$, ultimately we shall have $r_{n-1}(x)=q_{n-1}(x) r_{n}(x), \quad r_{n}(x) \neq 0$.
(3) $r_{n}(x)$ is (a) largest degree polynomial that divides both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, and any such polynomial will divide $r_{n}(x)$.

## Theorem

If $r_{n}(x)$ is the last nonzero remainder in the sequence of long divisions, then $r_{n}(x)$ divides $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. Moreover, there exist polynomials $a(x), b(x)$ such that

$$
r_{n}(x)=a(x) f(x)+b(x) g(x)
$$

$r_{n}(x)$ is called the (a) GCD of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.
Proof: For simplicity suppose $n=2$, so we have the divisions

$$
\begin{aligned}
f & =q g+r, \quad g=q_{1} r+r_{1}, \quad r=q_{2} r_{1}+r_{2}, \quad, r_{1}=q_{3} r_{2} \\
r_{2} & =r-q_{2} r_{1}=r-q_{2}\left(g-q_{1} r\right)=r\left(1+q_{2} q_{1}\right)-q_{2} g \\
& =(f-q g)\left(1+q_{2} q_{1}\right)-q_{2} g
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we collect the coefficient of $f$-it will be $a(x)$-and of $g$-it will be $b(x): \operatorname{gcd}(f, g)=a(x) f(x)+b(x) g(x)$

## Jordan Decomposition

We are now going to apply these observations to the characteristic polynomial $p(x)=\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{A}-x \mathbf{I})$ of a matrix $\mathbf{A}$, whose eigenvalues $\lambda_{i}$ exist in the field $\mathbf{F}$. Note for $\mathbf{F}=\mathbb{C}$, this is the case for all matrices. Underlying the following discussion is the assumption that

$$
p(x)= \pm \prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(x-\lambda_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}
$$

(1) If $f(x)=(x-\lambda)^{m}, g(x)=(x-\mu)^{n}$ and $\lambda \neq \mu$ are different scalars, then $\operatorname{gcd}(f(x), g(x))=1$, this means that there is a (decomposition) $1=a(x) f(x)+b(x) g(x)$.
(2) Consider now the case of the 3 polynomials,
$f(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)^{m}\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right)^{n}, g(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)^{m}\left(x-\lambda_{3}\right)^{p}, h(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right)^{n}\left(x-\lambda_{3}\right)^{p}$
where $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}$ are distinct. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{gcd}(f, g) & =\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)^{m} \\
\operatorname{gcd}(f, h) & =\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right)^{n} \\
\operatorname{gcd}(g, h) & =\left(x-\lambda_{3}\right)^{p} \\
\operatorname{gcd}(f, g, h) & =\operatorname{gcd}\left(\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)^{m}, h\right)=1
\end{aligned}
$$

(3) These equations, will imply that we have an equality

$$
1=a(x) f(x)+b(x) g(x)+c(x) h(x)
$$

Suppose the characteristic polynomial of $\mathbf{T}$ has a decomposition

$$
\operatorname{det}(x \mathbf{I}-\mathbf{T})=(x-a)^{m}(x-b)^{n}(x-c)^{p}
$$

The polynomials $\mathbf{f}(x)=(x-b)^{n}(x-c)^{p}, \mathbf{g}(x)=(x-a)^{m}(x-c)^{p}$, $\mathbf{h}(x)=(x-a)^{m}(x-b)^{n}$, have gcd $=1$ as they have no common divisor. According to the observation above, we have an equality

$$
1=A(x) \mathbf{f}(x)+B(x) \mathbf{g}(x)+C(x) \mathbf{h}(x)
$$

Evaluating $x \rightarrow \mathbf{T}$ gives the equality

$$
\mathbf{I}=A(\mathbf{T}) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{T})+B(\mathbf{T}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{T})+C(\mathbf{T}) \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{T})
$$

Applying to an arbitrary vector $\mathbf{v}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{l}(\mathbf{v}) & =\underbrace{A(\mathbf{T})(\mathbf{T}-b \mathbf{l})^{n}(\mathbf{T}-\mathbf{c})^{p}(\mathbf{v})}_{v_{1}}+\underbrace{B(\mathbf{T})(\mathbf{T}-a \mathbf{l})^{m}(\mathbf{T}-\mathbf{c})^{p}(\mathbf{v})}_{v_{3}} \\
& +\underbrace{C(\mathbf{T})(\mathbf{T}-a \mathbf{l})^{m}(\mathbf{T}-b \mathbf{l})^{n}(\mathbf{v})}_{v_{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\mathbf{v}=v_{1}+v_{2}+v_{3}
$$

$(\mathbf{T}-\mathbf{a} \mathbf{l})^{m}\left(v_{1}\right)=A(\mathbf{T})(\mathbf{T}-\mathbf{a} \mathbf{l})^{m}\left(v_{1}\right)=A(\mathbf{T})(\mathbf{T}-\mathbf{a} \mathbf{l})^{m}(\mathbf{T}-\mathbf{b})^{n}(\mathbf{T}-\mathbf{c})^{p}(v)=0$
by Cayley-Hamilton. This says that every vector $\mathbf{v}$ is a sum of vectors in $K_{a}, K_{b}$ and $K_{c}$. It is also easy to see that $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$ are linearly independent.

## Chinese Remainder Theorem

## Theorem

Let $f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{m}(x)$ be polynomials of $\mathbf{F}[x]$. If
$g(x)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{m}(x)\right)$ there are polynomials $a_{i}(x)$ such that

$$
g(x)=a_{1}(x) f_{1}(x)+\cdots+a_{m}(x) f_{m}(x)
$$

Let $\mathbf{T}$ be a linear operator on the finite-dimensional vector space $\mathbf{V}$. Suppose its characteristic polynomial $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{T}-x \mathbf{I})$ splits:

$$
f(x)= \pm \prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(x-\lambda_{i}\right)^{n_{i}}, \quad \text { distinct } \lambda_{i}
$$

For each $i$, setting $f_{i}(x)=\frac{f(x)}{\left(x-\lambda_{i}\right)^{n_{i}}}$, gives us a collection $f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{m}(x)$ of $\operatorname{gcd}=1$ : In

$$
1=a_{1}(x) f_{1}(x)+\cdots+a_{m}(x) f_{m}(x)
$$

replace $x \rightarrow \mathbf{T}$

$$
\mathbf{I}=a_{1}(\mathbf{T}) f_{1}(\mathbf{T})+\cdots+a_{m}(\mathbf{T}) f_{m}(\mathbf{T})
$$

Now we are going to make several observations about this decomposition.
(1) The range of $f_{i}(\mathbf{T})$ is contained in the generalized eigenspace $K_{\lambda_{i}}$ If $u=f_{i}(\mathbf{T})(v)$,

$$
\left(\mathbf{T}-\lambda_{i}\right)^{n_{i}} f_{i}(\mathbf{T})(v)=f(\mathbf{T})(v)=0
$$

since by the Cayley-Hamilton theorem $f(\mathbf{T})=0$.
(2) For every $v \in \mathbf{V}$

$$
v=\mathbf{I}(v)=\overbrace{a_{1}(\mathbf{T}) f_{1}(\mathbf{T})(v)}^{\in K_{\lambda_{1}}}+\cdots+\overbrace{a_{m}(\mathbf{T}) f_{m}(\mathbf{T})(v)}^{\in K_{\lambda_{m}}}
$$

## Last Class... and Today ...

- Jordan blocks are convenient for computation
- Some high school algebra
- Generalized eigenspaces
- Jordan decomposition


## Generalized eigenvectors and eigenspaces

Let $\mathbf{T}: \mathbf{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}^{n}$ be a L.T. with characteristic polynomial

$$
\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})=\left(\mathbf{x}-\lambda_{1}\right)^{p}\left(\mathbf{x}-\lambda_{2}\right)^{q}\left(\mathbf{x}-\lambda_{3}\right)^{r}
$$

For each $\lambda$ we have the subspace of generalized eigenvectors

$$
K_{\lambda}=\left\{v:(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{i}(v)=0\right\}
$$

Unlike the behavior of eigenspaces, we always have

$$
\mathbf{F}^{n}=K_{\lambda_{1}} \oplus K_{\lambda_{2}} \oplus K_{\lambda_{3}},
$$

that is $F^{n}$ has a basis of generalized eigenvectors.

## Generalized eigenvectors and eigenspaces

- If $\mathbf{T}$ is a linear operator of the vector space $\mathbf{V}$ and $\lambda$ is a scalar, a nonzero vector $v \in \mathbf{V}$ is a generalized eigenvector of $\mathbf{T}$ if $(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(v)=O$ for some positive integer $p$. We denote this set, together with the vector $O$, by $K_{\lambda} . K_{\lambda}$ is usually bigger than the eigenspace $E_{\lambda}$.
- In fact,

$$
\mathbf{V}=\bigoplus_{i} K_{\lambda_{i}}
$$

in particular, $\mathbf{V}$ has a basis made up of generalized eigenvectors.

This representation says that every vector $v \in \mathbf{V}$ can be written as

$$
v=v_{1}+\cdots+v_{m}, \quad v_{i} \in K_{\lambda_{i}}
$$

Since we already proved that $\operatorname{dim} K_{\lambda_{i}} \leq n_{i}$, the algebraic multiplicity of $\lambda_{i}$, this equality proves equality of the dimensions. It can be written as

$$
\mathbf{V}=K_{\lambda_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus K_{\lambda_{m}},
$$

and the matrix representation of $\mathbf{T}$ has the block format (after picking bases of the $K_{\lambda_{i}}$ 's)

$$
[\mathbf{T}]=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}
{[\mathbf{T}]_{1}} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & \cdots & {[\mathbf{T}]_{m}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

What this does is to allow us to assume that the characteristic polynomial of $\mathbf{T}$ has the form $(x-\lambda)^{n}$. We will argue that such linear operator have a matrix representation made up of Jordan blocks with the same $\lambda$. Let us look at one such $p \times p$ block

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[v_{1}|\cdots| v_{p}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
\lambda & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \lambda & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda
\end{array}\right]
$$

$$
\underbrace{\mathbf{A}\left(v_{1}\right)=\lambda v_{1}}_{\text {eigenvector }}, \quad \mathbf{A}\left(v_{2}\right)=v_{1}+\lambda v_{2}, \cdots, \mathbf{A}\left(v_{p}\right)=v_{p-1}+\lambda v_{p}
$$

If we write these equations in the reverse order, we get

Consider the subspace $K$ of the vectors $v$ such that $(\mathbf{A}-\lambda)^{3}(v)=0$. Assume $(\mathbf{A}-\lambda)^{2}(v) \neq 0$ for some vector $v \in K$. Fix such a vector and label it $v_{3}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})\left(v_{3}\right) & =v_{2} \quad \mathbf{A}\left(v_{3}\right)=v_{2}+\lambda v_{3} \\
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{2}\left(v_{3}\right) & =v_{1} \quad \mathbf{A}\left(v_{2}\right)=v_{1}+\lambda v_{2} \\
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{3}\left(v_{3}\right) & =0 \quad \mathbf{A}\left(v_{1}\right)=\lambda v_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Starting on $v_{3}$ and applying $\mathbf{U}=\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I}$ repeatedly we get all the vectors of the basis

$$
v_{3} \rightarrow v_{2} \rightarrow v_{1} \rightarrow 0
$$

We will say that $v_{3}$ is the generator of the basis, and that $\gamma=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}\right\}$ is a cycle of generalized eigenvectors, $v_{1}$ is the initial and $v_{3}$ the end vectors: They form a so-called dot diagram

$$
\text { generator }=v_{3}=\bullet \rightarrow \bullet \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \bullet=v_{1}=\text { eigenvector }
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})\left(v_{p}\right) & =v_{p-1} \\
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{2}\left(v_{p}\right) & =v_{p-2} \\
& \vdots \\
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}\left(v_{p}\right) & =v_{1} \\
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}\left(v_{p}\right) & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Starting on $v_{p}$ and applying $\mathbf{U}=\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{l}$ repeatedly we get all the vectors of the basis

$$
v_{p} \rightarrow v_{p-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_{2} \rightarrow v_{1} \rightarrow 0
$$

We will say that $v_{p}$ is the generator of the basis, and that $\gamma=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{p}\right\}$ is a cycle of generalized eigenvectors, $v_{1}$ is the initial and $v_{p}$ the end vectors: They form a so-called dot diagram

$$
\text { generator }=v_{p}=\bullet \rightarrow \bullet \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \bullet=v_{1}=\text { eigenvector }
$$

## Proposition

Let $\mathbf{T}$ be a linear operator on the vector space V. For some scalar $\lambda$ and some integer $p$, suppose $v$ is a nonzero vector such that

$$
(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(v)=O, \quad(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}(v) \neq 0
$$

Then the $p$ vectors $(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}(v), \ldots,(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})(v), v$ are linearly independent. They span a $\mathbf{T}$-invariant subspace $\mathbf{W}$ and the matrix representation of $[\mathrm{T}]_{\mathrm{w}}$ with respect to this basis is a Jordan block.

Proof: Let us denote these vectors by $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{p}=v$, respectively. Suppose we have a linear relation $c_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+c_{p} v_{p}=O$. Let us prove all $c_{i}=0$. Let us argue just one case as the general case is similar. Suppose $c_{p} \neq 0$. Apply the operator $(\mathbf{T}-\lambda I)^{p-1}$ to the relation to obtain

$$
\begin{gathered}
v_{i}=(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-i}(v) \\
c_{1}(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}\left(v_{1}\right)+\cdots+c_{p} \underbrace{(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}\left(v_{p}\right)}_{=v_{1}}=0
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that all terms vanish, except for the last. This contradicts $c_{p} \neq 0$.
The subspace $\mathbf{W}$ clearly satisfies $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{W}) \subset \mathbf{W}$. Finally, note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{T}\left(v_{i}\right) & =\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-i}(v) \\
& =(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-i+1}(v)+\lambda(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-i}(v)=v_{i-1}+\lambda v_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

which shows that the matrix representation is

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\lambda & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda
\end{array}\right]
$$

We come now to the crux of the problem: Given a linear operator $\mathbf{T}$ whose characteristic polynomial is $\pm(x-\lambda)^{n}$, to prove that there is a matrix representation made up of $\lambda$-Jordan blocks (same $\lambda$ )

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccc} 
& & \\
\mathrm{J}_{1} & O & 0 \\
0 & \mathbf{J}_{2} & O \\
O & 0 & \mathrm{~J}_{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccccccc}
\lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda
\end{array}\right]
$$

We are going to prove the existence of such representation and the uniqueness of the number and sizes of the blocks.

## Situation:

$\mathbf{T}: K_{\lambda} \rightarrow K_{\lambda}, \operatorname{dim} K_{\lambda}=n$, characteristic polynomial of $\mathbf{T}$ is $(x-\lambda)^{n}$. The eigenspace is $E_{\lambda} \subset K_{\lambda}$.

Goal: We will show that $K_{\lambda}$ has a basis

$$
\mathcal{B}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} \gamma_{i}
$$

where each $\gamma_{i}$ is a cycle of generalized eigenvectors. The Jordan representation comes from the corresponding matrix representation. For example, if $K_{\lambda}=E_{\lambda}$, then a basis of $E_{\lambda}$ gives the cycles, all of length 1 , and the matrix representation is just $\lambda \mathbf{I}_{n}$.
(1) We are going to argue by induction on $n=\operatorname{dim} K_{\lambda}$. If $n=1$ (or, more generally, $K_{\lambda}=E_{\lambda}$ ), there is nothing to prove.
(2) Let $\mathbf{Z}$ be the range of $\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I}$. For simplicity of notation call this map $\mathbf{U}: K_{\lambda} \rightarrow K_{\lambda}$. Note that $E_{\lambda}$ is the nullspace of $\mathbf{U}$, and therefore $\operatorname{dim} E_{\lambda}+\operatorname{dim} \mathbf{Z}=n$, by the dimension formula.
(3) Since $\operatorname{dim} \mathbf{Z}<n$ and the characteristic polynomial of the restriction of $\mathbf{T}$ to $\mathbf{Z}$ divides $(x-\lambda)^{n}$, the induction hypothesis guarantees a basis for $\mathbf{Z}$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\gamma^{\prime}: w,(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})(w), \ldots,(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}(w) \\
\mathcal{B}^{\prime}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{r} \gamma_{i}^{\prime}
\end{gathered}
$$

where each $\gamma_{i}^{\prime}$ is a cycle of generalized eigenvectors of $\mathbf{Z}$. Let us consider one of these cycles $\gamma^{\prime}$ :

$$
\gamma_{i}^{\prime}: w,(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})(w), \ldots,(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p-1}(w)
$$

But $w$ belongs to the range of $(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})$, that is $w=(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})(v)$, for some $v \in \mathbf{V}$. This gives a cycle of $\mathbf{V}$ itself:

$$
\gamma_{i}: v,(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})(v), \ldots,(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{p}(v)
$$

In this manner, for every $\gamma_{i}^{\prime}$ of $\mathbf{Z}$ we get a longer cycle (by 1 more vector) of $\mathbf{V}$.

We recall that vector at the end of the list are the only eigenvectors and that

$$
\bigcup_{i}^{r} \gamma_{i}
$$

contains just $r$ independent eigenvectors, the same set as the basis $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ of $\mathbf{Z}$. If these eigenvectors are $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{r}$, add (if necessary) $u_{r+1}, \ldots, u_{s}$ to form a basis of the eigenspace $E_{\lambda}$. Each of these $u_{i}$ defines a new cycle $\gamma_{i}$ of length $1, i>r$.

## Dot Diagrams and Enlarged Cycles

-: vectors in the set $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$

- : vectors added.

$\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I}$ maps each dot to dot under. Last row is a basis of $E_{\lambda}$ : it is mapped to $O$


## Proposition (Very technical, I apologize)

The vectors in the set

$$
\mathcal{B}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{s} \gamma_{i}
$$

form a basis of V .
Proof: First let us count the number of elements of added to pass from the basis $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ of $\mathbf{Z}$ to the set $\mathcal{B}$ of $\mathbf{V}$ :
$r\left(1\right.$ for each of the $r$ cycles in $\left.\mathcal{B}^{\prime}\right)+(s-r)=s=\operatorname{dim} E_{\lambda}$

Therefore cardinality of $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}+\boldsymbol{s}=\operatorname{dim} \mathbf{Z}+\boldsymbol{s}=n=\operatorname{dim} \mathbf{V}$
To prove $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis, ETS that it spans $\mathbf{V}$, as they have already the right number of elements for a basis.

Let $u \in \mathbf{V}$ and consider $(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})(u) \in \mathbf{Z}$. Since every vector in $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ is the image under $\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I}$ of some vector in $\mathcal{B}$, we can write

$$
(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})(v)=\text { Linear combination of }(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})\left(v_{i}\right), \quad v_{i} \in \mathcal{B} .
$$

This implies that

$$
(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I}) \underbrace{\left(v-\text { Linear combination of } v_{i}\right)}_{=w}=0
$$

Thus $w \in E_{\lambda}$. Since $\mathcal{B}$ contains a basis of $E_{\lambda}$, this implies $v$ lies in the span of $\mathcal{B}$.

To illustrate the uniqueness of Jordan decomposition, suppose T gives rise to two different cycle decomposition for $K_{\lambda}$ :


Observe that many things match: $\operatorname{dim} K_{\lambda}=12$ [number of dots, red or black], $\operatorname{dim} E_{\lambda}=5$ (number of piles, columns). Now we are going to observe things that are off:

$$
(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{4}(\text { any } \bullet)=0, \quad(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{4}(\text { top } \bullet) \neq 0
$$

This illustrate the argument: The number of dots at level $\ell$ is the dimension of the subspace of the vectors $v$ of $\mathbf{V}$ such that

$$
(\mathbf{T}-\lambda \mathbf{I})^{\ell}(v)=0
$$

Level 1: $5=5$
Level 2: $5+3=5+3$
Level 3: $5+3+3>5+3+2$
Level 4: $5+3+3+1>5+3+2+1$
It is clear that the two piles must coincide.
Summary: If the piles are ordered by sizes, they must be identical.

## Jordan Decomposition Theorem

## Theorem

Any linear operator $\mathbf{T}$ whose characteristic polynomial
$p(x)= \pm \prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(x-\lambda_{i}\right)^{n_{i}}$ splits has a unique matrix representation into blocks

$$
[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathbf{A}_{1} & \cdots & O \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
O & \cdots & \mathbf{A}_{m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where each $\mathbf{A}_{i}$ has a representation by Jordan $\lambda_{i}$-blocks whose number and sizes are uniquely defined

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\lambda_{i} & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{i} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_{i}
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Exercise

Prove: If $\mathbf{T}: \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$ is diagonalizable and $\mathbf{W}$ is an invariant subspace then $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{W}}$ is also diagonalizable.

- Since W is T-invariant, picking a basis for W and extending to a basis for $\mathbf{V}$ we get a matrix representation for $\mathbf{T}$ of the form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rr}
\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{W}} & \mathrm{~B} \\
\mathrm{O} & \mathrm{C}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- It follows that the characteristic polynomial $\mathbf{f}(x)$ of $\mathbf{T}$ is the product of the characteristic polynomials $\mathbf{g}(x)$ and $\mathbf{h}(x)$ of $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{W}}$ and $\mathbf{C}$.
- If $\lambda$ is an eigenvalue and $\mathbf{f}(x)=(x-\lambda)^{r} F(x)$, $\mathbf{g}(x)=(x-\lambda)^{p} G(x), \mathbf{h}(x)=(x-\lambda)^{q} H(x)$ extracting the roots equal to $\lambda, r=p+q$.
- Since $\mathbf{T}$ is diagonalizable, $\operatorname{dim} E_{\lambda}=r$, while the corresponding eigenspace of $\mathbf{W}$ is $E_{\lambda}^{\prime}=E_{\lambda} \cap \mathbf{W}$. We must show that $\operatorname{dim} E_{\lambda}^{\prime}=p$.
- If $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ is a basis of $E_{\lambda}^{\prime}$, and completing to a basis of $E_{\lambda}$ $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}, v_{n+1}, \ldots, v_{r}$, we get the invariant subspace

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbf{L}=\mathbf{W}+\left(v_{n+1}, \ldots, v_{r}\right)=\mathbf{W} \times\left(v_{n+1}, \ldots, v_{r}\right) \\
\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{L}}=\left[\begin{array}{rr}
\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{W}} & 0 \\
0 & \lambda \mathbf{I}_{r-n}
\end{array}\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

a matrix whose characteristic polynomial has the factor $(x-\lambda)^{p}(x-\lambda)^{r-n}$, and $p+r-n \leq r$, which is not possible if $p>n$. Thus $\operatorname{dim} E_{\lambda}^{\prime}=p$.

## Minimal Polynomial of a Matrix

Given a square matrix $\mathbf{A}$, there are polynomials $\mathbf{f}(x)$ such that

$$
\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{A})=0
$$

The best known is $\mathbf{f}(x)=\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{A}-x \mathbf{I})$, the characteristic polynomial: by Cayley-Hamilton:

$$
\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{A})=0
$$

## What else?

## Definition

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be a $n$-by- $n$ matrix. The minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{A}$ is the monic polynomial $m(x)=x^{m}+c_{m-1} x^{m-1}+\cdots+c_{0}$ of least degree such that

$$
m(\mathbf{A})=\mathbf{A}^{m}+c_{m-1} \mathbf{A}^{m-1}+\cdots+c_{0} \mathbf{I}=0
$$

(1) If $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{I}_{n}$, then $m(x)=x-1$.
(2) If $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right], m(x)=x^{2}$.
(3) In the case of the Jordan block $\mathbf{J}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}\lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda\end{array}\right]$, $m(x)=(x-\lambda)^{3}$. For a block of size $n, m(x)=(x-\lambda)^{n}$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbf{J}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
\lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda
\end{array}\right], \quad \mathbf{U}=\mathbf{J}-\lambda \mathbf{I}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right] \\
\mathbf{U}^{2}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad \mathbf{U}^{3}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad \mathbf{U}^{4}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right] \\
m(x)=(x-\lambda)^{4}
\end{gathered}
$$

Observe the right drift of the diagonal of 1's until it leaves the matrix!

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathbf{J}_{1} & 0 & 0 \\
\hline \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{J}_{2} & 0 \\
0 & O & \mathrm{~J}_{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccccccc}
\lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda
\end{array}\right]
$$

Note how $\mathbf{A}-\lambda I$ is made up of blocks like $\mathrm{J}_{1}-\lambda I$ whose third (or second in the blue case) power is $O$ : $m(x)=(x-\lambda)^{3}$. (We will make this more precise soon.)

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathbf{J}_{1} & 0 & 0 \\
& \mathbf{J}_{2} & 0 \\
0 & O & \mathbf{J}_{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrrr}
\lambda_{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \lambda_{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3} & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3} & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{3}
\end{array}\right]
$$

If $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2} \neq \lambda_{3}$, then $m(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)^{3}\left(x-\lambda_{3}\right)^{3}$. This is because $\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)^{3}$ works for both $\lambda_{1}$ blocks.

If $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}$ are distinct, then $m(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)^{3}\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right)^{2}\left(x-\lambda_{3}\right)^{3}$.

## Proposition

The minimal polynomial $m(x)$ of $\mathbf{A}$ divides every nonzero polynomial $f(x)$ such that $f(\mathbf{A})=O$. In particular, $m(x)$ divides the characteristic polynomial $p(x)=\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{A}-x \mathbf{I})$ of $\mathbf{A}$.

Proof: To show that $m(x) \mid f(x)$, use long division to write $f(x)=q(x) m(x)+r(x)$, where $\operatorname{deg} r(x)<\operatorname{deg} m(x)$. We claim that $r(x)=0$ : We have

$$
\underbrace{f(\mathbf{A})}_{=0}=q(\mathbf{A}) \underbrace{m(\mathbf{A})}_{=0}+r(\mathbf{A}) .
$$

Thus $r(\mathbf{A})=0$. If $r(x) \neq 0$ we can divide it by its leading coefficient and have a monic polynomial $r_{0}(x)$ of degree smaller than deg $m(x)$ such that $r_{0}(\mathbf{A})=O$, a contradiction. The last assertion is the Cayley-Hamilton theorem.

If we have the Jordan decomposition of $\mathbf{A}$, we can be very explicit about its minimal polynomial.

## Proposition

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be linear operator whose distinct eigenvalues are $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}$. For each eigenvalue $\lambda_{i}$, suppose the largest size of its Jordan blocks is $p_{i}$. Then the minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{A}$ is

$$
m(x)=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(x-\lambda_{i}\right)^{p_{i}}
$$

In particular, if all eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}$ are simple, then the minimal and the characteristic polynomials are equal, except possibly by $\pm$. More generally, the minimal and characteristic polynomials coincide (up to sign) if and only for each eigenvalue $\lambda_{i}$ there is only one Jordan block.

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be a $n$-by- $n$ matrix with eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}$ Here is what they should look like:

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\boxed{\mathbf{J}_{1}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \boxed{\mathbf{J}_{2}} & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{J}_{m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

$\mathbf{J}_{i}$ is the single Jordan block corresponding to $\lambda_{i}$

## Problems

In the following $\mathbf{A}$ is a $n \times n$ matrix.
(1) Prove that $\mathbf{A}$ is diagonalizable if and only if its minimal polynomial $m(x)$ has no repeated root. Discuss how to verify that a polynomial over $\mathbb{R}$ has no repeated roots.
(2) Prove that the minimal and characteristic polynomial of A coincide (up to sign) if and only if there is a vector $v$ such that

$$
\mathbf{V}=\left(v, \mathbf{A}(v), \ldots, \mathbf{A}^{n-1}(v)\right)
$$

These matrices are also known as non-derogatory.
(3) Prove that if $\mathbf{A}$ is non-derogatory, any matrix $\mathbf{B}$ that commutes with $\mathbf{A}$ is a linear combination of $\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{A}, \ldots, \mathbf{A}^{n-1}$, that is $\mathbf{B}=f(\mathbf{A})$ a polynomial in $\mathbf{A}$.

## Homework

## Section 7.1: 2a, 3a, 5, 7e

## Quiz \#8

(1) Section 7.1: Problem 2a
(2) Section 7.1: Problem 7e
(3) Prove that $\mathbf{A}$ is diagonalizable if and only if its minimal polynomial $m(x)$ has no repeated root. Discuss how to verify that a polynomial over $\mathbb{R}$ has no repeated roots.
(4) Check whether the real matrix

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
2 & 2 & -4 \\
4 & 1 & 2
\end{array}\right]
$$

is diagonalizable by examining the gcd of its characteristic polynomial and its derivative.

## Final Orientation

Final will be comprehensive but topics will be emphasized according to the following classification:

- VITs: Very Important Topics
- BITs: Basic Important Topics
- LITs: Basic but Less Important Topics


## VITs

- Diagonalization of L.T.s
- Normal Operators
- Unitary/Orthogonal Operators
- Hermitian/Symmetric Operators
- Spectral Theorems
- Jordan Canonical Forms


## BITs

- Eigenvectors, Eigenvalues
- Characteristic polynomials
- Generalized eigenvectors
- Invariant subspaces
- Cayley-Hamilton theorem
- Minimal polynomial of a linear operator


## LITs

- Determinants
- Bases and dimension of vector spaces
- Nullspace and range of a L.T.; dimension formula
- Orthogonality of vectors

