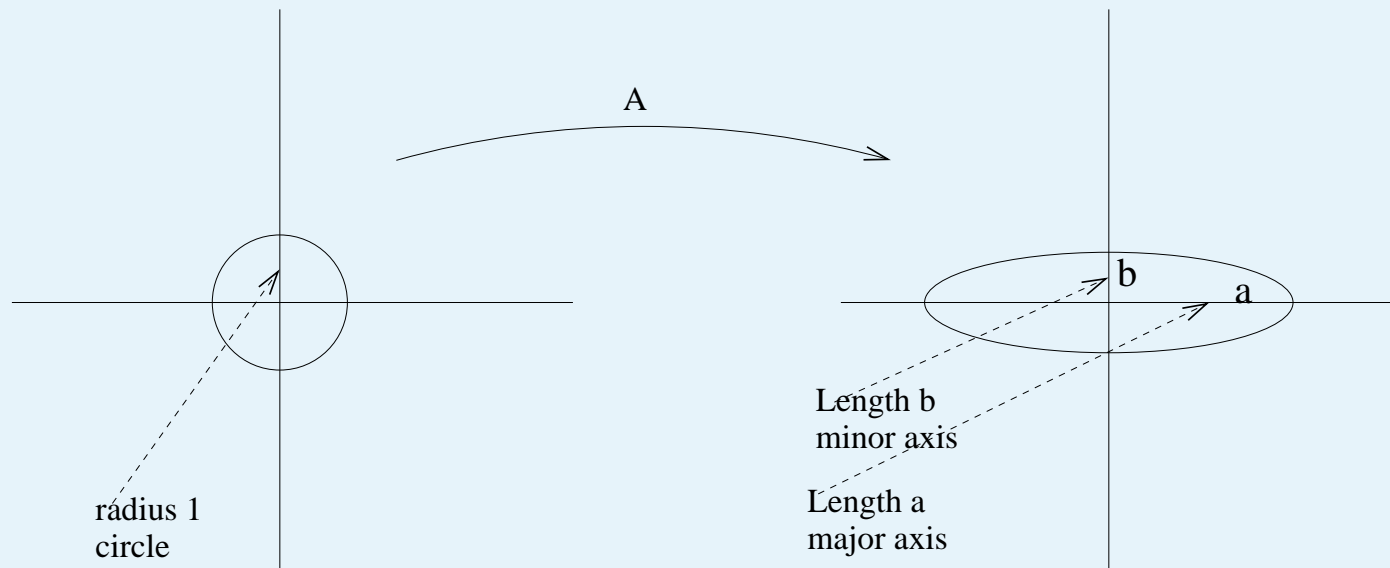


Lecture 1: More Linear Algebra



Overview

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More Linear Algebra

The topics will be:

Overview

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The topics will be:

- More Linear Algebra (Day 1)

Overview

● Overview

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The topics will be:

- More Linear Algebra (Day 1)
- Analyzing Linear ODEs (Day 1 & 2)

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The topics will be:

- More Linear Algebra (Day 1)
- Analyzing Linear ODEs (Day 1 & 2)
- Light Intro to Non-linear Systems (Day 2)

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The topics will be:

- More Linear Algebra (Day 1)
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The philosophy:

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The topics will be:

- More Linear Algebra (Day 1)
- Analyzing Linear ODEs (Day 1 & 2)
- Light Intro to Non-linear Systems (Day 2)

The philosophy: get as comfortable as possible with qualitative behavior of linear systems(topic 2, requiring topic 1);

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The topics will be:

- More Linear Algebra (Day 1)
- Analyzing Linear ODEs (Day 1 & 2)
- Light Intro to Non-linear Systems (Day 2)

The philosophy: get as comfortable as possible with qualitative behavior of linear systems(topic 2, requiring topic 1); then understand how non-linear systems can quickly differ (topic 3).

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● Matrices Represent A LOT

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Matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & \dots & & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

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represent a lot of things.

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Operators that map vectors to vectors:

$$L : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n; \text{ given by } x \mapsto Ax$$

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$$\frac{dx}{dt} = Ax; x(0) = x_0$$

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$$\frac{dx}{dt} = Ax; x(0) = x_0$$

And, as you'll see in SB200, probabilistic processes.

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Matrices are COMPLETELY classifiable.

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But the Main Point is that:

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Meaning, there is a standard “view” that every matrix can be put into that renders all of its properties, like:

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But the Main Point is that:

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Meaning, there is a standard “view” that every matrix can be put into that renders all of its properties, like:

■ The existence and uniqueness of solutions to $Ax = b$

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Meaning, there is a standard “view” that every matrix can be put into that renders all of its properties, like:

- The existence and uniqueness of solutions to $Ax = b$
- The range and behavior of the linear operator L

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- The existence and uniqueness of solutions to $Ax = b$
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- the dynamic and steady-state behavior of $\dot{x} = Ax$

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- The existence and uniqueness of solutions to $Ax = b$
- The range and behavior of the linear operator L
- the dynamic and steady-state behavior of $\dot{x} = Ax$
- and a great many other things,

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COMPLETELY obvious.

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- The existence and uniqueness of solutions to $Ax = b$
- The range and behavior of the linear operator L
- the dynamic and steady-state behavior of $\dot{x} = Ax$
- and a great many other things,

COMPLETELY obvious.

Goal of this lecture: give you intuition for how this works.

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The most important practical problem in basic linear algebra is:

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The most important practical problem in basic linear algebra is:

Figuring out how to calculate

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The most important practical problem in basic linear algebra is:

Figuring out how to calculate

$$e^A$$

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The most important practical problem in basic linear algebra is:

Figuring out how to calculate

$$e^A$$

efficiently.

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The most important practical problem in basic linear algebra is:

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This problem is inspired by ODEs.

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The most important practical problem in basic linear algebra is:

Figuring out how to calculate

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efficiently.

This problem is inspired by ODEs.

It drives all (or really, most) of the theory.

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For any two real (or complex) numbers a and b ,

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For any two real (or complex) numbers a and b ,

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a.$$

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For any two real (or complex) numbers a and b ,

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a.$$

This is the *commutativity* property.

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For any two real (or complex) numbers a and b ,

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For any two real (or complex) numbers a and b ,

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a.$$

This is the *commutativity* property. But matrices are *not always commutative*.

Problem 1 Find two 2x2 matrices A and B such that

$$AB \neq BA; \text{ that is, } [A, B] = AB - BA \neq 0.$$

$[A, B]$ is called the “commutator” of A and B .

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For any two real (or complex) numbers a and b ,

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a.$$

This is the *commutativity* property. But matrices are *not always commutative*.

Problem 1 Find two 2x2 matrices A and B such that

$$AB \neq BA; \text{ that is, } [A, B] = AB - BA \neq 0.$$

$[A, B]$ is called the “commutator” of A and B .

Notice that A always commutes with e^A , because

$$Ae^A = A \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^n}{n!} \right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^{n+1}}{n!} = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^i}{(i-1)!} \right) A.$$

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Problem 2 Compute

$$\exp \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} t \right).$$

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Answer:

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But there's a deeper interpretation.

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Problem 3 Show the following Little Fact 1: if A and B are diagonal matrices, then they commute.

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Problem 3 Show the following Little Fact 1: if A and B are diagonal matrices, then they commute.

Reason: because diagonal matrix multiplication is just like a parallel version of regular number multiplication, separately on each diagonal.

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Problem 4 Show the following Little Fact 2: diagonal matrices with all the diagonal numbers being the same commute with *all* matrices.

Reason: $A(bI) = b(AI) = bA = (bI)A$; i.e. the identity matrix (obviously) commutes with everything.

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Problem 5 What does the matrix

$$R_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

do?

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What is its inverse? Well,

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Answer: it rotates the plane through angle θ .

What is its inverse? Well,

$$(R_\theta)^{-1} = R_{-\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(-\theta) & -\sin(-\theta) \\ \sin(-\theta) & \cos(-\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

But remember $\cos(-\theta) = \cos(\theta)$ and $\sin(-\theta) = -\sin(\theta)$, so

$$R_\theta^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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To rotate in three dimensions, we need three different rotations:

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To rotate in three dimensions, we need three different rotations:

$$R_{\theta}^{x,y} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad R_{\theta}^{y,z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ 0 & \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

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There are higher-dimensional versions for each n .

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Back to commutativity. Let's consider two 2×2 matrices.

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Back to commutativity. Let's consider two 2x2 matrices.
First,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

where a and b are real numbers.

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Back to commutativity. Let's consider two 2x2 matrices. First,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

where a and b are real numbers.

A stretches the x axis by factor a and the y axis by factor b , making a circle into an ellipse.

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Back to commutativity. Let's consider two 2x2 matrices. First,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

where a and b are real numbers.

For example, if $a < 1$ and $b > 1$, then the picture is

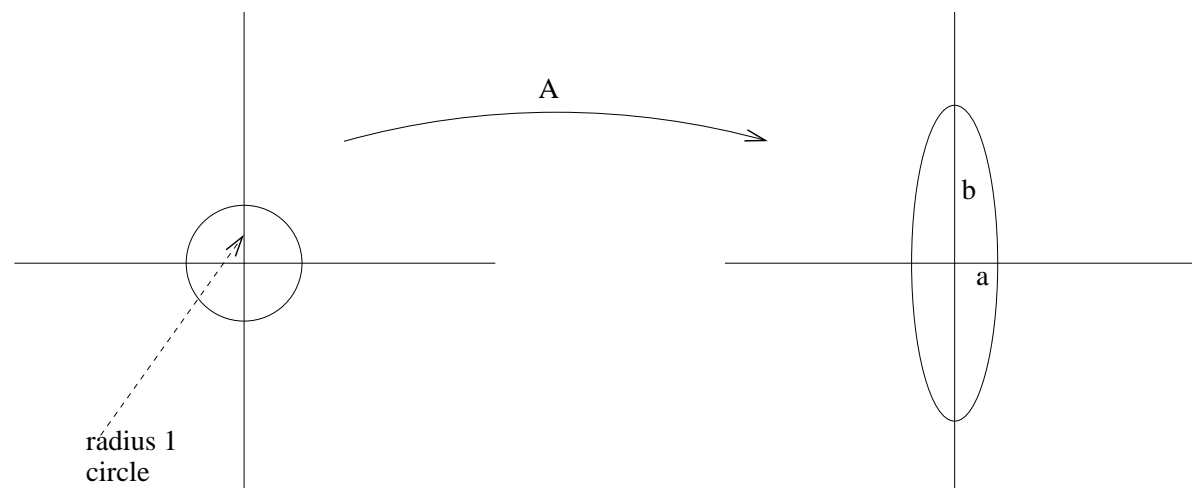


Figure 1: Stretching action of a 2x2 diagonal matrix

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Back to commutativity. Let's consider two 2x2 matrices. First,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

where a and b are real numbers.

Conversely, if $a > 1$ and $b < 1$, then the picture is

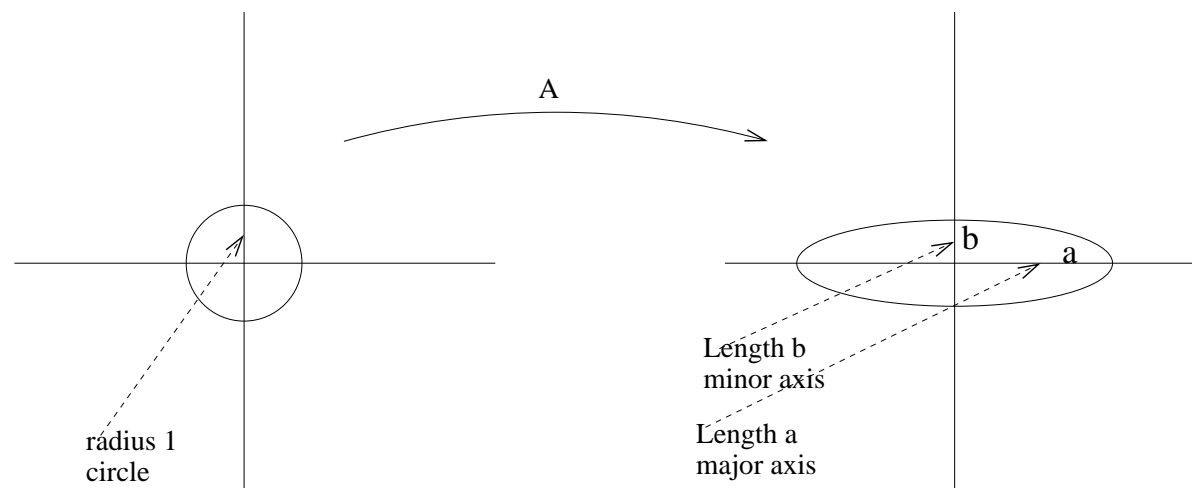


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Back to commutativity. Let's consider two 2x2 matrices. First,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

where a and b are real numbers.

Problem 6 What are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A ?

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Back to commutativity. Let's consider two 2x2 matrices. First,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

where a and b are real numbers.

Problem 6 What are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A ?

Answer: $([1 \ 0], a)$ and $([0 \ 1], b)$.

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Ok, so we have one matrix, A . Now for the second matrix, B .

Problem 7 Find a 2x2 matrix B with eigenvalues α and β , and whose eigenvectors are rotated from x and y axis basis vectors by angle θ . Hint: use R_θ as a change-of-basis.

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Problem 7 Find a 2x2 matrix B with eigenvalues α and β , and whose eigenvectors are rotated from x and y axis basis vectors by angle θ . Hint: use R_θ as a change-of-basis.

Answer:

$$B = R_\theta \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix} (R_\theta)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \cos^2(\theta) + \beta \sin^2(\theta) & (\alpha - \beta) \sin(\theta) \cos(\theta) \\ (\alpha - \beta) \sin(\theta) \cos(\theta) & \alpha \sin^2(\theta) + \beta \cos^2(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

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By construction, the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of B are ($[\cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)]$ with value α) and ($[\cos(\theta + \pi/2), \sin(\theta + \pi/2)]$ with value β).

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Problem 7 Find a 2x2 matrix B with eigenvalues α and β , and whose eigenvectors are rotated from x and y axis basis vectors by angle θ . Hint: use R_θ as a change-of-basis.

Answer:

$$B = R_\theta \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix} (R_\theta)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \cos^2(\theta) + \beta \sin^2(\theta) & (\alpha - \beta) \sin(\theta) \cos(\theta) \\ (\alpha - \beta) \sin(\theta) \cos(\theta) & \alpha \sin^2(\theta) + \beta \cos^2(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

By construction, the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of B are $([\cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)]$ with value α) and $[\cos(\theta + \pi/2), \sin(\theta + \pi/2)]$ with value β).

Question: why is the $\pi/2$ there in the second eigenvector?

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Now let's figure out when A and B commute.

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Now let's figure out when A and B commute. On the one hand,

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a\alpha\cos^2(\theta) + a\beta\sin^2(\theta) & a(\alpha - \beta)\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) \\ b(\alpha - \beta)\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) & b\alpha\sin^2(\theta) + b\beta\cos^2(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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On the other hand,

$$BA = \begin{bmatrix} a\alpha\cos^2(\theta) + a\beta\sin^2(\theta) & b(\alpha - \beta)\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) \\ a(\alpha - \beta)\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) & b\alpha\sin^2(\theta) + b\beta\cos^2(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Problem 8 When are AB and BA equal?

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Now let's figure out when A and B commute. On the one hand,

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a\alpha\cos^2(\theta) + a\beta\sin^2(\theta) & a(\alpha - \beta)\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) \\ b(\alpha - \beta)\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) & b\alpha\sin^2(\theta) + b\beta\cos^2(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Problem 8 When are AB and BA equal?

Answer: When 1) $a = b$, or 2) $\alpha = \beta$ or 3) $\theta = 0, \pi/2, \pi, 3\pi/2$.

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But now, let's look at the cases one by one.

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Case 1: $a = b$. In that case,

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Case 1: $a = b$. In that case, $A = aI_2$, where I_2 is the 2x2 identity matrix.

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Case 1: $a = b$. In that case, $A = aI_2$, where I_2 is the 2x2 identity matrix.

Claim:

$$[\cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)] \text{ and } [\cos(\theta + \pi/2), \sin(\theta + \pi/2)]$$

are just as good eigenvectors for A as the original ones.

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Claim:

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Problem 9 Why? (Don't give a computational proof.)

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are just as good eigenvectors for A as the original ones.

Problem 9 Why? (Don't give a computational proof.)

Answer: because the two original eigenvectors $[0, 1]$ and $[1, 0]$ have the *same eigenvalue*, so linear combinations are also eigenvectors.

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are just as good eigenvectors for A as the original ones.

Problem 9 Why? (Don't give a computational proof.)

Answer: because the two original eigenvectors $[0, 1]$ and $[1, 0]$ have the *same eigenvalue*, so linear combinations are also eigenvectors.

Hence: Case 1) $\Rightarrow A$ and B have a common set of eigenvectors.

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Now, Case 2: $\alpha = \beta$.

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Now, Case 2: $\alpha = \beta$.

In this case,

$$B = R_\theta \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} (R_\theta)^{-1} = \alpha R_\theta (R_\theta)^{-1} = \alpha I_2.$$

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$$B = R_\theta \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} (R_\theta)^{-1} = \alpha R_\theta (R_\theta)^{-1} = \alpha I_2.$$

But that means we're in the same situation as Case 1. Again, common eigenvectors.

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But that means we're in the same situation as Case 1. Again, common eigenvectors.

Finally, Case 3: $\theta = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, or $3\pi/2$.

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Finally, Case 3: $\theta = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, or $3\pi/2$.

Problem 10 What are the eigenvectors of B in this case?

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But that means we're in the same situation as Case 1. Again, common eigenvectors.

Finally, Case 3: $\theta = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, or $3\pi/2$.

Problem 10 What are the eigenvectors of B in this case?

Answer: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

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Now, Case 2: $\alpha = \beta$.

In this case,

$$B = R_\theta \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} (R_\theta)^{-1} = \alpha R_\theta (R_\theta)^{-1} = \alpha I_2.$$

But that means we're in the same situation as Case 1. Again, common eigenvectors.

Finally, Case 3: $\theta = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, or $3\pi/2$.

Problem 10 What are the eigenvectors of B in this case?

Answer: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Again! A and B have a common set of eigenvectors.

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Reason:

■ $AB = (XD_A X^{-1})(XD_B X^{-1}),$

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A key fact is that the *converse* is true.

Theorem 1 If A and B are both diagonalizable, then they are commutative if and only if they have a common eigenbasis.

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Let's go back to the notion of an eigenbasis, that is,

a set $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of distinct eigenvectors.

An eigenbasis exists IFF a matrix is diagonalizable.

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$$A = [v_1 \mid v_2 \mid \dots \mid v_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} [v_1 \mid v_2 \mid \dots \mid v_n]^{-1}$$

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where $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$.

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Of course, the v_i and λ_i might (have to) be complex, even if A is real.

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Now, suppose that A is diagonalizable,

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Now, suppose that A is diagonalizable, and has $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ as $n = \dim(A)$ independent eigenvectors.

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Collect them in groups of equal eigenvalues, say, in decreasing order:

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...

$v_{\lambda_m}^1, v_{\lambda_m}^2, \dots, v_{\lambda_m}^{n_m}$ have eigenvalue $\lambda_m = \lambda_{min}$.

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...

$v_{\lambda_m}^1, v_{\lambda_m}^2, \dots, v_{\lambda_m}^{n_m}$ have eigenvalue $\lambda_m = \lambda_{min}$.

m = number of distinct eigenvalues, and

$$n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_m = \sum_i n_i = \dim(A) = n.$$

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For the same reason, any basis of A_{λ_i} is equivalent to any other, for the purposes of diagonalization.

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Let's get back to the issue of complex and real eigenvalues.

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$A = SDS^{-1}$ where

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is a diagonal matrix with all real entries along the diagonal.

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Question: what does a diagonal matrix with real entries correspond to? (don't forget some could be negative)

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Answer: stretching along various directions, with a flip as well if negative.

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$$R_{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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- Conjugate pair corresponds to real 2x2 with equal diagonal elements, \pm off-diagonals.

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- since A is real, $\bar{A} = A$, so

- $A\bar{x} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}$

- so $\bar{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue by definition.

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Hence, the eigenvalues of A can be listed in two groups.

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So, when diagonalized,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & r_2 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \vdots & \\ 0 & \dots & r_k & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & c_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \bar{c}_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \vdots & \\ 0 & & & & & & c_l & 0 \\ 0 & & & & & & 0 & \bar{c}_l \end{bmatrix}.$$

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$$\text{Block}_i = \begin{bmatrix} c_i & 0 \\ 0 & \bar{c}_i \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Problem 15 This is a constant times a rotation matrix. Which one? (Hint: use the definition of cosine.)

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Answer: rotation angle is $\theta_i = \cos^{-1}(a_i / \sqrt{a_i^2 + b_i^2})$

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Theorem 2 *All such matrices can be written as SDS^{-1} where D has diagonal elements corresponding to real-eigenvalue dilations or 2x2 blocks corresponding to complex-eigenvalue rotation-dilations.*

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But what if the matrix is *not* diagonalizable? i.e

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Theorem 2 *All such matrices can be written as SDS^{-1} where D has diagonal elements corresponding to real-eigenvalue dilations or 2x2 blocks corresponding to complex-eigenvalue rotation-dilations.*

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What if we can't find n linearly independent eigenvectors?

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For all real (or complex) numbers a , if $a^k = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$.

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Answer: the standard answer is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Answer: the standard answer is

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Problem 17 Compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of this A .

Answer: Trick question. A has no non-trivial eigenvectors.

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A matrix is said to be *nilpotent* if $A^k = 0$ for some k .

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Answer: Standard answer is

$$N_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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This matrix has *no* non-trivial eigenvectors.

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Problem 18 Find an n -by- n matrix such that $A^{n-1} = 0$ but $A^i \neq 0$ for $i < n - 1$ (A is said to be “nilpotent of order $n - 1$ ”).

Answer: Standard answer is

$$N_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This matrix has *no* non-trivial eigenvectors. Its behavior is like a step-by-step “collapser”:

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This matrix has *no* non-trivial eigenvectors. Its behavior is like a step-by-step “collapser”:

$$e_n \rightarrow e_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow e_1 \rightarrow 0.$$

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Problem 19 Show that any nilpotent matrix has no non-trivial eigenvectors.

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Problem 19 Show that any nilpotent matrix has no non-trivial eigenvectors.

Reason:

■ Suppose $Nx = \lambda x$ and N is nilpotent.

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■ Suppose $Nx = \lambda x$ and N is nilpotent.

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- Suppose $Nx = \lambda x$ and N is nilpotent.
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So we might suspect: nilpotent matrices fill in the “hole” left by the non-diagonalizable parts of arbitrary matrix.

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- which conflicts with $N^k = 0$ for some k .

So we might suspect: nilpotent matrices fill in the “hole” left by the non-diagonalizable parts of arbitrary matrix.

The lack of eigenvectors of nilpotent matrices could make up for the missing dimensions in a non-diagonal matrix.

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Theorem 3 *All nilpotent matrices can be put into the standard form – that is all zeros, except 1s on the “super-diagonal”.*

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Lower-order nilpotency \Rightarrow some smaller N_i blocks.

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Lower-order nilpotency \Rightarrow some smaller N_i blocks.

To fill in the “missing eigenvector” gap, let’s add diagonal matrices to nilpotent matrices.

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Let λ be any complex number.

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Let λ be any complex number. Now, let $J_n^\lambda = \lambda I_n + N_n$. This is the sum of the simplest diagonal and nilpotent matrices.

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Problem 20 What are the eigenvalues/vectors of J_n^λ ?

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Problem 20 What are the eigenvalues/vectors of J_n^λ ?

Answer: $[1 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0]$ is the only eigenvector, with eigenvalue λ .

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Ok, $[1 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0]$ was the only eigenvector of J_n^λ , so it's not diagonalizable, etc...

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$$(J_n^\lambda - \lambda I_n)^{n-1}.$$

Fast.

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(.... it a power of k where there was 1 in the original definition)

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Let's investigate the behavior of J_n^λ .

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Problem 22 Compute

$$(J_3^\lambda)^l \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}^l \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Answer:

$$\begin{bmatrix} l\lambda^{l-1} \\ \lambda^l \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Answer:

$$\begin{bmatrix} l\lambda^{l-1} \\ \lambda^l \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(Aside: doesn't it remind you of derivatives?)

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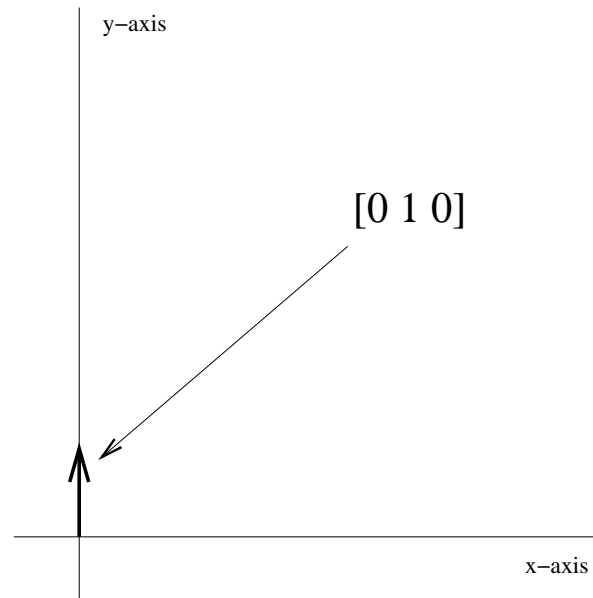
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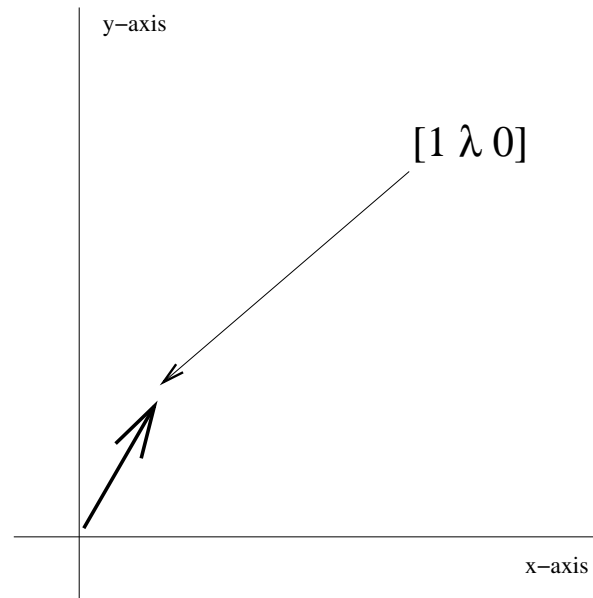
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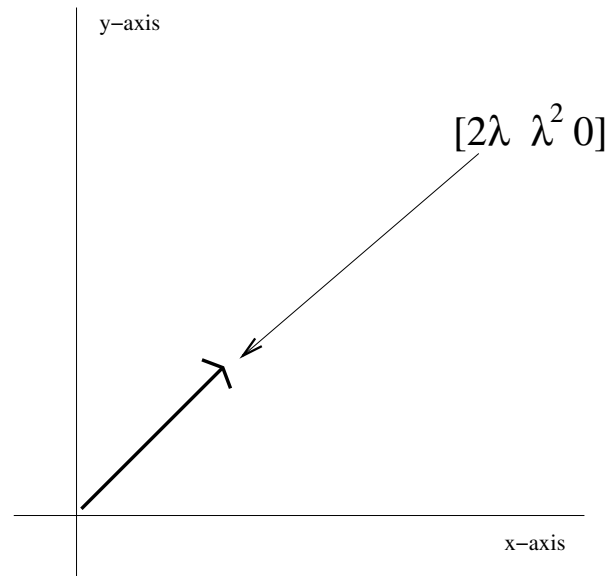
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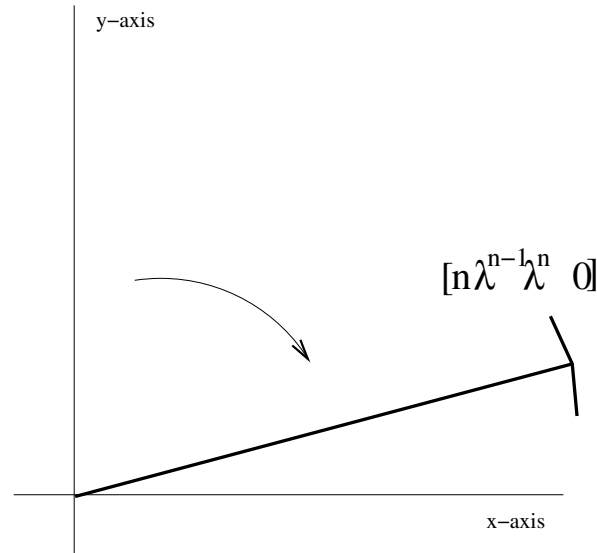
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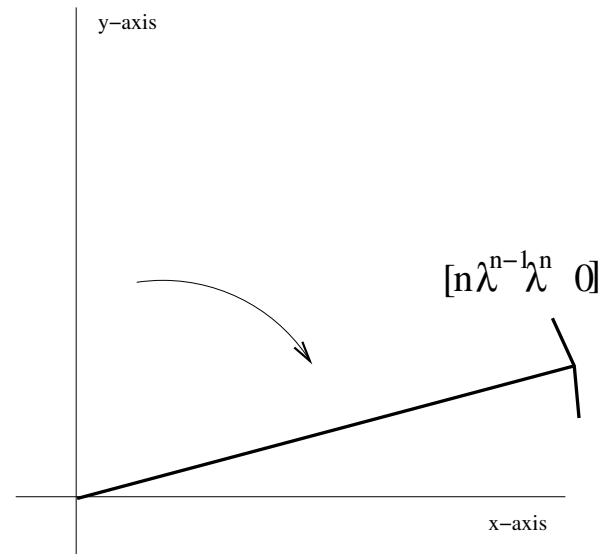
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Problem 23 What angle does this make with the x -axis, as $l \rightarrow \infty$?

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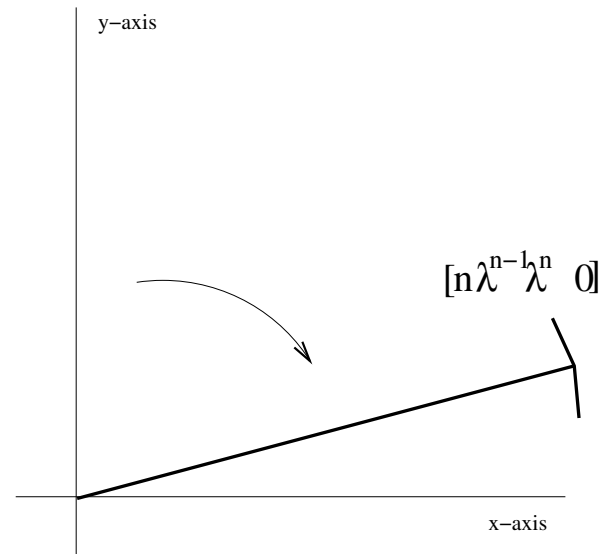
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Problem 23 What angle does this make with the x -axis, as $l \rightarrow \infty$?

Answer:

$$\lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{n\lambda^{n-1}}{\sqrt{(n\lambda^{n-1})^2 + (\lambda^n)^2}} = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n^2 + \lambda^2}} \right) = \cos^{-1}(1) = 0.$$

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You get

$$\begin{bmatrix} (l(l-1)/2)\lambda^{l-2} \\ l\lambda^{l-1} \\ \lambda^l \end{bmatrix} \propto \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ O(\frac{\lambda}{n}) \\ O(\frac{\lambda^2}{n^2}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Just as above, as $l \rightarrow \infty$, the angle with x -axis moves toward zero.

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Just as above, as $l \rightarrow \infty$, the angle with x -axis moves toward zero. Conclusion: J_n^λ “pushes” all the generalized eigenvectors down (asymptotically) to a true eigenvector.

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The most celebrated and powerful result of linear algebra is now in reach.

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The most celebrated and powerful result of linear algebra is now in reach.

Theorem 4 (*The Jordan Normal Form*) *Given any matrix A , there is an invertible matrix S such that $A = SDS^{-1}$, where*

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} J_{n_1}^{\lambda_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & J_{n_2}^{\lambda_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & J_{n_k}^{\lambda_k} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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I.e.: in the right basis, all matrices are of block-diagonal form, where the blocks are sums of constant and standard nilpotent matrices.

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I.e.: in the right basis, all matrices are of block-diagonal form, where the blocks are sums of constant and standard nilpotent matrices.

D is the as-diagonalized-as-possible version of A .

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$$\begin{bmatrix} J_{n_1}^{\lambda_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & J_{n_2}^{\lambda_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & & 0 & J_{n_k}^{\lambda_k} \end{bmatrix}$$

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If A is actually diagonalizable, $n_i = \text{block size} = 1$, λ_i are actual eigenvalues; rows with same eigenvalues collect into eigenspaces.

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If A is actually diagonalizable, $n_i = \text{block size} = 1$, λ_i are actual eigenvalues; rows with same eigenvalues collect into eigenspaces.

In general, λ_i are generalized eigenvalues and like-valued blocks collect into *generalized* eigenspaces.

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Restated,

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In general, λ_i are generalized eigenvalues and like-valued blocks collect into *generalized* eigenspaces.

Restated, all vectors in a given J -block correspond to a single true eigenvector with eigenvalue λ

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If A is actually diagonalizable, $n_i = \text{block size} = 1$, λ_i are actual eigenvalues; rows with same eigenvalues collect into eigenspaces.

In general, λ_i are generalized eigenvalues and like-valued blocks collect into *generalized* eigenspaces.

Restated, all vectors in a given J -block correspond to a single true eigenvector with eigenvalue λ and multiplicity n_i .

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$$\begin{bmatrix} J_{n_1}^{\lambda_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & J_{n_2}^{\lambda_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & & J_{n_k}^{\lambda_k} \end{bmatrix}$$

If A is actually diagonalizable, $n_i = \text{block size} = 1$, λ_i are actual eigenvalues; rows with same eigenvalues collect into eigenspaces.

In general, λ_i are generalized eigenvalues and like-valued blocks collect into *generalized* eigenspaces.

Restated, all vectors in a given J -block correspond to a single true eigenvector with eigenvalue λ and multiplicity n_i .

Problem 24 In the above terms, how many true eigenvectors does D have?

Putting it All Together

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Restated, all vectors in a given J -block correspond to a single true eigenvector with eigenvalue λ and multiplicity n_i .

Problem 24 In the above terms, how many true eigenvectors does D have?

Answer: $k = \text{number of blocks}$.

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The final behavioral analysis:

- Generalized eigenvectors get pushed “up” their J -block, asymptotically collapsing to a corresponding true eigenvector.

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The final behavioral analysis:

- Generalized eigenvectors get pushed “up” their J -block, asymptotically collapsing to a corresponding true eigenvector.
- Eigenvectors of real eigenvalues get stretched.

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- Eigenvectors of complex eigenvalues get rotated and stretched.

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The final behavioral analysis:

- Generalized eigenvectors get pushed “up” their J -block, asymptotically collapsing to a corresponding true eigenvector.
- Eigenvectors of real eigenvalues get stretched.
- Eigenvectors of complex eigenvalues get rotated and stretched.
- Collapse, dilation, and rotation rates controlled by eigenvalues.

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These are the *only possible behaviors of a linear system*.