

(148) The key tool is that eigenvalues are roots of $p_A(t)$:

DEFIN: Given $V \xrightarrow{T} V$, its characteristic polynomial is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ F^n & \xrightarrow{A} & F^n \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_A(t) &:= \det(tI_n - A) \\ &= \det \begin{bmatrix} t-a_{11} & -a_{12} & \dots & -a_{1n} \\ -a_{21} & t-a_{22} & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ -a_{n1} & & & t-a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= t^n - \underbrace{(a_{11} + \dots + a_{nn})}_{\text{Trace}(A)} t^{n-1} + \dots + (-1)^n \det A \end{aligned}$$

a polynomial in t

NOTE: $p_A(t)$ depends only on T , since if we change bases,

we get $A' = P^{-1}AP$ with $\det(tI_n - P^{-1}AP)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \det(P^{-1}(tI_n)P - P^{-1}AP) \\ &= \det(P^{-1} \cdot (tI_n - A) \cdot P) \\ &= \det(P^{-1}) \cdot \det(tI_n - A) \cdot \det(P) \\ &= \det(tI_n - A) \end{aligned}$$

PROPOSITION: $\lambda \in F$ is an eigenvalue for $T \iff t = \lambda$ is a root of $p_A(t) = 0$
 (say with an eigenvector $v \neq 0$) $Tv = \lambda v$ (and $v \in \ker(\lambda I_n - A)$)

proof: $Tv = \lambda v$ for some $v \neq 0$ in V

$$\iff Av = \lambda v \quad \text{--- " ---}$$

$$\iff \lambda v - Av = 0 \quad \text{--- " ---}$$

$$\iff (\lambda I_n - A)v = 0 \quad \text{--- " ---}$$

$$\iff \lambda I_n - A \text{ is noninvertible in } F^{n \times n}$$

$$\iff \det(\lambda I_n - A) = 0 \quad \text{i.e. } t = \lambda \text{ is a root of } \det(tI - A) =: p_A(t) \quad \blacksquare$$

(149) Since $p_A(t) = \det(tI_n - A)$ is a nonconstant polynomial,
 $= t^n - \text{tr}(A)t^{n-1} + \dots$

when working with $F = \mathbb{C}$, the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra
 (sketch proof in Artin §15.10)

says we will always have at least one eigenvalue λ_1 , and an
 associated eigenvector $v_1 \in \ker(\lambda_1 I_n - A) \neq \{0\}$. This lets us prove...

THEOREM: ^{working with $F = \mathbb{C}$,} Every $V \xrightarrow{T} V$ can be triangularized, i.e.
 (PROP 4.6.1) $\uparrow \quad \uparrow$
 $\mathbb{C}^n \xrightarrow{A} \mathbb{C}^n$ $\exists P \in GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ with $P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & * \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$

or equivalently, \exists a basis $B = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ for V

with T having matrix $A' = \begin{matrix} v_1 & \dots & v_n \\ \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & * \\ \vdots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \\ v_n \end{matrix}$

proof: Induct on n , with base case $n=1$ being trivial: $A = [\lambda_1]$
 In the inductive step, choose λ_1 a root of $p_A(t) = \det(tI_n - A)$
 and $v_1 \in \ker(\lambda_1 I_n - A) \neq \{0\}$, so $T(v_1) = \lambda_1 v_1$.

Extending v_1 arbitrarily to a basis (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) for V ,
 the matrix for T looks like $A = \begin{matrix} v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & \hat{A} & \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix} \\ v_n \end{matrix}$ for some $\hat{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$.

By induction, $\exists \hat{P} \in GL_{n-1}(\mathbb{C})$ with $\hat{P}^{-1} \hat{A} \hat{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_2 & 0 \\ & \ddots \\ 0 & \lambda_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$ for some $\lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_{n-1}$

and then $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & \hat{P} & \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix}$ has $P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \hat{P}^{-1} & & \\ \vdots & & \hat{A} & \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & \hat{P}^{-1} \hat{A} \hat{P} & \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$ \blacksquare

REMARK: §4.7 proves a much more precise triangular form for $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$
 called Jordan canonical form with lots more zeroes, and that lets one
 decide whether $A, A' \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ have $P^{-1}AP = A'$ for some $P \in GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ or not,
 i.e. it's true if and only if A, A' have same Jordan form.

(150) Why should this hold?:

THEOREM (4.6.6): If $p_A(t) = (t - \lambda_1)(t - \lambda_2) \dots (t - \lambda_n)$ has distinct roots $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in F$ then A is diagonalizable in $F^{n \times n}$.

It is an immediate consequence of this fact.

PROPOSITION (4.6.5): If v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r are eigenvectors for $V \xrightarrow{T} V$ corresponding to distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ (i.e. $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$) then they are linearly independent.

Proof: Assume not, and let $c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_r v_r = \underline{0}$ be some ^{nontrivial} linear dependence having the smallest number of nonzero coefficients c_i ; assume $c_1 \neq 0$ by re-indexing. We'll get a contradiction, by applying T :

$$T(c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_r v_r) = T(\underline{0}) = \underline{0}$$

$$\text{i.e. } c_1 T(v_1) + c_2 T(v_2) + \dots + c_r T(v_r) = \underline{0}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \lambda_1 c_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 c_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_r c_r v_r = \underline{0}$$

Subtract λ_1 times the original dependence $\lambda_1 \left(\sum_{i=1}^r c_i v_i \right) = \underline{0}$, giving

$$(\lambda_1 c_1 - \lambda_1 c_1) v_1 + (\lambda_1 c_2 - \lambda_2 c_2) v_2 + \dots + (\lambda_1 c_r - \lambda_r c_r) v_r = \underline{0}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \underbrace{(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)}_{\neq 0} c_2 v_2 + \dots + \underbrace{(\lambda_1 - \lambda_r)}_{\neq 0} c_r v_r = \underline{0}$$

This is a dependence with one fewer nonzero coefficient.
Contradiction \blacksquare

(15) what about our last goal (theorem)? Not so hard, and uses similar ideas to the triangularization result ...

Spectral THEOREM for symmetric matrices: Any symmetric matrix $A^T = A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is diagonalizable, via an orthogonal change-of-basis matrix $P = (P^T)^{-1}$, and has only real eigenvalues, i.e. $P^T A P = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$, $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$

proof: Induct on n , with base case $n=1$ trivial: $A = [\lambda_1]$.

In the inductive step, regard $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and pick a root $\lambda_1 \in \mathbb{C}$ for $p_A(t) = \det(tI_n - A)$, and $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ an associated nonzero

eigenvector $v \in \ker(\lambda_1 I_n - A)$, so $A v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1$. We'll first show $\lambda_1 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Note that $\bar{v}_1 := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{z}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{z}_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ has $\bar{v}_1^T v_1 = v_1 \bar{v}_1^T = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \bar{z}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \|z_i\|^2 > 0$ since $v_1 \neq 0$ ($\neq 0$)

Now compute in two ways

$\bar{A} := A$ since $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $A^T = A$

$$\begin{aligned} \underbrace{(\bar{\lambda}_1 \bar{v}_1^T)^T}_{\neq 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{R}} v_1 &= (\bar{A} \bar{v}_1)^T v_1 \\ &= (\bar{v}_1^T A^T) v_1 = \bar{v}_1^T A v_1 = \bar{v}_1^T (\lambda_1 v_1) = \lambda_1 (\bar{v}_1^T v_1) \neq 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

comparing these gives $\bar{\lambda}_1 = \lambda_1$, i.e. $\lambda_1 \in \mathbb{R}$

Now since $\lambda_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, one can pick $v_1 \in \ker(\lambda_1 I_n - A) - \{0\}$ to have $v_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$ by row-reduction in \mathbb{R}

(152)

Now consider the subspace $U := v_1^\perp := \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : v_1^T v = 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

and we claim $A(U) \subset U$: given $v \in U$ so that $v_1^T v = 0$

$$\text{then } v_1^T (Av) = (v_1^T A^T)v = (Av_1)^T v = (\lambda v_1)^T v = \lambda \cdot v_1^T v = \lambda \cdot 0 = 0$$

It's easy to see that any \mathbb{R} -basis v_2, \dots, v_n for U gives a basis (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) for \mathbb{R}^n ,

and then $A(U) \subset U$ means that A will have matrix in this basis

of the form

$$A = \begin{array}{c} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{c|ccc} v_1 & \lambda & & \\ \hline v_2 & 0 & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \hat{A} & \\ v_n & 0 & & \end{array} \right] \text{ for some } \hat{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$$

We claim that if one chooses v_2, \dots, v_n to be any orthonormal basis

for U , meaning $v_i^T v_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$, then $\hat{A}^T = \hat{A}$:

$$\text{one has } \hat{A} = (\hat{a}_{ij})_{\substack{i=2, \dots, n \\ j=2, \dots, n}} \text{ where } Av_j = \sum_{i=2}^n \hat{a}_{ij} v_i$$

$$\downarrow \\ v_k^T Av_j = \sum_{i=2}^n \hat{a}_{ij} \underbrace{v_k^T v_i}_{=1 \text{ if } i=k, 0 \text{ else}} = \hat{a}_{kj}$$

$$\text{But } v_k^T Av_j = v_k^T A^T v_j = (Av_k)^T v_j = v_j^T Av_k = \hat{a}_{jk}, \text{ i.e. } \hat{A}^T = \hat{A}.$$

Hence induction applies to \hat{A} , so \exists an orthogonal $\hat{P} = (\hat{P})^{-1} \in GL_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$

$$\text{with } \hat{P}^{-1} \hat{A} \hat{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_2 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$\text{so } P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & \hat{P} & & \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix} \text{ has } P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \hat{P}^{-1} & & \\ 0 & & \hat{A} & \\ \vdots & & & \hat{P} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & \hat{P}^{-1} \hat{A} \hat{P} & & \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

also orthogonal
in $O_n(\mathbb{R})$