

# Eigenvalues, diagonalization, and Jordan normal form

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April 20, 2016

**Definition 1.** *Let  $A$  be a square matrix whose entries are complex numbers. If  $Av = \lambda v$  for a complex number  $\lambda$  and a non-zero vector  $v$ , then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ , and  $v$  is the corresponding eigenvector.*

**Definition 2.** *Let  $A$  be a square matrix. Then*

$$p(x) = \det(A - Ix)$$

*is the characteristic polynomial of  $A$ .*

## 1 Matrix similarity

**Definition 3.** *Square matrices  $A$  and  $D$  are similar if  $A = CDC^{-1}$  for some regular matrix  $C$ . Equivalently, they are similar if they are matrices of the same linear function, with respect to different bases.*

**Lemma 1.** *If  $A$  and  $D$  are similar, then they have the same characteristic polynomials, and thus they have the same eigenvalues with the same algebraic multiplicities. Furthermore, their eigenvalues also have the same geometric multiplicities.*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $A = CDC^{-1}$ . Then the characteristic polynomial  $\det(A - Ix)$  of  $A$  is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - Ix) &= \det(CDC^{-1} - Ix) = \det(C(D - Ix)C^{-1}) \\ &= \det(C) \det(D - Ix) \det(C^{-1}) = \det(D - Ix), \end{aligned}$$

which is the characteristic polynomial of  $D$ .

Furthermore, for any  $\lambda$ , we have  $v \in \text{Ker}(D - \lambda I)$  if and only if  $Cv \in \text{Ker}(A - \lambda I)$ , and since  $C$  is regular, we have  $\dim(\text{Ker}(D - \lambda I)) = \dim(\text{Ker}(A - \lambda I))$ ; hence, the geometric multiplicities of  $\lambda$  as an eigenvalue of  $A$  and  $D$  coincide.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.** *If  $A$  and  $B$  are square matrices, then  $AB$  and  $BA$  have the same eigenvalues.*

*Proof.* Let  $X = \begin{pmatrix} AB & 0 \\ B & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ B & BA \end{pmatrix}$ . Note that  $AB$  and  $X$  have the same eigenvalues except for extra zero eigenvalues of  $X$ , and that  $BA$  and  $Y$  have the same eigenvalues except for extra zero eigenvalues of  $Y$ . Furthermore, let  $C = \begin{pmatrix} I & A \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix}$ , and note that  $XC = CY$ , and thus  $X$  and  $Y$  are similar and have the same eigenvalues by Lemma 1.  $\square$

**Observation 3.** *If  $A = CDC^{-1}$  for some square matrices  $A$  and  $D$ , then  $A^n = CD^nC^{-1}$ . More generally, for any polynomial  $p$ , we have  $p(A) = Cp(D)C^{-1}$ .*

## 2 Diagonalization

**Example 1.** Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & -2 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 5 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$  and let  $f : \mathbf{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$  be defined by

$$f(x) = Ax.$$

*Eigenvectors and eigenvalues of  $A$  are*

- $v_1 = (1, -1, -1)^T$ , eigenvalue 1,
- $v_2 = (-1, 2, 1)^T$ , eigenvalue 2,
- $v_3 = (-1, 1, 2)^T$ , eigenvalue 3.

*Note that  $B = v_1, v_2, v_3$  is a basis of  $\mathbf{R}^3$ . If  $[x]_B = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$ , then*

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \alpha_3 v_3) \\ &= \alpha_1 f(v_1) + \alpha_2 f(v_2) + \alpha_3 f(v_3) \\ &= \alpha_1 v_1 + 2\alpha_2 v_2 + 3\alpha_3 v_3, \end{aligned}$$

*and thus  $[f(x)]_{B,B} = (\alpha_1, 2\alpha_2, 3\alpha_3)$ . Therefore, the matrix of  $f$  with respect to the basis  $B$  is*

$$[f]_{B,B} = D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

*Let  $B'$  be the standard basis of  $\mathbf{R}^3$ . Let*

$$C = [id]_{B,B'} = (v_1|v_2|v_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Recall that

$$[f]_{B',B'} = [id]_{B,B'}[f]_{B,B}[id]_{B',B}^{-1} = [id]_{B,B'}[f]_{B,B}[id]_{B',B}^{-1},$$

and thus

$$A = CDC^{-1}.$$

**Lemma 4.** *An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is similar to a diagonal matrix if and only if there exists a basis of  $\mathbf{C}^n$  formed by eigenvectors of  $A$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $A = CDC^{-1}$  for a diagonal matrix  $D$  with diagonal entries  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ . Since  $C$  is regular,  $B = Ce_1, \dots, Ce_n$  is a basis of  $\mathbf{C}^n$ . Furthermore,  $A(Ce_i) = CDe_i = \lambda_i(Ce_i)$ , and thus  $B$  is formed by eigenvectors of  $A$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  is a basis of  $\mathbf{C}^n$  formed by eigenvectors of  $A$  corresponding to eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , and let  $D$  be the diagonal matrix  $D$  with diagonal entries  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ . Let  $C = (v_1 | \dots | v_n)$ . Then

$$C^{-1}AC = C^{-1}(Av_1 | \dots | Av_n) = C^{-1}(\lambda_1 v_1 | \dots | \lambda_n v_n) = C^{-1}CD = D,$$

and thus  $A$  and  $D$  are similar.  $\square$

**Lemma 5.** *If  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$  are pairwise distinct eigenvalues of  $A$  (not necessarily all of them) and  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  are corresponding eigenvectors, then  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  are linearly independent.*

*Proof.* We proceed by induction on  $k$ ; the claim is trivial for  $k = 1$ . Suppose that  $\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_k v_k = o$ ; then  $o = A(\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_k v_k) = \alpha_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_k \lambda_k v_k$ , and  $\alpha_1(\lambda_1 - \lambda_k)v_1 + \alpha_2(\lambda_2 - \lambda_k)v_2 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1}(\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda_k)v_{k-1} = o$ . By the induction hypothesis,  $\alpha_j(\lambda_j - \lambda_k) = 0$  for  $1 \leq j \leq k-1$ , and since  $\lambda_j \neq \lambda_k$ , we have  $\alpha_j = 0$ . Therefore,  $\alpha_k v_k = 0$ , and since  $v_k \neq o$ , we have  $\alpha_k = 0$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 6.** *Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. If the geometric multiplicity of every eigenvalue of  $A$  is equal to its algebraic multiplicity, then  $A$  is similar to a diagonal matrix. In particular, this is the case if all eigenvalues of  $A$  have algebraic multiplicity 1, i.e., if  $A$  has  $n$  distinct eigenvalues.*

**Example 2.** *Let  $a_0 = 3$ ,  $a_1 = 8$  and  $a_{n+2} = 5a_{n+1} - 6a_n$  for  $n \geq 0$ . Determine a formula for  $a_n$ .*

Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ . Note that  $A(a_n, a_{n+1})^T = (a_{n+1}, 5a_{n+1} - 6a_n)^T = (a_{n+1}, a_{n+2})^T$ , and thus  $(a_n, a_{n+1})^T = A^n(3, 8)^T$ . The eigenvalues of  $A$  are 2 and 3, and thus

$$A = C \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} C^{-1}$$

for some matrix  $C$ . Therefore,  $(a_n, a_{n+1})^T = C \begin{pmatrix} 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 3^n \end{pmatrix} C^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$ . It follows that  $a_n = \beta_1 2^n + \beta_2 3^n$  for some  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ . Since  $a_0 = 3$  and  $a_1 = 8$ , we have  $\beta_1 = 1$  and  $\beta_2 = 2$ . Hence,  $a_n = 2^n + 2 \cdot 3^n$ .

### 3 Jordan normal form

Not all matrices are diagonalizable. However, a slight weakening of this claim is true.

**Definition 4.** Let  $J_k(\lambda)$  be the  $k \times k$  matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ & & \dots & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ . We call

each such matrix a Jordan  $\lambda$ -block.

A matrix  $J$  is in Jordan normal form if

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} J_{k_1}(\lambda_1) & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & J_{k_2}(\lambda_2) & 0 & \dots \\ & & \dots & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & J_{k_m}(\lambda_m) \end{pmatrix}$$

for some integers  $k_1, \dots, k_m$  and complex numbers  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$ .

Note that  $J_1(\lambda) = (\lambda)$ , and that  $J_k(\lambda)$  has eigenvalue  $\lambda$  with algebraic multiplicity  $k$  and geometric multiplicity 1.

**Definition 5.** Let  $\mathbf{V}$  be a linear space over complex numbers. A chain of generalized eigenvectors for a linear function  $f : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  is a sequence of non-zero vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  such that  $f(v_1) = \lambda v_1$  and  $f(v_i) = \lambda v_i + v_{i-1}$  for  $i = 2, \dots, k$ .

**Lemma 7.** Let  $\mathbf{V}$  be a linear space over complex numbers of finite dimension  $n$ . For every linear function  $f : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$ , there exist chains  $C_1, \dots, C_m$  of generalized eigenvectors such that the union of  $C_1, \dots, C_m$  is a basis of  $\mathbf{V}$ .

*Proof.* We prove the claim by induction on  $n$ . Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $f$ , and let  $g : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$  be defined by  $g(x) = f(x) - \lambda x$ . Let  $\mathbf{W} = \text{Im}(g)$ . Since there exists a non-zero eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ , we have  $\dim(\text{Ker}(g)) > 0$ , and thus  $d = \dim(\mathbf{W}) = n - \dim(\text{Ker}(g)) < n$ . Note that if  $x \in \mathbf{W}$ , then  $x = g(y)$  for some  $y \in \mathbf{V}$ , and  $f(x) = f(g(y)) = f(f(y) - \lambda y) = f(f(y)) - \lambda f(y) = g(f(y))$ , and thus  $f(x) \in \mathbf{W}$ . Hence, we can consider  $f$  as a function from  $\mathbf{W}$  to  $\mathbf{W}$ . By the induction hypothesis, there exist

chains  $C'_1, \dots, C'_{m'}$  of generalized eigenvectors of  $f$  such that their union  $B' = v_1, \dots, v_d$  is a basis of  $\mathbf{W}$ . Without loss of generality, the chains  $C'_1, \dots, C'_q$  correspond to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . Order the elements of the basis  $B'$  so that  $v_1, \dots, v_{m'}$  are the last elements of the chains  $C'_1, \dots, C'_{m'}$ . For  $i = 1, \dots, q$ , let  $z_i$  be a vector in  $\mathbf{V}$  such that  $g(z_i) = v_i$ . Let  $C_1, \dots, C_q$  be the chains obtained from  $C'_1, \dots, C'_q$  by adding last elements  $z_1, \dots, z_q$ . Let  $C_i = C'_i$  for  $i = q + 1, \dots, m'$ .

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_q$  be the first elements of the chains  $C'_1, \dots, C'_q$ . Note that  $x_1, \dots, x_q \in \mathbf{W} \cap \text{Ker}(g)$ . Let  $v$  be any vector from  $\mathbf{W} \cap \text{Ker}(g)$  and let  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)$  be the coordinates of  $v$  with respect to  $B'$ . Consider any of the chains  $C$  corresponding to an eigenvalue  $\mu$ , and let  $v_i$  be its last element such that  $\alpha_i \neq 0$ . Then the  $i$ -th coordinate of  $g(v) = f(v) - \lambda v$  is  $(\mu - \lambda)\alpha_i$ , and since  $g(v) = 0$ , we conclude that  $\mu = \lambda$ . Hence,  $v$  only has non-zero coordinates in the chains corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . If  $v_i$  is in such a chain and it is not its first element, then let  $v_j$  be the element of the chain preceding  $v_j$ . Then, the  $j$ -th coordinate of  $g(v)$  is  $\alpha_i$ , and thus  $\alpha_i = 0$ . We conclude that the only coordinates of  $v$  that may possibly be non-zero are those corresponding to  $x_1, \dots, x_q$ . Therefore,  $K = x_1, \dots, x_q$  forms a basis of  $\mathbf{W} \cap \text{Ker}(g)$ .

Let  $K' = K, u_1, \dots, u_t$  be a basis of  $\text{Ker}(g)$  extending  $K$  (where  $t = \dim(\text{Ker}(g)) - q = n - d - q$ ). For  $i = m' + 1, \dots, m' + t$ , let  $C_i$  be the chain consisting of  $u_i$  (which is an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ ), and let  $m = m' + t$ .

We found chains  $C_1, \dots, C_m$  of generalized eigenvectors such that their union contains  $n$  vectors. To show that it forms a basis, it suffices to argue that these vectors are linearly independent. Consider any  $p = \sum_{i=1}^q \alpha_i z_i + \sum_{i=1}^t \beta_i u_i + w$  for some  $w \in \mathbf{W}$ , and let  $u = \sum_{i=1}^t \beta_i u_i$ . Note that  $g(p) \in \mathbf{W}$ , and observe that for  $i = 1, \dots, q$ , the  $i$ -th coordinate of  $g(p)$  with respect to the basis  $B'$  is equal to  $\alpha_i$ . Hence, if  $p = o$ , then  $\alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_q = 0$ , and thus  $w = p - u = -u$ . Furthermore,  $u \in \text{Ker}(g)$ , and thus  $g(u) = o$ , and if  $p = o$ , then  $g(w) = -g(u) = o$ , and  $w \in \text{Ker}(g) \cap \mathbf{W} = \text{span}(K)$ . However, then  $\beta_1 = \dots = \beta_t = 0$  and  $w = o$ , since  $K'$  is a basis of  $\text{Ker}(g)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 8.** *Every square matrix  $A$  is similar to a matrix in Jordan normal form.*

*Proof.* Let  $f(x) = Ax$ . Let  $C_1, \dots, C_m$  be chains of generalized eigenvectors of  $f$  forming a basis  $B$  of  $\mathbf{C}^n$ . If  $C_1 = v_1, \dots, v_k$ , then  $f(v_1) = \lambda v_1$  and  $f(v_i) = \lambda v_i + v_{i-1}$  for  $i = 2, \dots, k$  and some eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . Hence, the first column of  $[f]_{B,B}$  is  $\lambda e_1$  and the  $i$ -th column of  $[f]_{B,B}$  is  $\lambda e_i + e_{i-1}$  for  $i = 2, \dots, k$ . Therefore, the first  $k$  columns of  $[f]_{B,B}$  are formed by  $J_k(\lambda)$  padded from below by zeros. Similarly, we conclude that  $[f]_{B,B}$  is in Jordan

normal form, with  $m$  blocks corresponding to the chains  $C_1, \dots, C_m$ . Note that  $[f]_{B,B}$  is similar to  $A$ .  $\square$

**Observation 9.** *If  $A$  is similar to a matrix in Jordan normal form that contains  $t$  Jordan  $\lambda$ -blocks of total size  $m$ , then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  with algebraic multiplicity  $m$  and geometric multiplicity  $t$ . Consequently, the geometric multiplicity of any eigenvalue is at most as large as its algebraic multiplicity.*

**Example 3.** *Find the Jordan normal form of the matrix*

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 4 \\ -2 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

*We know that  $A$  has an eigenvalue 1 of algebraic multiplicity 1 and an eigenvalue 2 of algebraic multiplicity 2 and geometric multiplicity 1. Therefore, the Jordan normal form of  $A$  is*

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

*The eigenvectors  $(0, -2, 1)$  (eigenvalue 1) and  $(1, 1, -1)$  (eigenvalue 2) form the first elements of the chains of generalized eigenvectors. The second element  $v$  for the eigenvalue 2 must satisfy  $(A - 2I)v = (1, 1, -1)^T$ , which has a solution  $v = (-1, 0, 1)$ . Hence  $A = CDC^{-1}$ , where*

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Example 4.** *Solve the system of linear differential equations*

$$\begin{aligned} f' &= 3f + g + 2h \\ g' &= 3f + 3g + 4h \\ h' &= -2f - g - h \end{aligned}$$

*for functions  $f, g, h : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ .*

*Note that  $\frac{d}{dx}(f, g, h)^T = (f', g', h')^T = A(f, g, h)^T = CDC^{-1}(f, g, h)^T$  for the matrices  $A, C$ , and  $D$  from Example 3. Equivalently,  $\frac{d}{dx}C^{-1}(f, g, h)^T =$*

$DC^{-1}(f, g, h)^T$ . Let  $(f_1, g_1, h_1)^T = C^{-1}(f, g, h)^T$ ; hence, we need to solve the system  $\frac{d}{dx}(f_1, g_1, h_1)^T = D(f_1, g_1, h_1)^T$ , i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} f_1' &= f_1 \\ g_1' &= 2g_1 + h_1 \\ h_1' &= 2h_1 \end{aligned}$$

The general solution for the equation  $r' = \alpha r$  is  $r(x) = Ce^{\alpha x}$  for any constant  $C$ . Hence,  $f_1(x) = C_1 e^x$  and  $h_1(x) = C_2 e^{2x}$ . Then,  $g_1' = 2g_1 + C_2 e^{2x}$ , which has solution  $g_1(x) = C_2 x e^{2x} + C_3 e^{2x}$  for any constant  $C_3$ . Therefore, the solution is  $(f_1, g_1, h_1) = C_1(e^x, 0, 0) + C_2(0, x e^{2x}, e^{2x}) + C_3(0, e^{2x}, 0)$ , i.e., any element of

$$\text{span}((e^x, 0, 0), (0, x e^{2x}, e^{2x}), (0, e^{2x}, 0)).$$

Hence  $(f, g, h)^T = C(f_1, g_1, h_1)^T$  can be any element of

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{span}(C(e^x, 0, 0)^T, C(0, x e^{2x}, e^{2x})^T, C(0, e^{2x}, 0)^T) = \\ &\text{span}((0, -2e^x, e^x)^T, ((x-1)e^{2x}, x e^{2x}, (1-x)e^{2x})^T, (e^{2x}, e^{2x}, -e^{2x})^T). \end{aligned}$$

**Observation 10.** For any  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$[J_k(\lambda)]^n = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^n & \binom{n}{1}\lambda^{n-1} & \binom{n}{2}\lambda^{n-2} & \cdots & \cdots \\ 0 & \lambda^n & \binom{n}{1}\lambda^{n-1} & \binom{n}{2}\lambda^{n-2} & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda^n & \binom{n}{1}\lambda^{n-1} & \binom{n}{2}\lambda^{n-2} & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Definition 6.** For a square matrix  $A$ , let

$$\exp(A) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^k}{k!}.$$

**Observation 11.** If  $A = CDC^{-1}$ , then  $\exp(A) = C \exp(D) C^{-1}$ ,

$$\exp(J_k(\lambda)) = \begin{pmatrix} e^\lambda & \frac{e^\lambda}{1!} & \frac{e^\lambda}{2!} & \cdots \\ 0 & e^\lambda & \frac{e^\lambda}{1!} & \frac{e^\lambda}{2!} & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & e^\lambda & \frac{e^\lambda}{1!} & \frac{e^\lambda}{2!} & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$\exp(J_k(\lambda)x) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda x} & \frac{x e^{\lambda x}}{1!} & \frac{x^2 e^{\lambda x}}{2!} & \cdots \\ 0 & e^{\lambda x} & \frac{x e^{\lambda x}}{1!} & \frac{x^2 e^{\lambda x}}{2!} & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & e^{\lambda x} & \frac{x e^{\lambda x}}{1!} & \frac{x^2 e^{\lambda x}}{2!} & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \end{pmatrix},$$

**Example 5.** The solutions to a system of differential equations  $v' = Av$  are  $v(x) \in \text{Col}(\exp(Ax))$ .

In Example 4, we have

$$\exp(Ax) = C \exp(Dx) C^{-1} = C \begin{pmatrix} e^x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2x} & xe^{2x} \\ 0 & 0 & e^{2x} \end{pmatrix} C^{-1},$$

and thus the set of solutions is

$$(f, g, h)^T \in \text{Col} \left[ C \begin{pmatrix} e^x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2x} & xe^{2x} \\ 0 & 0 & e^{2x} \end{pmatrix} \right].$$

**Lemma 12.** For any polynomial  $p$  and an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , if  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$  listed with their algebraic multiplicities, then  $p(\lambda_1), \dots, p(\lambda_n)$  are the eigenvalues of  $p(A)$  listed with their algebraic multiplicities.

*Proof.* By Lemma 1, Observation 3 and Theorem 8, it suffices to prove this for matrices in Jordan normal form. Suppose that  $A_1, \dots, A_m$  are the Jordan blocks of  $A$ . Then  $p(A)$  is a matrix consisting of blocks  $p(A_1), \dots, p(A_m)$  on the diagonal, and the list of eigenvalues of  $p(A)$  is equal to the concatenation of the lists of eigenvalues of  $p(A_1), \dots, p(A_m)$ . Therefore, it suffices to prove the claim for a Jordan block  $J_k(\lambda)$ . By Observation 10, the matrix  $p(J_k(\lambda))$  is upper triangular and its entries on the diagonal are all equal to  $p(\lambda)$ , and thus it has eigenvalue  $p(\lambda)$  with the algebraic multiplicity  $k$ .  $\square$

## 4 Cayley-Hamilton theorem

**Theorem 13** (Cayley-Hamilton theorem). If  $p$  is the characteristic polynomial of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , then  $p(A) = 0$ .

*Proof.* By Lemma 1, Observation 3 and Theorem 8, it suffices to prove this for matrices in Jordan normal form. Suppose that  $A_1, \dots, A_m$  are the Jordan blocks of  $A$ . Then  $p(A)$  is a matrix consisting of blocks  $p(A_1), \dots, p(A_m)$  on the diagonal, and  $p$  is the product of characteristic polynomials of  $A_1, \dots, A_m$ . Hence, it suffices to show that  $p_i(A_i) = 0$  for the characteristic polynomial  $p_i$  of  $A_i$ . However, if  $A_i = J_k(\lambda)$ , then  $p_i(x) = (\lambda - x)^k$ , and  $p_i(A_i) = (\lambda I - A_i)^k = 0$ .  $\square$

**Example 6.** Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 4 \\ -2 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . The characteristic polynomial of  $A$  is  $p(x) = -x^3 + 5x^2 - 8x + 4$ .

Note that  $A^2 = AA = \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 4 & 8 \\ 10 & 8 & 14 \\ -7 & -4 & -7 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $A^3 = A^2A = \begin{pmatrix} 20 & 12 & 24 \\ 26 & 20 & 38 \\ -19 & -12 & -23 \end{pmatrix}$ .

We have  $p(A) = -A^3 + 5A^2 - 8A + 4I = 0$ .

**Corollary 14.** *Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then for any  $m \geq 0$ , the matrix  $A^m$  is a linear combination of  $I, A, A^2, \dots, A^{n-1}$ , and thus the space of matrices expressible as polynomials in  $A$  has dimension at most  $n$ . Furthermore, if  $A$  is regular, then  $A^{-1}$  is contained in this space as well.*