

- Power of a Matrix

Diagonalization is an important concept and is useful in many ways. For example, the elements of the k^{th} power (k a positive integer) of a given square matrix A are usually difficult to obtain except for small values of k .

$$\therefore D = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then } D^k = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^k & 0 \\ 0 & \beta^k \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose A is an arbitrary matrix of order 2, which is similar to the diagonal matrix D , then.

$$D = X^{-1} A X \quad : \quad X: \text{non-singular matrix} \\ \text{i.e. } |X| \neq 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore D^2 &= (X^{-1} A X)(X^{-1} A X) \\ &= X^{-1} A \underbrace{X X^{-1}}_I A X = X^{-1} A^2 X \end{aligned}$$

Similarly $D^3 = X^{-1} A^3 X$, and in general

$$D^k = X^{-1} A^k X$$

To find A^k from the above equation, a pre-multiplication by X and post-multiplication by X^{-1} , so that $X D^k X^{-1} = X X^{-1} A^k X X^{-1}$

$$\therefore \boxed{A^k = X D^k X^{-1}}$$

Hence, since D^k may be easily calculated, A^k may be obtained.

Similar matrix

The two matrices A and D are said to be similar if there exist a non-singular matrix, such that $D = X^{-1}AX$ or in general for any two similar matrices A and B with a non-singular matrix X , then

$$D = X^{-1}AX$$

proof: Let $AX = X^{-1}R$, multiply by X

$$XAX = R$$

$$= XA(X^{-1}X)R$$

$$XAX = (XAX^{-1})XR$$

$$XR = D XR$$

$$\therefore D = XAX^{-1}$$

Exercise: Show that similar matrices have the same eigenvalues.

Solution: $D = X^{-1}AX$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore D - \lambda I &= X^{-1}AX - \lambda I \\ &= X^{-1}AX - \lambda X^{-1}X \\ &= X^{-1}(A - \lambda I)X \end{aligned}$$

and hence

$$\begin{aligned} |D - \lambda I| &= |X^{-1}(A - \lambda I)X| \\ &= |X^{-1}| |A - \lambda I| |X| = |X|^{-1} |X| |A - \lambda I| \\ &= |A - \lambda I| \end{aligned}$$

Q/ Find the diagonal matrix of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The characteristic equation $|A - \lambda I| = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 5-\lambda & 4 \\ 1 & -2\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$ $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 6$
Eigen-Values

Eigenvectors : $\lambda_1 = 1$

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} 4X_1 + 4X_2 = 0 \\ X_1 + X_2 = 0 \end{array} \right\} X_1 = -X_2$$

The normalized eigenvectors

$$X_1^2 + X_2^2 = 1 \rightarrow X_1^2 + (-X_1)^2 = 1 \rightarrow X_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, X_2 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$X_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvector : $\lambda = 6$: $\left[\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \right] \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} -X_1 + 4X_2 = 0 \\ X_1 - 4X_2 = 0 \end{array} \right\} X_2 = \frac{1}{4} X_1$$

The normalized eigenvectors $X_1^2 + X_2^2 = 1$

$$X_1^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4}X_1\right)^2 = 1 \rightarrow X_1 = \frac{4}{\sqrt{17}}, X_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{17}}$$

$$\therefore X_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{4}{\sqrt{17}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{17}} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow X = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{4}{\sqrt{17}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{17}} \end{pmatrix}$$

H.W. Find X^{-1} & $D = X^{-1}DX$

- The Cayley - Hamilton Theorem.

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Theorem: Every square matrix satisfies its own characteristic equation $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

That is only if

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad \text{Characteristic equation}$$

Then the expansion of $|A - \lambda I|$ give rise to an n^{th} degree polynomial in λ say $f(\lambda)$, called the characteristic polynomial and the roots $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ of the characteristic equation $f(\lambda) = 0$ are called the eigenvalues (characteristic roots, latent roots or proper values) of the matrix A . To each root λ_i ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$) there is a non-trivial solution X_i called the eigenvectors (characteristic vector, latent vector). For any other value of $\lambda \neq \lambda_i$ the only solution of $(A - \lambda I)X = 0$ is the trivial one $X=0$. $\therefore$ The left hand side of $(A - \lambda I)X = 0$ may be written as

$$f(\lambda) = |A - \lambda I| = (-1)^n \left[\lambda^n - \alpha_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \alpha_2 \lambda^{n-2} - \dots + (-1)^n a_n \right]$$

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Where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ defined in terms of the elements a_{ik} , and hence

$$f(A) = (-1)^n (A^n - \alpha_1 A^{n-1} + \alpha_2 A^{n-2} - \dots + (-1)^n \alpha_n I)$$

Now if X_i is an eigenvectors of A

Corresponding to the i^{th} eigenvalues λ_i then

$$A X_i = \lambda_i X_i, \text{ and}$$

$$f(A) X_i = (-1)^n [A^n - \alpha_1 A^{n-1} + \alpha_2 A^{n-2} - \dots + (-1)^n \alpha_n I] X_i$$

i.e. for eigenvalues

$$\boxed{\lambda^n + \alpha_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \alpha_2 \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + \alpha_n = 0}$$

And Cayley - Hamilton theorem

$$\boxed{A^n + \alpha_1 A^{n-1} + \alpha_2 A^{n-2} + \dots + \alpha_n I = 0}$$

The following example illustrate the theorem.

Example: Given $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

Show that "A" must satisfy the C-H. Theorem:

Solution: $|A - I\lambda| = 0$ the characteristic equation

$$\left| \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \right| = 0 \quad \left| \begin{matrix} 4-\lambda & 1 \\ 2 & 3-\lambda \end{matrix} \right| = 0$$

$$\therefore \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 = 0$$

Hence, by the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, A must satisfy the relation

$$A^2 - 7A + 10I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 7 \\ 14 & 11 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$7A = \begin{pmatrix} 28 & 7 \\ 14 & 21 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 18 & 7 \\ 14 & 11 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 28 & 7 \\ 14 & 21 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 18-28+10 & 7-7+0 \\ 14-14+0 & 11-21+10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Furthermore, since A is non-singular ($\det A \neq 0$) and $A^2 - 7A + 10I = 0$, find A^{-1}

$$\therefore A^{-1}A^2 - 7AA^{-1} + 10A^{-1} = 0$$

$$A - 7I + 10A^{-1} = 0$$

$$\therefore A^{-1} = \frac{1}{10} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \frac{1}{10} \begin{vmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ 2 & -4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{-3}{10} & \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{2}{10} & \frac{-4}{10} \end{vmatrix}$$

This is a very useful way of evaluating the inverse of a matrix, and may readily be extended to higher negative powers. Find A^{-2}

$$A^{-2} = A^{-1}A^{-1} = ?$$

Furthermore, Since A is non-singular and

$$A^2 - 7A + 10I = 0$$

This equation may be written as (multiply by A^{-1})

$$A^{-1}A^2 - 7A^{-1}A + 10A^{-1}I = 0$$

$$A - 7I + 10A^{-1} = 0$$

$$\therefore A^{-1} = \frac{1}{10}(A - 7I)$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{10} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{10} & \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{2}{10} & -\frac{4}{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

This is a very useful way of evaluating the inverse of a matrix, and may be readily extended to higher negative powers; to find A^{-2}

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-2} &= A^{-1}A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{10} & \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{2}{10} & -\frac{4}{10} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{10} & \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{2}{10} & -\frac{4}{10} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{9}{100} + \frac{2}{100} & -\frac{3}{100} - \frac{4}{100} \\ -\frac{6}{100} + (-\frac{8}{100}) & \frac{2}{100} + \frac{16}{100} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{11}{100} & -\frac{7}{100} \\ -\frac{14}{100} & \frac{18}{100} \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Power of matrices

Using the eigenvalues of a given matrix $A_{2 \times 2}$ to find the powers of (2×2) matrices

$$A^n = \frac{\lambda_1^n \lambda_2 - \lambda_1 \lambda_2^n}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{\lambda_2^n - \lambda_1^n}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} A$$

for $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$

and

$$A^n = (1-n) \lambda_1^n I + n \lambda_1^{n-1} A \quad \text{for } \lambda_1 = \lambda_2$$

Note: ① A square matrix A which satisfies the relation $A^2 = A$

is called idempotent.

proof: If $AB = A$ & $BA = B$

$$\text{for then } ABA = (AB)A = AA = A^2 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{and } ABA = A(BA) = AB = A \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$\therefore$ from 1 & 2 then $A = A^2$

② A square matrix which satisfies the relation $A^k = 0$

where k is a positive integer, is said to be nilpotent of order k .