## MTH6140 Linear Algebra II

## **Coursework 8 Solutions**

 (a) D maps each non-constant polynomial to a polynomial of degree one lower, and each constant polynomial to 0. So D has only one eigenvalue, namely 0, with corresponding eigenvector 1 (the constant polynomial 1). Naturally, any constant polynomial not equal to 0 is an equally good eigenvector.

> Or, symbolically, we are looking for solutions  $f(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$ to  $f'(x) = \lambda f(x)$ . Substituting for f(x) we have

$$3ax^{2} + 2bx + c = f'(x) = \lambda f(x) = \lambda ax^{3} + \lambda bx^{2} + \lambda cx + \lambda d.$$

Equating coefficients, we see that  $\lambda a = 0$ ,  $\lambda b = 3a$ ,  $\lambda c = 2b$  and  $\lambda d = c$ . There are two cases. If  $\lambda = 0$  then a = b = c = 0, leading to the eigenvector 1 identified above. If  $\lambda \neq 0$ , then a = b = c = d = 0 and there are no corresponding eigenvectors. (Recall that the zero vector is not an eigenvalue, by definition.)

- (b) If f(x) = ax<sup>3</sup> + bx<sup>2</sup> + cx + d, then xf'(x) = 3ax<sup>3</sup> + 2bx<sup>2</sup> + cx. For f to be an eigenvector, 3ax<sup>2</sup> + 2bx<sup>2</sup> + cx = λ(ax<sup>3</sup> + bx<sup>2</sup> + cx + d), for some λ, and hence a(3 λ) = b(2 λ) = c(1 λ) = λd = 0. So there are four possible eigenvalues, namely λ = 0, λ = 1, λ = 2 and λ = 3, with corresponding eigenvectors 1, x, x<sup>2</sup> and x<sup>3</sup> (or some scaling of these).
- (c) The eigenvectors  $(1, x, x^2, x^3)$  of  $\widehat{D}$  form a basis for  $V_4$ , so  $\widehat{D}$  is diagonalisable; in fact the matrix relative to the basis  $(1, x, x^2, x^3)$  is

| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
|---|---|---|---|--|
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |  |

However, D has only one eigenvector and so is not diagonalisable.

**2.** Since  $\alpha$  is a projection,  $\alpha^2 = \alpha$ . Since  $\alpha$  is invertible, we may act on both sides by  $\alpha^{-1}$  to obtain  $\alpha^{-1}\alpha^2 = \alpha^{-1}\alpha$ , i.e.,  $\alpha = I$ . So  $\alpha$  must be the identity map.

3. (a) Following the recipe described and justified in lectures, we may take the columns of P to be the three eigenvectors  $v_1 v_2$  and  $v_3$  of A viewed as column vectors. Also, Q is the inverse of P. Thus.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It can be checked that the product QAP does indeed equal D or, equivalently, A = PDQ.

(b) We know that  $A = PDP^{-1}$ , and hence  $A^t = (PDP^{-1})^t = PD^tP^{-1}$ . Note that

|                      | $\left\lceil \frac{2}{3} \right\rceil$ | 0             | 0 | ι                      | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
|----------------------|--|---------------|---|------------------------|---|---|---|--|
| $(\frac{1}{3}D)^t =$ | Ŏ                                      | $\frac{2}{3}$ | 0 | $\longrightarrow$      | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
|                      | 0                                      | Ő             | 1 | $t \rightarrow \infty$ | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |

so  $(\frac{1}{3}A)^t = P(\frac{1}{3}D)^t P^{-1}$  tends to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

as  $t \to \infty$ .

4. (a) False. It may happen that the minimal polynomial is a product of distinct linear factors, but the roots of the minimal polynomial are not real. For example, the eigenvalues of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1\\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are  $1 \pm i$ , so A has no eigenvectors when viewed as a linear map on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , but has two linearly independent eigenvectors when viewed as a linear map on  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . These eigenvectors form a basis for  $\mathbb{C}^n$ . The diagonal form in this case is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 0\\ 0 & 1-i \end{bmatrix}.$$

Alternatively, the characteristic polynomial of A is  $p_A(x) = x^2 - 2x + 2$ . Over  $\mathbb{R}$ , the minimal polynomial  $m_A(x)$  is equal to  $p_A(x)$  which is not a product of linear factors. Over  $\mathbb{C}$ , it is also the case that  $m_A(x) = p_A(X)$ , but now  $m_A(x)$  factors into distinct linear factors:  $m_A(x) = (x - 1 + i)(x + 1 - i)$ .

(b) True. If the minimal polynomial is a product of distinct linear factors over  $\mathbb{R}$ , then it is a product of linear factors (the same ones!) over  $\mathbb{C}$ . The claim then follows from Theorem 5.20. Alternatively, if  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a basis of real eigenvectors of A, then those same eigenvectors will form a basis of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ . (Stop to think why this is so.)

- (c) True. The minimal polynomial has the eigenvalues of A as roots. If these are distinct, say  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ , then the minimal polynomial must be  $(x - \lambda_1) \cdots (x - \lambda_n)$ . (It must have all these factors, and it can't have more as its degree is already n, which is the maximum possible.) So the matrix A is diagonalisable. Alternatively, we know that eigenvectors with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent. So the eigenvectors of A form a linearly independent list of size n, i.e., a basis, of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- 5. (a) The matrix A must satisfy A I = O, so the only possibility is that A = I.
  - (b) We want the matrix A to have 1 as its only eigenvalue, but we want to avoid the situation that arose in part (a). The simplest solution is to add an extra non-zero entry to the identity matrix to yield, say,  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . This matrix satisfies  $(A I)^2 = O$  but not A I = O.
  - (c) Since the minimal polynomial has degree 2, it must equal the characteristic polynomial. Noting that  $m_{\alpha}(x) = (x-1)^2 + 1$ , we can choose  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , which has characteristic polynomial  $x^2 2x + 2$ .