

Definition 6.8.

If the same eigenvalue λ appears $\alpha(\lambda)$ times in this factorisation, we say:

λ has algebraic multiplicity $\alpha(\lambda)$.

- If we have k different eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}$, then $\alpha(\lambda_1) + \dots + \alpha(\lambda_k) = n$, because polynomials of degree n can be factorised into n linear factors.
- If λ is an eigenvalue, then $A - \lambda\mathbf{1}$ is singular, so $\gamma(\lambda) := \dim(\text{Ker}(A - \lambda\mathbf{1})) \geq 1$.

$$x \neq 0 \Rightarrow Ax = \lambda x$$

Proposition 6.9. Spectrum for triangular matrices

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a square matrix.

(a) For a matrix in triangular form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix},$$

we get $\text{spec}(A) = \{a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}\}$.

(b) For a square block matrix in triangular form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} B & C \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix}$$

with square matrices B and D , we get $\text{spec}(A) = \text{spec}(B) \cup \text{spec}(D)$.

(c) Also $\text{spec}(A) = \text{spec}(A^T)$. Hence (a) and (b) also hold for lower triangular matrices.

Proof.

□

Example 6.10. We give some examples for Proposition 6.9.

(a) $\text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ & & 8 & 9 \\ & & & 10 \end{pmatrix} = \{1, 5, 8, 10\}$

(b) $\text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ & & 10 & & \\ & & 11 & 12 & \\ & & 13 & 14 & 15 \end{pmatrix} = \text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ & 6 \end{pmatrix} \cup \text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 10 & & \\ 11 & 12 & \\ 13 & 14 & 15 \end{pmatrix} = \{1, 6, 10, 12, 15\}$

(c) $\text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 \\ & & 12 & & & \\ & & 13 & 14 & & \\ & & 15 & 16 & 17 & 18 \\ & & 19 & 20 & & 21 \end{pmatrix} = \text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ & 7 \end{pmatrix} \cup \text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 12 & & & \\ 13 & 14 & & \\ 15 & 16 & 17 & 18 \\ 19 & 20 & & 21 \end{pmatrix}$
 $= \text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ & 7 \end{pmatrix} \cup \text{spec} \begin{pmatrix} 12 & & \\ 13 & 14 & \\ & 17 & 18 \\ & & 21 \end{pmatrix} = \{1, 7, 12, 14, 17, 21\}$

→ Always try to use block decompositions

Recall: λ ev of $A \iff \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ (zero of the char. polynomial)

→ Leibniz formula: $\det(A - \lambda I) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{P}_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n (A - \lambda I)_{\sigma(i), i} = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{P}_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n (a_{\sigma(i), i} - \lambda \delta_{\sigma(i), i})$
 For $\lambda^n \iff \sigma = \text{id}$

Remark: $p_A(0) = \det(A)$ For $\lambda^{n-1} \iff \sigma = \text{id}$

The characteristic polynomial for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is of the following form

$$p_A(\lambda) = (-1)^n \lambda^n + \text{tr}(A) (-1)^{n-1} \lambda^{n-1} + \dots + \det(A), \quad (6.1)$$

where $\text{tr}(A) := \sum_{j=1}^n a_{jj}$ is the sum of the diagonal, the so-called trace of A .

6.3 Complex matrices and vectors

→ $\text{spec}(A) \subset \mathbb{C}$

→ Consider $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

Definition 6.11. Complex matrices

For $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, the set of all $m \times n$ matrices with entries in \mathbb{C} is denoted by $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. Analogously, \mathbb{C}^n denotes the set of all (column-)vectors with n entries in \mathbb{C} .

Addition:
$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 + w_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n + w_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda \cdot v_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda \cdot v_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{matrix} v_i, w_i \in \mathbb{C} \\ \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \end{matrix}$$

Scaling with a complex number

Proposition 6.12. Properties of the vector space \mathbb{C}^n

The set $V = \mathbb{C}^n$ with the addition $+$ and scalar multiplication \cdot fulfils the following:

- (1) $\forall \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$: $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v}$ (+ is commutative)
- (2) $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$: $\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$ (+ is associative)
- (3) There is a zero vector $\mathbf{o} \in V$ with the property: $\forall \mathbf{v} \in V$ we have $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{o} = \mathbf{v}$.
- (4) For all $\mathbf{v} \in V$ there is a vector $-\mathbf{v} \in V$ with $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{o}$.
- (5) For the number $1 \in \mathbb{C}$ and each $\mathbf{v} \in V$, one has: $1 \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$.
- (6) $\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C} \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in V$: $\lambda \cdot (\mu \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (\lambda \mu) \cdot \mathbf{v}$ (\cdot is associative)
- (7) $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \quad \forall \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$: $\lambda \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\lambda \cdot \mathbf{v}) + (\lambda \cdot \mathbf{w})$ (distributive \cdot)
- (8) $\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C} \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in V$: $(\lambda + \mu) \cdot \mathbf{v} = (\lambda \cdot \mathbf{v}) + (\mu \cdot \mathbf{v})$ (distributive $+$)

↳ (complex) vector space \mathbb{C}^n

↳ same calculation rules as in \mathbb{R}^n , just with complex numbers

Definition 6.13. Subspaces in \mathbb{C}^n

A nonempty subset $U \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ is called a (linear) subspace of \mathbb{C}^n if all linear combinations of vectors in U remain also in U . This means:

- (1) $\mathbf{o} \in U$,
- (2) $\mathbf{u} \in U, \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \implies \lambda \mathbf{u} \in U$,
- (3) $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in U \implies \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in U$.

Definition 6.14. Span

Let $M \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ be any non-empty subset. Then we define:

$$\text{Span}(M) := \{ \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k \mathbf{u}_k : \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \in M, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}, k \in \mathbb{N} \}.$$

This subspace is called the span or the linear hull of M . For convenience, we define $\text{Span}(\emptyset) := \{\mathbf{o}\}$.

↑

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } 0 \in \mathbb{C}$$

Definition 6.15. Linear dependence and independence

A family $(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k)$ of k vectors from \mathbb{C}^n is called linearly dependent if we find a non-trivial linear combination for \mathbf{o} . This means that we can find $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}$ that are not all equal zero such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{o}.$$

If this is not possible, we call the family $(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k)$ linearly independent. This means that

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{o} \Rightarrow \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k = 0$$

holds.

Definition 6.16. Basis, basis vectors

Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{C}^n . A family $\mathcal{B} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k)$ is called a basis of V if

(a) $V = \text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$ and

(b) \mathcal{B} is linearly independent.

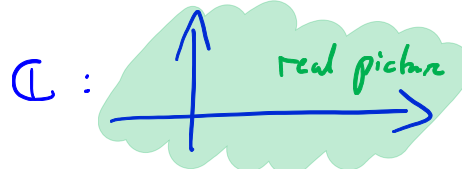
The elements of \mathcal{B} are called the basis vectors of V .

(e_1, \dots, e_n) basis for \mathbb{C}^n
 dimension of the subspace

$$\dim(V) = k, \dim(\mathbb{C}^n) = n, \dim(\mathbb{C}) = 1$$

Even in the complex vector space \mathbb{C}^n , we are able speak of geometry when endowing the space with an inner product. We try to generalise what we know from the complex plane \mathbb{C} and the real vector space \mathbb{R}^n .

complex dimension

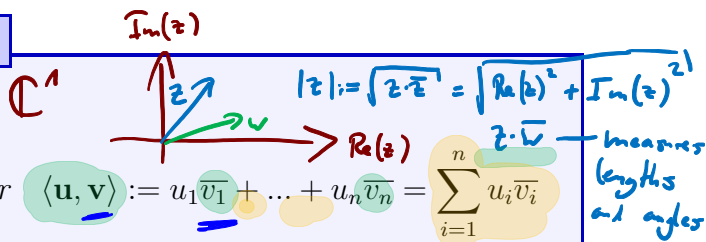


Definition 6.17. Inner product in \mathbb{C}^n

For the vectors

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

the number $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle := u_1 \bar{v}_1 + \dots + u_n \bar{v}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \bar{v}_i$



measures lengths and angles

is called the (standard) inner product of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} . Moreover, we define the real number

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| := \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle} = \sqrt{|v_1|^2 + \dots + |v_n|^2} = \sqrt{v_1 \cdot \bar{v}_1 + \dots + v_n \cdot \bar{v}_n}$$

and call it the norm of \mathbf{v} . \rightarrow measures lengths in \mathbb{C}^n

$$\left\| \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{|i|^2 + |1|^2} = \sqrt{1+1} = \sqrt{2}$$

Attention!

In some other books, you might find an alternative definition of the standard inner product in \mathbb{C}^n where the first argument is the complex conjugated one.

Note that $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ is always a real number with ≥ 0 such it gives us indeed a length. Again, we find the important property: $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{o}$.

$$\hookrightarrow \|\cdot\| : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \rightsquigarrow (N1), (N2), (N3)$$

Hence, $\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}$ is well-defined and the norm $\|\cdot\|$ has the same properties as in \mathbb{R}^n , see Proposition 6.19 below.

Proposition 6.18.

The standard inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathbb{C}^n \times \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ fulfils the following: For all vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, one has

- (S1) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle > 0$ for $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{o}$, (positive definite)
- (S2) $\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y} \rangle$, (additive)
- (S3) $\langle \lambda \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \lambda \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$, (homogeneous) } (linear)
- (S4) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \overline{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$. (conjugate symmetric)

Not linear in the second argument!
 $\langle \mathbf{x}, \lambda \mathbf{y} \rangle \stackrel{(S1)}{=} \overline{\langle \lambda \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \stackrel{(S3)}{=} \overline{\lambda \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = \overline{\lambda} \cdot \overline{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = \overline{\lambda} \cdot \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$

Proposition 6.19. Norm

The norm $\|\cdot\| : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by using the standard inner product satisfies for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$:

- (N1) $\|\mathbf{x}\| \geq 0$, and $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{o}$, (positive definite)
- (N2) $\|\alpha \mathbf{x}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{x}\|$, (absolutely homogeneous)
- (N3) $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$. (triangle inequality).

Recall: $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ standard inner product in \mathbb{R}^n

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle &= \langle \mathbf{x}, A^T \mathbf{y} \rangle = \sum_i x_i (A^T \mathbf{y})_i \\ \sum_{k=1}^n (A\mathbf{x})_k y_k &= \sum_{k,i} a_{ki} x_i y_k = \sum_{k,i} x_i a_{ki} y_k = \sum_i x_i (A^T)_{ik} y_k \end{aligned}$$

$$\left(\begin{matrix} (A^T)_{ik} = (A)_{ki} \\ = a_{ki} \end{matrix} \right)$$

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^n (Ax)_k \bar{y}_k$$

$$A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \rightsquigarrow A^* \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$$

Proposition & Definition 6.20. Adjoint matrix

For a given matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}, \text{ the matrix } A^* := \overline{A^T} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{a_{11}} & \cdots & \overline{a_{m1}} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \overline{a_{1n}} & \cdots & \overline{a_{mn}} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$$

there are other notations

is called the **adjoint matrix** of A . It is the uniquely determined matrix that fulfils the equation

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $y \in \mathbb{C}^m$.

Remember: $\langle x, y \rangle (= x^T \bar{y}) = \underline{y^*} x$ (switched roles)

In analogy to Proposition 6.9 (c), we get the following for complex matrices:

Proposition 6.21. Spectrum of A^*

For all $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, we have $\text{spec}(A^*) = \{\bar{\lambda} : \lambda \in \text{spec}(A)\}$.

Proof: $\det(A^* - \lambda \mathbb{1}) = \sum_{\sigma \in P_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n ((A^T)_{\sigma(i), i} - \lambda \cdot \delta_{\sigma(i), i})$
 $= \det(A^T - \bar{\lambda} \cdot \mathbb{1}) \Rightarrow \lambda \in \text{spec}(A^*)$

Some important notions:

$$\Leftrightarrow \bar{\lambda} \in \text{spec}(A^T) = \text{spec}(A)$$

Definition 6.22.

A complex matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is called

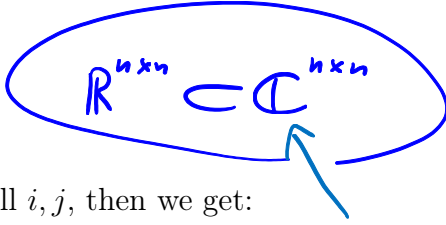
- **selfadjoint** if $A = A^*$ (complex version of "symmetric"),
- **skew-adjoint** if $A = -A^*$ (complex version of "skew-symmetric"),
- **unitary** if $AA^* = \mathbb{1} = A^*A$ (complex version of "orthogonal"),
- **normal** if $AA^* = A^*A$.

Beispiel 6.23. (a) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2i \\ -2i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A^* = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{1} & \overline{-2i} \\ \overline{-2i} & \bar{0} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2i \\ -2i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = A$

(b) $A = \begin{pmatrix} i & -1+2i \\ 1+2i & 3i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A^* = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{i} & \overline{-1+2i} \\ \overline{-1+2i} & \overline{3i} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -i & 1-2i \\ -1-2i & -3i \end{pmatrix} = -A$

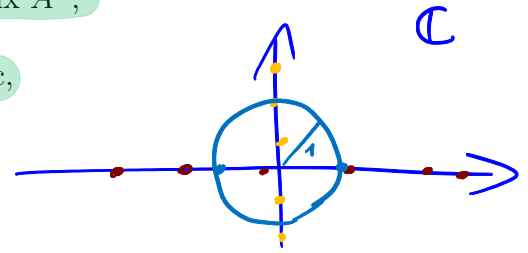
(c) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1+i & 3-2i \\ 2i & -1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A^* = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{1+i} & \overline{3-2i} \\ \overline{3-2i} & \overline{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1-i & -2i \\ 3+2i & -1 \end{pmatrix} \notin \{A, -A\}$

↳ normal? No!



If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is a real matrix, i.e. $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ for all i, j , then we get:

- adjoint matrix A^* = transpose matrix A^T ,
- selfadjoint = symmetric,
- skew-adjoint = skew-symmetric,
- unitary = orthogonal.



Proposition 6.24. Where are the eigenvalues?

- (a) If $A^* = A$ (selfadjoint), then all eigenvalues of A lie on the real line.
- (b) If $A^* = -A$ (skewadjoint), then all eigenvalues of A lie on the imaginary axis.
- (c) If $A^*A = \mathbb{1}$ (unitary), then all eigenvalues of A lie on the unit circle in \mathbb{C} .

Proof: Eigenvalue equation $Ax = \lambda x$ with $x \neq 0$ (Normalise $x \rightarrow \|x\|=1$)

$$\Rightarrow \langle Ax, x \rangle = \langle \lambda x, x \rangle = \lambda \langle x, x \rangle = \lambda \cdot \|x\|^2 = \lambda$$

(a) $\lambda = \langle Ax, x \rangle = \langle x, A^*x \rangle \stackrel{A \text{ selfadj.}}{=} \langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle x, \lambda x \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle = \bar{\lambda}$
 $\Rightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

(b) $\lambda = \langle Ax, x \rangle = \dots = -\bar{\lambda} \Rightarrow \lambda = iy$ with $y \in \mathbb{R}$

(c) $\lambda \bar{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle = \langle \lambda x, \lambda x \rangle = \langle Ax, Ay \rangle = \langle x, A^*Ay \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$
 $\stackrel{y=x}{\Rightarrow} \lambda \bar{\lambda} = 1 \Rightarrow |\lambda| = 1 \rightarrow \lambda$ lies on unit circle

6.4 Eigenvalues and similarity

Definition 6.25. Similarity

Two matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are called similar if there is an invertible matrix $S \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $A = SBS^{-1}$.

Home work
 f_A injective $\Leftrightarrow f_B$ injective

Proposition 6.26.

Similar matrices have the same characteristic polynomial and thus the same eigenvalues.

Later: change of basis

Proof: $\det(A - \lambda \mathbb{1}) = \det(SBS^{-1} - \lambda \mathbb{1}) = \det(S(B - \lambda \mathbb{1})S^{-1})$
 $\stackrel{PA(\lambda)}{=} \det(S) \cdot \det(B - \lambda \mathbb{1}) \cdot \det(S^{-1}) = \det(B - \lambda \mathbb{1}) = PB(\lambda)$

$$A = S^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & (*) \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} S \Rightarrow \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \text{ eigenvalues of } A.$$

Remark:

Later, we will see that any matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is similar to a triangular matrix.

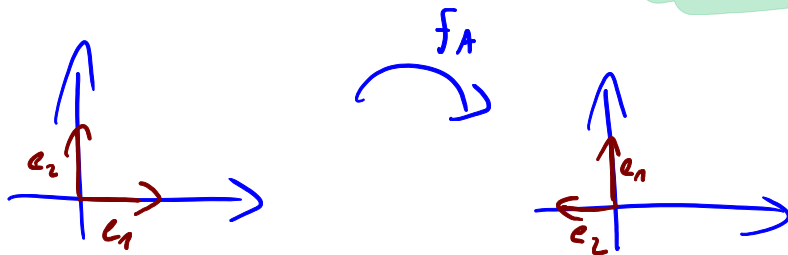
6.5 Calculating eigenvectors

$$\mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$$

Even for matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we now consider the eigenvalues in \mathbb{C} and the eigenvectors in \mathbb{C}^n . This means that we now consider all square matrices as matrices in $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$.

Example 6.27. Consider $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ with $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $p_A(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 1$ and $\text{spec}(A) = \{-i, i\}$.

The corresponding map $f_A : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ rotates \mathbf{e}_1 and \mathbf{e}_2 , and hence any vector in \mathbb{R}^2 , by an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (or 90°) in positive sense. In this sense, no line is sent to itself again. However, this is only a problem if we look at the "real" picture.

**Proposition 6.28. Spectrum is not empty**

For a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ holds:

(a) $\text{spec}(A) \neq \emptyset$.

(b) A is invertible if and only if $0 \notin \text{spec}(A)$.

Proof: (a) Fundamental theorem of algebra

(b) A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow 0 = \det(A) = \det(A - 0 \mathbb{1}) \Leftrightarrow 0 \in \text{spec}(A)$

Looking at Proposition 6.4, we see what we have to do in order to calculate the eigenvectors of a given matrix A if we already know the eigenvalues λ :

Definition 6.29. Eigenspace

The solution set of the LES $(A - \lambda \mathbb{1})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{o}$, which means $\text{Ker}(A - \lambda \mathbb{1})$, is called the eigenspace with respect to the eigenvalue λ and denoted by $\text{Eig}(\lambda)$. Each **nonzero** vector $\mathbf{x} \in \text{Eig}(\lambda) \setminus \{\mathbf{o}\}$ is an eigenvector w.r.t. the eigenvalue λ .

For all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$: $\text{Eig}(\lambda)$ is linear subspace

$\text{Eig}(\lambda) = \{\mathbf{o}\} \Leftrightarrow \lambda$ is not an eigenvalue

Example 6.30. Consider $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$: $\mathbf{x}_i \neq \mathbf{o}$ is an eigenvalue for λ_i with $i \in \{1, 2\}$ if

$$A\mathbf{x}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{x}_i, \quad \text{i.e.} \quad (A - \lambda_i\mathbb{1})\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{o}.$$

Hence, we have to solve the LES $(A - \lambda_1\mathbb{1})\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{o}$ and $(A - \lambda_2\mathbb{1})\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{o}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\lambda_1 = 4}: \quad A - \lambda_1\mathbb{1} &= \begin{pmatrix} 3 - \lambda_1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, \\ (A - \lambda_1\mathbb{1})\mathbf{x}_1 &= \mathbf{o} \end{aligned}$$

In the same manner:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\lambda_2 = 1}: \quad A - \lambda_2\mathbb{1} &= \begin{pmatrix} 3 - \lambda_2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \\ (A - \lambda_2\mathbb{1})\mathbf{x}_2 &= \mathbf{o} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 6.31. Multiplicities

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be square matrix. Then the characteristic polynomial can be written as:

$$p_A(z) = (\lambda_1 - z)^{\alpha_1} \cdot (\lambda_2 - z)^{\alpha_2} \cdots (\lambda_k - z)^{\alpha_k} \quad (6.2)$$

where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ are pairwise different. The natural number α_j above is called:

$$\alpha(\lambda_j) := \alpha_j \quad \text{algebraic multiplicity of } \lambda_j$$

and tells you how often the eigenvalue λ_j occurs in the characteristic polynomial.

We also define

$$\gamma(\lambda_j) := \dim \text{Eig}(\lambda_j) = \dim(\text{Ker}(A - \lambda_j\mathbb{1})) \quad \text{geometric multiplicity of } \lambda_j$$