

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

### Prerequisites:

- Linear Functions
- Determinants

### Definition 1: Eigenvalue, Eigenvector, Spectrum

Let  $\mathbb{V}$  be a vector space, and  $f : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$  a linear transformation. Let  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}$ .  $\vec{v}$  is an **eigenvector** of  $f$  if there is some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  so that

$$f(\vec{v}) = \lambda \cdot \vec{v}$$

The number  $\lambda$  is called the **eigenvalue** associated with  $\vec{v}$ .

(The eigenvectors are sometimes called the **characteristic** vectors of  $f$ ; the eigenvalues are sometimes called the **characteristic** values of  $f$ .)

The set of *all* eigenvalues of  $f$  is called the **spectrum** of  $f$ .

If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is a  $N \times N$  matrix, then the **eigenvalues, eigenvectors and spectrum** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  are simply those of linear transformation  $f(\vec{v}) = \boxed{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \vec{v}$ .

### Example 2: Identity map

If  $\text{Id}_{\mathbb{V}} : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$  is the identity map, then for any  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}$ ,  $\text{Id}_{\mathbb{V}}(\vec{v}) = \vec{v}$ . Thus, *every*  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}$  is an eigenvector, all with eigenvalue 1.

### Example 3: Diagonal Matrices

Suppose  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_N \end{bmatrix}$ , and let  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  be multiplication-by- $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ . Thus, if

$$\text{if } \mathbf{e}_n = \left( \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{(n-1)}, \overbrace{1, 0, \dots, 0}^N \right),$$

$$\text{then } f(\mathbf{e}_n) = \boxed{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \mathbf{e}_n = a_n \mathbf{e}_n$$

Thus,  $\mathbf{e}_n$  is an eigenvector of  $f$ , with eigenvalue  $a_n$ .

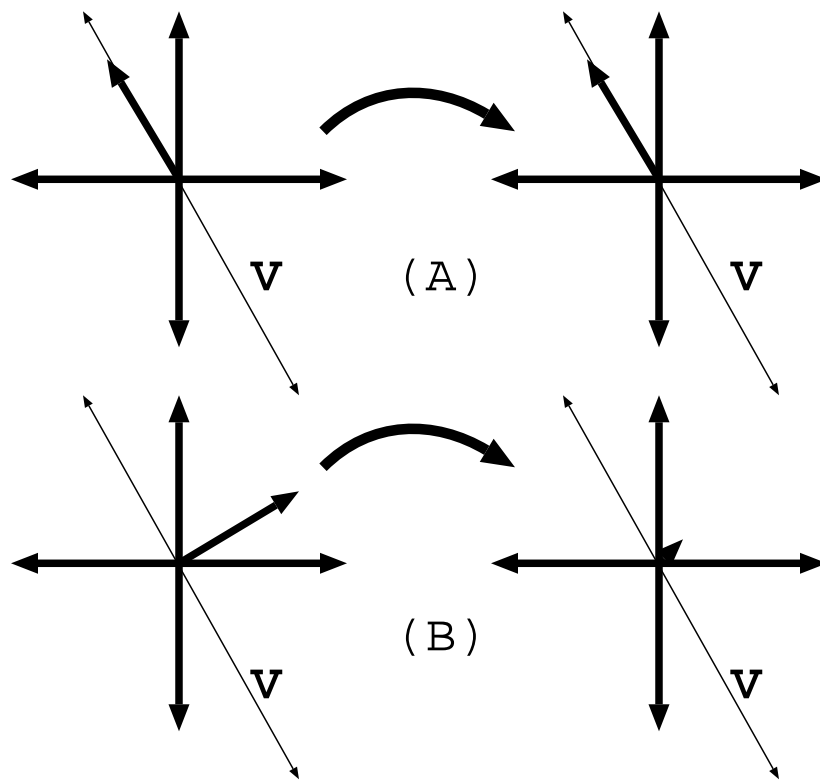


Figure 1: The Eigenvectors of projection

**Example 4: Orthogonal Projection**

Let  $\mathbb{V} \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  be some subspace, and let  $\mathbf{pr}_{\mathbb{V}} : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  be the **orthogonal projection** onto  $\mathbb{V}$ .

- For every  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}$ ,  $\mathbf{pr}_{\mathbb{V}}(\vec{v}) = \vec{v}$ , so  $\vec{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{pr}_{\mathbb{V}}$ , with eigenvalue 1. (see **Part (A)** of Figure 1 on the facing page)
- For every  $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{V}^{\perp}$ ,  $\mathbf{pr}_{\mathbb{V}}(\vec{w}) = 0$ , so  $\vec{w}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{pr}_{\mathbb{V}}$ , with eigenvalue 0. (see **Part (B)** of Figure 1 on the preceding page)

**Example 5: Reflection**

Let  $\mathbb{V} \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  be some subspace, and let  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  be the **reflection** across  $\mathbb{V}$ .

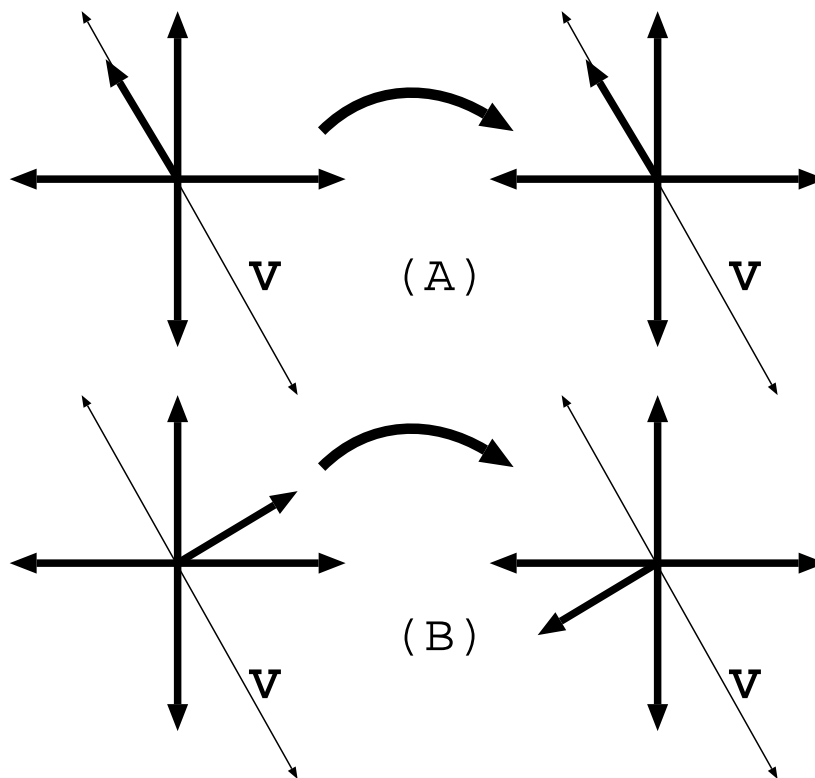


Figure 2: The Eigenvectors of reflection

- For every  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}$ ,  $f(\vec{v}) = \vec{v}$ , so  $\vec{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $f$ , with eigenvalue 1. (see **Part (A)** of Figure 2)
- For every  $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{V}^{\perp}$ ,  $f(\vec{w}) = -\vec{w}$ , so  $\vec{w}$  is an eigenvector of  $f$ , with eigenvalue -1. (see **Part (B)** of Figure 2)

**Example 6:** *Permutation*

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$  be the function corresponding to multiplication by the matrix

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and let  $\vec{v} = (1, -1, 1, -1)$ . Then  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \vec{v} = -\vec{v}$ , so  $\vec{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $f$  with eigenvalue  $-1$ .

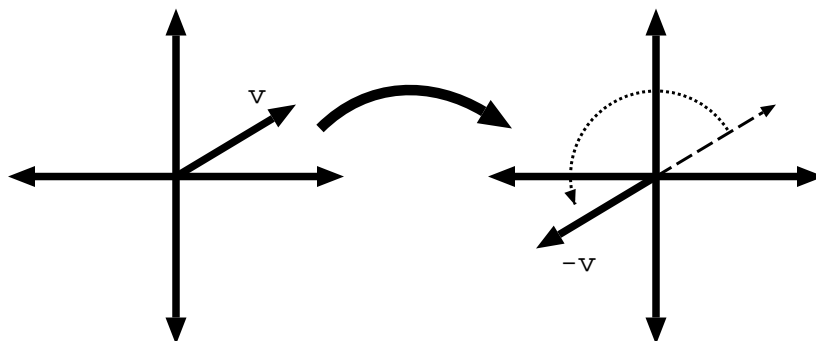


Figure 3: The Eigenvectors of rotation

**Example 7:** *Rotation*

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be **rotation by 180 degrees**. Then for every  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $f(\vec{v}) = -\vec{v}$ , so *every* element of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is an eigenvector of  $f$ , all with eigenvalue  $-1$ . (see Figure 3)

**Definition 8:** *Eigenspace*

Suppose that  $f : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$  is a linear transformation, and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is an eigenvalue of  $f$ . The **eigenspace** of  $\lambda$  and  $f$  is the set of *all eigenvectors* of  $f$  which have  $\lambda$  as their eigenvalue:

$$\mathbb{E}_\lambda(f) = \{\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}; f(\vec{v}) = \lambda \cdot \vec{v}\}$$

**Proposition 9:** If  $f : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$  is a linear transformation, and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is an eigenvalue of  $f$ , then the eigenspace of  $f$  and  $\lambda$  is a **linear subspace**

**Proof:** Suppose  $\vec{v}$  and  $\vec{w}$  are  $\lambda$ -eigenvectors, and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . We want to show that  $\vec{v} + \vec{w}$  and  $r\vec{v}$  are also  $\lambda$ -eigenvectors. But

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) &= f(\vec{v}) + f(\vec{w}) = \lambda\vec{v} + \lambda\vec{w} = \lambda(\vec{v} + \vec{w}), \\ \text{and } f(r\vec{v}) &= r.f(\vec{v}) = r.\lambda\vec{v} = \lambda.(r\vec{v}). \end{aligned}$$

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□ [Proposition 9]

**Example 10:** *Orthogonal Projection*

Let  $\mathbb{V} \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  be some subspace, and let  $\text{pr}_{\mathbb{V}} : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  be the **orthogonal projection** onto  $\mathbb{R}^N$ .

The eigenvalues of  $\text{pr}_{\mathbb{V}}$  are 0 and 1.

- The **eigenspace** corresponding to 1 is  $\mathbb{V}$ .
- The **eigenspace** corresponding to 0 is  $\mathbb{V}^{\perp}$ .

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There is a close relationship between eigenvalues and determinants.

**Theorem 11:** Let  $f : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$  be a linear transformation, and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . The following are equivalent:

1.  $\lambda$  is an *eigenvalue* of  $f$ .
2.  $f(\vec{v}) - \lambda\vec{v} = 0$  for some nonzero  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}$ .
3. The linear transformation  $(f - \lambda.\text{Id}_{\mathbb{V}})$  has a **nontrivial kernel**, and is therefore **not invertible**.
4. The linear transformation  $(f - \lambda.\text{Id}_{\mathbb{V}})$  has **zero determinant**.

Thus, if  $f$  corresponds to multiplication by the matrix  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ , then, for any  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\left( \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } f \right) \iff \left( \det \left( \boxed{\mathbf{A}} - \lambda.\boxed{\mathbf{Id}} \right) = 0. \right)$$

**Proof:** Exercise

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□ [Theorem 11]

Now, for any fixed real number  $\lambda$ , the determinant  $\det(\lambda.\boxed{\mathbf{Id}} - \boxed{\mathbf{A}})$  is another real number. This allows us to define a function from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ ...

**Definition 12:** *Characteristic Polynomial*

Suppose  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is an  $N \times N$  matrix. Define the function  $c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as follows: for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x) = \det \left( x \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{Id}} - \boxed{\mathbf{A}} \right)$$

It turns out that this function is a *polynomial* in the variable  $x$  (convince yourself of this with some examples). It is called the **characteristic polynomial** of the matrix  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ .

Thus, the preceding theorem can be rephrased:

**Corollary 13:** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  be a linear transformation determined by multiplication by the matrix  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ . Then for any  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\left( \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } f \right) \iff \left( \lambda \text{ is a root of } c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x). \right)$$

The **multiplicity** of eigenvalue  $\lambda$  is its multiplicity as a root of the characteristic polynomial —ie. the number of times the factor  $(x - \lambda)$  divides  $c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x)$ .

**Example 14:** *The Identity Matrix*

The characteristic polynomial of the  $N \times N$  identity matrix is given:

$$\begin{aligned} c_{\boxed{\mathbf{Id}_N}}(x) &= \det \left( x \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \det \left( \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & x & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & x & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & x \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \det \begin{bmatrix} x-1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & x-1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & x-1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & x-1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (x-1)^N \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we can see that the only eigenvalue of  $\boxed{\mathbf{Id}_N}$  is 1, and this eigenvalue has **multiplicity**  $N$ . Thus, the **spectrum** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{Id}_N}$  is the singleton set  $\{1\}$ .

**Example 15:** *Reflection*

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is **reflection across the horizontal axis**. Thus,  $f$  has matrix

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The characteristic polynomial of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is thus:

$$\begin{aligned} c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x) &= \det(x \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{Id}} - \boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \\ &= \det \begin{bmatrix} x-1 & 0 \\ 0 & x+1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (x-1) \cdot (x+1) \\ &= x^2 - 1. \end{aligned}$$

The only eigenvalues of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  are therefore  $+1$  and  $-1$ ; each having **multiplicity** 1. The **spectrum** of  $f$  is the set  $\{+1, -1\}$ .

**Example 16:** *Upper - Triangular Matrix*

Suppose that  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is a **diagonal matrix** of the form:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & * & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & a_2 & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 & * & \dots & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_N \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x) &= \det \left( x \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & * & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & a_2 & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 & * & \dots & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_N \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \det \begin{bmatrix} x-a_1 & * & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & x-a_2 & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & 0 & x-a_3 & * & \dots & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & x-a_N \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$= (x - a_1) \cdot (x - a_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (x - a_N)$$

Thus, the **eigenvalues** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  are just  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N$ . The **multiplicity** of each eigenvalue is simply the number of times it appears in this list. The **spectrum** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is the set  $\{a_1, \dots, a_N\}$  (where each element only appears once in the set, even if it has multiplicity greater than 1).

(Of course, exactly the same result is true for *lower* diagonal matrices.)

**Example 17:** If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 1/6 \\ 0 & 3 & \sqrt{2} \\ 0 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ , then the **spectrum** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is the set  $\{3, -4\}$ . The eigenvalue 3 has **multiplicity** 2, while the eigenvalue  $-4$  has **multiplicity** 1.

**Example 18:** *Block-Diagonal Matrix*

Suppose  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  has “block decomposition” so that the “diagonal blocks” are all *square* and nonzero, and all other blocks are *zero*. In other words

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{A_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \boxed{A_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \boxed{A_3} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \boxed{A_N} \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $\boxed{A_1}, \boxed{A_2}, \dots, \boxed{A_N}$  are *square* matrices (although possible of different sizes). Then

$$c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x) = c_{\boxed{A_1}}(x) \cdot c_{\boxed{A_2}}(x) \cdot \dots \cdot c_{\boxed{A_N}}(x)$$

**Proof:** Exercise. □

**Example 19:**

$$\text{If } \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 7 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \sqrt{5} & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \pi & 23 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{\mathbf{B}} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & \boxed{\mathbf{C}} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\text{where } \boxed{\mathbf{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{\mathbf{C}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \sqrt{5} & -5 \\ 0 & \pi & 23 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix},$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{then } c_{\boxed{A}}(x) &= c_{\boxed{B}}(x) \cdot c_{\boxed{C}}(x) \\ &= \left[ (x-1) \cdot (x-7) - 5 \cdot 3 \right] \cdot \left[ (x-1)(x-\pi)(x-\sqrt{2}) \right] \end{aligned}$$

**Example 20:** *Companion Matrices, Rational Canonical Form*

$$\text{If } \boxed{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & a_0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & a_1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & a_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & a_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & a_N \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\text{then } c_{\boxed{A}}(x) = x^{N+1} + a_N x^N + a_{N-1} x^{N-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

**Proof:** Exercise.

□

The matrix  $\boxed{A}$  is called the **companion matrix** of the polynomial  $p(x) = x^{N+1} + a_N x^N + a_{N-1} x^{N-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ .

Suppose  $p_1(x)$ ,  $p_2(x)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $p_K(x)$  are polynomials, with companion matrices  $\boxed{A_1}$ ,  $\boxed{A_2}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\boxed{A_K}$ , and

$$\boxed{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{A_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \boxed{A_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \boxed{A_3} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \boxed{A_K} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{then } c_{\boxed{A}} = p_1(x) \cdot p_2(x) \cdot \dots \cdot p_K(x).$$

A matrix of this type is said to be in **rational canonical form**.

(Although it is beyond the scope of this course, a powerful theorem in linear algebra says that *every* matrix is similar to a unique matrix in rational canonical form.)

**Example 21:** *Jordan Matrix*

Let  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  be an  $N \times N$  matrix of the form:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Then } c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x) = (x - \lambda)^N.$$

**Proof:** Exercise.

A matrix of this type is called a **Jordan Matrix**. Note that the only **eigenvalue** of this matrix is  $\lambda$ , and  $\lambda$  has **multiplicity**  $N$ . However, if  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  is the linear transformation associated with multiplication by  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ , then the  $\lambda$ -eigenspace of  $f$  associated with  $\lambda$  is only *one*-dimensional, *not*  $N$ -dimensional, as you might expect.

This shows that the *eigenspace-dimension* of an eigenvalue is not necessarily the same as the *multiplicity* of that eigenvalue.

**Example 22:** *Jordan Canonical Form*

If  $\boxed{A_1}$ ,  $\boxed{A_2}$ , ...,  $\boxed{A_K}$  are Jordan matrices, with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_K$ , respectively, and

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{A_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \boxed{A_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \boxed{A_3} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \boxed{A_K} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{then } c_{\boxed{\mathbf{A}}}(x) = (x - \lambda_1)^{N_1} \cdot (x - \lambda_2)^{N_2} \cdot \dots \cdot (x - \lambda_K)^{N_K}$$

A matrix like  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is said to be in **Jordan canonical form**.

(Although it is beyond the scope of this course, a powerful theorem in linear algebra says that *any* matrix whose characteristic polynomial completely factors is similar to a unique matrix in Jordan canonical form.)

**Remark 23:** The **eigenvalues** of a linear transformation  $f : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$  depend only on  $f$ , but the **characteristic polynomial** for  $f$  seems to depend upon the **matrix representation**  $\boxed{\mathbf{F}}$ . If  $\mathbb{V} = \mathbb{R}^N$ , then there is a “natural” way to represent any linear transformation as a matrix. However, if  $\mathbb{V}$  is an

abstract vector space, then the matrix representation  $\boxed{F}$  depends upon the choice of *basis* (see the material on **Matrix Representations**) —hence, might not the characteristic polynomial also depend on the choice of basis?

In fact, it does not; if  $\boxed{F}$  and  $\widetilde{\boxed{F}}$  are two distinct matrix representations of the same transformation  $f$ , then  $\boxed{F}$  and  $\widetilde{\boxed{F}}$  have the same characteristic polynomial. (This fact will be verified in the section on **Similarity**.)

Hence, we can define the **characteristic polynomial of the linear transformation**  $f$  to be the characteristic polynomial of *any* (and hence, *every*) matrix representation of  $f$ .

**Proposition 24:** *Properties of the Characteristic Polynomial*

Let  $\boxed{A}$  be an  $N \times N$  matrix. Then:

1. The **degree** of  $c_{\boxed{A}}(x)$  is  $N$ ; in other words,

$$c_{\boxed{A}}(x) = b_N x^N + b_{N-1} x^{N-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

for some coefficients  $b_N, b_{N-1}, \dots, b_1, b_0$ . Furthermore.....

2.  $b_N = 1$ , always.
3.  $b_0 = (-1)^N \cdot \det(\boxed{A})$ , always.
4.  $b_{N-1} = -\text{trace}(\boxed{A})$ , always.
5. Furthermore, suppose that the characteristic polynomial **completely factors**:

$$c_{\boxed{A}}(x) = (x - \lambda_1)^{N_1} \cdot (x - \lambda_2)^{N_2} \cdot \dots \cdot (x - \lambda_K)^{N_K}.$$

$$\text{Then } b_0 = (-1)^N \lambda_1^{N_1} \cdot \lambda_2^{N_2} \cdot \dots \cdot \lambda_K^{N_K},$$

$$\text{and } b_{N-1} = -N_1 \cdot \lambda_1 - N_2 \cdot \lambda_2 - \dots - N_K \cdot \lambda_K.$$

6. In other words if  $\boxed{A}$  has eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_K$ , with multiplicities  $N_1, \dots, N_K$ , respectively, and  $N_1 + N_2 + \dots + N_K = N$ , then

$$\det(\boxed{A}) = \lambda_1^{N_1} \cdot \lambda_2^{N_2} \cdot \dots \cdot \lambda_K^{N_K},$$

$$\text{and } \text{trace}(\boxed{A}) = N_1 \cdot \lambda_1 + N_2 \cdot \lambda_2 + \dots + N_k \cdot \lambda_K$$

$$\text{(where } \text{trace}(\boxed{A}) = a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{NN}\text{)}$$

**Proof:**

**Proof of Part 3:**  $c_{\boxed{A}}(x) = b_N x^N + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$ , therefore  $c_{\boxed{A}}(0) = b_0$ .  
But by definition

$$\begin{aligned} c_{\boxed{A}}(0) &= \det \left( 0 \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{Id}} - \boxed{A} \right) \\ &= \det \left( -\boxed{A} \right) \\ &= (-1)^N \det \left( \boxed{A} \right) \end{aligned}$$

**Proof of Part 5:** In this case,

$$\begin{aligned} c_{\boxed{A}}(0) &= (0 - \lambda_1)^{N_1} \cdot (0 - \lambda_2)^{N_2} \cdot \dots \cdot (0 - \lambda_K)^{N_K} \\ &= (-1)^{(N_1 + N_2 + \dots + N_K)} \cdot \lambda_1^{N_1} \cdot \lambda_2^{N_2} \cdot \dots \cdot \lambda_K^{N_K} \\ &= (-1)^N \cdot \lambda_1^{N_1} \cdot \lambda_2^{N_2} \cdot \dots \cdot \lambda_K^{N_K} \end{aligned}$$

**Part 1, Part 2** and **Part 3** are left as **exercises** (simple polynomial algebra). **Part 6** follows immediately from **Part 3, Part 4** and **Part 5**.

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□ [Proposition 24]