

## 27 The JCF, and applications

### 27.1 Recall: defective matrices

In Lecture 26 we saw that the *algebraic multiplicity* of an eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , is the multiplicity of the associated root in the characteristic polynomial. We denote this  $\mu(\lambda)$ . This eigenvalue's *geometric multiplicity*,  $\gamma(\lambda)$  is the number of linearly independent eigenvectors associated with it. Always,  $\gamma(\lambda) \leq \mu(\lambda)$  (see Exercise 27.1). If  $\gamma(\lambda) < \mu(\lambda)$ , the eigenvalue is *degenerate*. Moreover, the matrix is *defective*: that is, it does not have a full set of linearly independent eigenvectors.

If a matrix,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is *not* defective, then we say it is *diagonalisable*. This means that, since it has  $m$  linearly independent eigenvectors,  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m\}$ , we can form the matrix  $X = (\mathbf{x}_1 | \dots | \mathbf{x}_m)$ , and thus write

$$A = X^{-1} \Lambda X,$$

where  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrices whose entries are the eigenvalues of  $A$

As we saw in class, this diagonalisation – when it exists – is a useful theoretical tool. But often, of course, it does not exist.

### 27.2 A degenerate matrix

The simplest, and most important, example of a degenerate matrix is

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 1 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

It is easy to see that its only eigenvalue is  $\alpha$ , but that  $\mu(\alpha) = 2$  and  $\gamma(\alpha) = 1$ . Similarly, the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

is degenerate. However, it is an easy matrix to work with: for example we can tell just by looking at it what the eigenvalues are, and what their multiplicities are.

### 27.3 Recall: The Jordan canonical form

The JCF is a similarity transform that reduces a matrix to a block-diagonal one. I don't reproduce it here: you can see it in the notes from Lecture 26. But we can not get a sense of what it means.

- Each of the bidiagonal matrices  $J_{ik}$  is associated with a single eigenvector of the matrix.
- Each of the matrices  $J_i$  is associated with a single eigenvalue,  $\lambda_i$ ; and  $J_i$  has  $\mu(\lambda_i)$  rows and columns.

Every matrix (even degenerate ones), can be written in the form  $A = X^{-1} J X$ . This has many applications, e.g., we can see immediately that if a matrix has distinct eigenvalues, then it is diagonalisable.

### 27.4 General convergence

Let  $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ .

**Definition 27.1.** The *General convergence factor* is

$$\phi = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left( \max_{\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m} \frac{\|\mathbf{d}^{(k)}\|}{\|\mathbf{d}^{(0)}\|} \right)^{1/k}.$$

We can show that  $\phi = \rho(G)$ . This makes use of Exercise 27.2.

### 27.5 Exercises

**Exercise 27.1.** It is a fact (which can be established with some tedium from the usual (Laplace) expansion for the determinant) that if the matrix  $M$  is partitioned as

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

then  $\det(M) = \det(A) \det(D)$ . Use this to show that the geometric multiplicity of an eigenvalue is less than or equal to its algebraic multiplicity.

**Exercise 27.2.** (Tricky.) Use the Jordan canonical form to show that, for any subordinate matrix norm,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|A^k\|^{1/k} = \rho(A).$$