

**Numerical Linear Algebra**  
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**Lecture - 14**  
**Eigen values & Eigenvector – II**

Hello friends, I welcome you to my lecture on Eigen values and Eigen vectors, the second lecture on this topic. So, in the in this lecture the first theorem which we are going to do is, the Cayley Hamilton Theorem. This theorem is very important in the discussion on Eigen values and Eigen vectors; it says that every square matrix satisfies it is on characteristic equation.



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**Cayley Hamilton Theorem**

Every square matrix satisfies its own characteristic equation.

**Example:** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & -2 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ , then the characteristic equation of

A is  $-\lambda^3 + 10\lambda^2 - 28\lambda + 24 = 0$ . Hence  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{12} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ .

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$$A^n + a_{n-1}A^{n-1} + a_{n-2}A^{n-2} + \dots + a_1A + a_0I = 0$$

Let  $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$

Its characteristic equation is given by  $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

We can write

$$|\lambda I - A| = (-1)^n |A - \lambda I|$$

The characteristic equation of A is given by

$$|\lambda I - A| = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^n + a_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + a_{n-2}\lambda^{n-2} + \dots + a_1\lambda + a_0 = 0$$

So, if you have a square matrix, let us say A equal to a i j of order n. Then we know that its characteristic equation is given by determinant of A minus lambda I equal to 0. Now when you explain this determinant you get a polynomial equation in lambda of degree n. So, the theorem says that if you replace lambda by the square matrix A in the equation the constant; of course, will be then presented by the constant times, the identity matrix of order n.

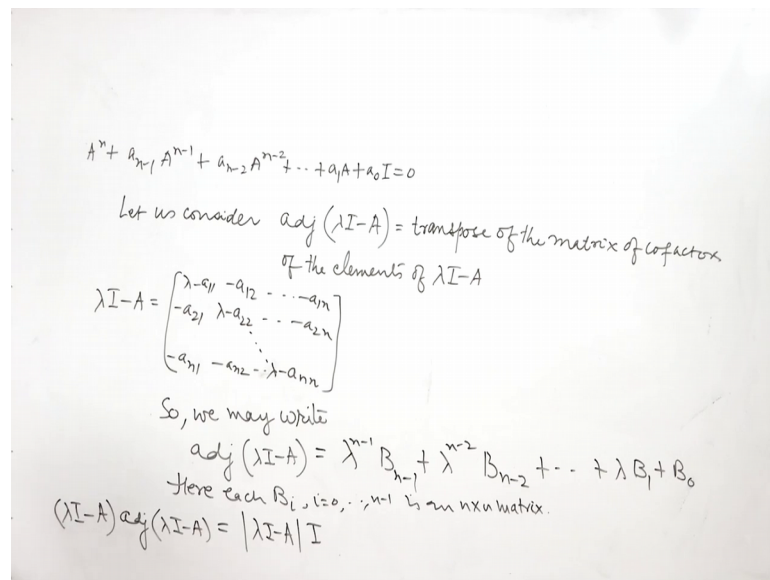
So, then that equation, when the equation, characteristic equation among its satisfied for the matrix A. So, suppose the characteristic equation we can write we can write for convenience. I will write lambda I minus A this is equal to minus 1 to the power n determinant of this, I am doing to make the coefficient of the lambda to the power n equal to 1, because in the in the, when you explain the determinant mod of A minus I mean determinant A minus lambda I, then the coefficient of the lambda to the power n is minus 1.

So, in order to prove the Cayley Hamilton Theorem, we will like to have the coefficient of lambda to the power n equal to 1 for a convenience. So, we write a determinant of the matrix lambda I minus A which is nothing, but minus of A minus lambda I. So, minus 1 will be the, when you take the determinants is minus 1 to the power n will be there. So, what we say, is that when you explain with this determinants let us. So, let us focus on, so lambda I minus A, the characteristic equation lambda A minus lambda I equal to 0 will give determinant of lambda I minus A equal to 0.

So, I can take the characteristic equation of  $A$ , which implies when you expand it  $\lambda^n$  to the power  $n$  plus  $a_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1}$  to the power  $n-1$  plus  $a_{n-2} \lambda^{n-2}$  to the power  $n-2$  and so on a  $1 \lambda$  plus the constant  $a_0$ . This is equal to 0. So, this is the characteristic equation. The theorem says that what we have is the following. The theorem says that  $A^n$  replace  $\lambda$  by  $A$ . So,  $a_{n-1} A^{n-1}$  to the power  $n-1$   $a_{n-2} A^{n-2}$  to the power  $n-2$  and so on a  $1 \lambda$  a  $1 A$  plus  $a_0 I$ .

Now we cannot add a scalar these are  $m$  by  $n$  matrices. So, we multiply  $a_0 I$  identity matrix of order  $n$ . So,  $a_0 I$  this is equal to 0. We are going to prove that this equation puts, and therefore, from here we can say that every square matrix satisfied this characteristic question, this is what we are going to prove. So, if we can prove this, we will have to prove the Cayley Hamilton Theorem; that is every matrix satisfies this characteristic questions. So, let us begin from here. We shall be considering the characteristic question determinant  $\lambda I - A$  equal to 0 with gives us this equation.

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Now, what we do is, let us consider the adjoint of the matrix  $\lambda I - A$ , the adjoint of the matrix  $\lambda I - A$  is the matrix transpose of the matrix of cofactors of the elements of  $\lambda I - A$ . It is the transpose of  $\lambda I - A$ . Now let us look at the matrix  $\lambda I - A$ ,  $\lambda I - A$  is looks like this from the identity

matrix after multiplying by lambda you are subtracting A. So, diagonal elements will all be subtracted from lambda.

So, we get  $\lambda - a_{11}$ ,  $\lambda - a_{22}$  and so on,  $\lambda - a_{nn}$ . And here we get  $-a_{12}$ ,  $-a_{1n}$ ,  $-a_{21}$  and so on  $-a_{2n}$ , and here we get  $-a_{n1}$ ,  $-a_{n2}$  and so on,  $\lambda - a_{nn}$ , this is  $\lambda I - A$ . Now if you take the mat cofactor of any element here what you get is an  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix, whose determinant will give you a polynomial in lambda of degree  $n-1$ .

So, what we can say is the following. So, we can write adjoint of  $\lambda I - A$ . Adjoint of  $\lambda I - A$  is the transport of the matrix of cofactors of the elements of A, each cofactor here gives you a polynomial in lambda of degree  $n-1$ . So, adjoint of  $\lambda I - A$ , we can write as  $B_{n-1}$ . Let me write matrix here  $\lambda I - A$  to the power  $n$  scalar first, let us letters write a scalar first. So,  $(\lambda I - A)^n = \lambda^n I - B_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1} + B_{n-2} \lambda^{n-2} - \dots + B_1 \lambda - B_n$ .

sorry not like this  $B_{n-1}$  like this,  $B_{n-1}$  and then  $B_{n-2}$  and so on  $\lambda B_1 + B_n$ , because the cofactors are polynomials in lambda of degree  $n-1$ . Now here each  $B_i$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, is an  $n \times n$  matrix. Now we know that if you mat multiply A matrix by its adjoint, but do that is determinant of the matrix into identity matrix. So, let us use that, so adjoint of  $B_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1} - \dots + B_1 \lambda - B_n$  into  $\lambda I - A$  when you multiply  $\lambda I - A$  by adjoint of  $\lambda I - A$ , what is that is determinant of  $\lambda I - A$  into identity matrix. So, let us write this.

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

$$B_{n-1} = I \quad \times A^n$$

$$B_{n-2} - A B_{n-1} = a_{n-1} I \quad \times A^{n-1}$$

$$B_{n-3} - A B_{n-2} = a_{n-2} I \quad \times A^{n-2}$$

$$\dots$$

$$B_0 - A B_1 = a_1 I \quad \times A$$

$$-A B_0 = a_0 I \quad I$$

$$A^n B_{n-1} + A^{n-1} B_{n-2} - A^n B_{n-1} + A^{n-2} B_{n-3} - A^{n-1} B_{n-2} + \dots + A B_0 - A B_1$$

$$0 = A^n + a_{n-1} A^{n-1} + a_{n-2} A^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 A + a_0 I \quad - A B_0 = A^n + a_{n-1} A^{n-1} + a_{n-2} A^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 A + a_0 I$$

Now  $\lambda I - A$  times adjoint of  $\lambda I - A$  is  $\lambda$  to the power  $n$  minus  $B_{n-1}$   $\lambda$  to the power  $n-2$   $B_{n-2}$  and so on,  $\lambda B_1$  plus  $B_0$ , and this is equal to determinant  $\lambda I - A$ , which is  $\Delta$ , which we wrote, which we have written as  $\lambda^n + a_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1} + a_{n-2} \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 \lambda + a_0$  multiplied by identity matrix. Now let us equate the corresponding powers  $\lambda$  on both sides.

So, if we do that, the coefficient of  $\lambda^n$  here is  $I$  into  $B_{n-1}$ . So, we get  $B_{n-1}$  equal to the coefficient of  $\lambda^n$  here is  $I$ . So, we have coefficient of  $\lambda^n$ , here is  $I$ , and then we get  $\lambda^n$  is  $I$ , ya. Now the coefficient of  $\lambda^{n-1}$ , the coefficient of  $\lambda^{n-1}$  is how much, when you multiply  $\lambda I$  to this, you get  $\lambda^{n-1}$ .

So,  $B_{n-2} - A B_{n-1}$ , this equal to  $a_{n-1} I$ . Now we coefficient of  $\lambda^{n-2}$  if you find, then what will get  $\lambda^{n-3}$  into  $B_{n-3}$  multiplied by this. So,  $B_{n-3} - A B_{n-2}$ , and this equal to  $a_{n-2} I$ . So, this may be go on. Then we shall have, when you multiply  $\lambda I$  by  $\lambda B_1$ , will get the coefficient of  $\lambda^2$ . We can write the coefficient of  $\lambda$ . So, coefficient of  $\lambda$  will be  $-A B_1$  and then  $B_0$ .

So,  $B$  naught minus  $A B^{-1}$  and coefficient of  $\lambda$  where is a  $1 I$ . Then we can equate the constant both sides; that is constant, not constant, let me say the term which is free from  $\lambda$ . So,  $B$  naught is equal to  $A$  naught  $I$ . So, we have these equations, they are  $n + 1$  equations. Now what we do? We multiply the first equation by  $A$  to the power  $n$  second equation by  $A$  to the power  $n - 1$ . So, we multiply by  $A$  to the power  $n - 1$   $A$  to the power  $n - 2$  and so on. This is by  $A$  and this by  $I$ , and that is we can do pre multiplication.

So,  $A$  to the power  $n B^{n-1}$ ,  $A$  to the power  $n B^{n-1}$   $A$ , and then right hand side will be  $A$  to the power  $n$ . Here left hand side we are writing first, so  $A^{n-1}$  when we multiply here  $A^{n-2}$ , we have  $n$  minus, sorry  $A^{n-1} B^{n-2}$  and then we get minus  $A$  to the power  $n B^{n-1}$ . So, you can see becomes will go on cancelling, and then you will pre multiplied by  $A$  to the power  $n - 2$ . So,  $A$  to the power  $n - 2 B^{n-3}$ , and then we get minus  $A$  to the power  $n - 1 B^{n-2}$ , and we can go on like this, and then let us multiply the last, but 1 equation. So, plus  $A B$  naught  $A B$  naught minus  $A^2 B$ , then we have minus  $A B$  naught.

And right hand side will give you  $A$  to the power  $n$  into  $I$ . So,  $A$  to the power  $n$  plus  $A^{n-1} a$  to the power  $n - 1$ , and then  $A^{n-2} a$  to the power  $n - 2$  and so on  $A^{n-1} a$  plus  $A$  naught  $I$ . Now we can see  $A^{n-1} B^{n-1}$  will cancel with this,  $A^{n-2} B^{n-2}$  will cancel with  $A^{n-1} B^{n-2}$  with this and so on. So, the terms will go on cancelling  $A$  last  $B$  last in the end, at the end  $A B$  naught will cancel with  $A B$  naught, so left hand side becomes 0.

So, 0 equal to  $A$  to the power  $n$  plus  $A^{n-1} a$  to the power  $n - 1$   $A^{n-2} a$  to the power  $n - 2$  and so on,  $A^{n-1} \lambda$   $A$  plus  $A$  naught  $I$ . So, we have this equation. So, that is why we say that every matrix satisfies its characteristic equations. Now let us take an example on this theorem. If the size of the matrix is not very large, we can calculate the inverse of the matrix by this theorem, say let us take a 3 by 3 matrix;  $A$  equal to  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & -2 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Then what we will do is, we will find the characteristic equation for this matrix, and then use Cayley Hamilton theorem, to determine the inverse of the matrix  $A$ . So, here we are assuming the matrix  $A$  whose determinant is non zero, so that its inverse exists. So, by Cayley Hamilton Theorem we will find the inverse.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 & -A^3 + 10A - 28I + 24A^{-1} = 0 \\
 \text{or} & \quad A^{-1} \left[ A^3 - 10A + 28I \right] \\
 & \quad \text{The characteristic equation is } |A - \lambda I| = 0 \\
 & \Rightarrow -\lambda^3 + 10\lambda^2 - 28\lambda + 24 = 0 \\
 & \text{From Cayley Hamilton theorem} \\
 & \quad -A^3 + 10A^2 - 28A + 24I = 0 \\
 & \quad A^{-1}(-A^3) + 10A^{-1}(A^2) - 28A^{-1}A + 24A^{-1}I = A^{-1}0 = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$A^2 = AA = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & -2 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & -2 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 8 & -8 \\ 16 & 20 & -16 \\ -8 & -8 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, if you, the characteristic equation is determinant of A minus lambda I equal to 0. So, from the diagonal elements of the matrix A we subtract lambda, and then find the determinant of the resulting matrix. So, you can check check that, this will give you the question minus lambda cube plus 10 lambda square and then minus 28 lambda plus 24 equal to 0. So, this is the characteristic question. Now you can see we have a 3 by 3 questions, so its characteristic question is a polynomial in lambda of degree 3. Now every matrix satisfy its characteristic questions. So, from Cayley Hamilton Theorem we have, we can replace lambda by A cube, so by A.

So, minus A cube plus 10 A square minus 28 A plus 24, we multiply by I equal to 0. This right hand side is a 0 matrix. Here this 0 is a 0 scalar. Now what we will do in order to determine the inverse of A, let us pre multiply this equation by A inverse. So, A inverse minus A cube plus 10 times A inverse A square minus 28 A inverse A plus 24 A inverse I equal to A inverse 0. Now any matrix multiplied by 0 matrix is 0 matrix, so we get 0 matrix here. Now this is, this A cube is, can be regarded as A into A square.

So, A inverse into A is identity matrix identity, identity into A square will give A square and minus 1 is A scalar, we can write outside this matrix, so minus A square we get, and then we get similarly 10 A, A inverse A is identity, identity into A is A. So, then minus 28 I minus 28 I, this identity matrix, and then plus 24 A inverse equal to 0, A inverse I is A inverse, or we can say a inverse is equal to, we can transfer the terms with the site, so 1 by 24 A square minus 10 A plus 28 I. So, big for the given matrix A we can find A

square. So, A square is equal to A into a. So, I can write it as 3 1 1 2 4 minus 2, then minus 1 minus 1 3, and then here 3 1 1, then 2 4 minus 2, and then we have minus 1 minus 1 3 yes.

Student: Why is last set is minus 1.

[FL] sorry, this is, this is minus 1 here. So, what we have here minus 1. So, when we multiply the two matrices what we get is. So, first column be multiplied to the all the rows of the A matrix to get the first column. So, 3 into 3 9, 9 plus 2 11, 11 plus 1 12, then 3 into 2 is 6, and then 4 into 2 8. So, 6 plus 8 14, 14 plus 2 16, then we have minus 3, we have minus 2, so minus 5, minus 3 is minus 8. And then, so this is first column. Now go to the second column.

So, 3 into 1 3, 3 plus 4 7, 7 plus 1 8, and then 2 plus 16 18, 18 plus 2 20, and then we have minus 1 minus 4, so minus 5, minus 3 means minus 8. And then we have third column, so minus 3 minus 2 minus 5, minus 5 minus 3 is minus 8. Then we have minus 2 minus 8 minus 10, minus 6 minus 16, then we have plus 1 plus 2, so 3, and then we have 3 3 9, 9 plus 3 12. So, this is A square ok. From is square A square, we subtract 10 times a matrix. So, 10 times A means, you multiply all the entries of a matrix by 10. So, let us find A inverse here. So, so this is A square right.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 & -A^2 + 10A - 28I + 24A^{-1} = 0 \\
 \text{or} \\
 & A^{-1} = \frac{1}{24} [A^2 - 10A + 28I] \\
 & A^{-1} = \frac{1}{24} \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 12 & 8 & -8 \\ 16 & 20 & -16 \\ -8 & -8 & 12 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -30 & -10 & 10 \\ -20 & -40 & 20 \\ 10 & 10 & -30 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 28 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 28 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 28 \end{pmatrix} \right] \\
 & = \frac{1}{24} \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -2 & 2 \\ -4 & 8 & 4 \\ 2 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

So, A inverse equal to 1 by 24, then I write this matrix. Let me write this way. So, 12, 8, minus 8, then 16, 20, minus 16, minus 8 minus 8, 12 and then minus 10, minus 10 be



multiply, so I put minus, plus sign here. So, minus 30, minus 10 multiplying, so minus 10 plus 10, minus 20, minus 40, and then we get 20 here, then we get 10, 10 minus 30, I multiplied by minus 10, and then 28 times identity matrix. So, identity matrix of order 3 multiplied by 28. So,  $28 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Now let us add the 3 matrices and divided by 1 divided by 24.

So,  $12 - 30 - 18 - 18 + 28$ , so we get 10, then we have  $16 - 20$ , so minus 4 minus 4 plus 0, so minus 4. Then we have minus 8 plus 10 we get 2, then we have  $8 - 10 - 2$ , then we have  $20 - 40$ , so minus 20 plus 28, so we get 8, and then we have minus 8 plus 10 we get 2, and then we have a minus 8 plus 10. So, we get 2 and we have minus 16 plus 20, so 4 and then we have  $20 - 12 - 30$ . So, minus 18 plus 28, so we get 10. So, this is the bracketed expression this multiplied by 1 by 24.

So, you multiply each element of the matrix by 1 by 24 to get A inverse. So, finally, A inverse comes out to be, so  $10 \times 24$   $5 \times 12$ , then we get minus 1 by 12, then we get 1 by 12, we have minus 1 by 6, we have 1 by 3 then  $4 \times 24$ . So, 1 by 6 then  $2 \times 24$ , so 1 by 12, then 1 by 12 again and then  $10 \times 12 \times 24$ , we get  $5 \times 12$ . So, this is how we get the A inverse of the given matrix by using k Cayley Hamilton Theorem, but I, let me again remind you that this theorem can be used only for matrix, those matrices where the value of n is not large; that is the order of the matrix is not large, because we have to carry out the multiplication of the matrix with itself A square, if you did A to the matrix A to be of order 4, then you will have to find A cube and so on.

So, that is not an easy job. So, then if you want to find the inverse of a given matrix, then we use elementary row operations to reduce it to an identity matrix. So, whatever value elementary operations we do on the given matrix to reduce it to identity matrix, same elementary operations be, when we do on the identity matrix, we get the inverse of the matrix. So, we use that method. Now let us move to a result which is very important in the study of Eigen values and Eigen vectors, we have the following yeah. We will first discuss the properties of Eigen values of a special matrices we are different earlier discuss the a Hermitian matrix A, matrix is called Hermitian A is Hermitian if A is equal to a conjugate transpose.

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Suppose  $\lambda = \alpha + i\beta$   
 Then  $\bar{\lambda} = \alpha - i\beta$  so  $\alpha + i\beta = \alpha - i\beta \Rightarrow 2i\beta = 0 \Rightarrow \beta = 0$   
 Hence  $\lambda = \alpha$   
 A is Hermitian  $\Rightarrow A = A^T$   
 Let  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$   
 Then  $\bar{x}^T x = [\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \dots \bar{x}_n] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = |x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2 > 0, \text{ as } x \neq 0$   
 $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$   
 $A = -A^T$   
 $Ax = \lambda x \Rightarrow \bar{A} \bar{x} = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}$   
 $(\bar{A} \bar{x})^T = (\bar{\lambda} \bar{x})^T \Rightarrow \bar{x}^T \bar{A}^T = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T$   
 or  $\bar{x}^T A = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T$   
 $(\bar{x}^T A)x = (\bar{\lambda} \bar{x}^T)x$   
 $\bar{x}^T (Ax) = \bar{\lambda} (\bar{x}^T x)$   
 $\bar{x}^T (\lambda x) = \bar{\lambda} (\bar{x}^T x)$   
 $\lambda (\bar{x}^T x) = \bar{\lambda} (\bar{x}^T x)$   
 or  $(\lambda - \bar{\lambda})(\bar{x}^T x) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = \bar{\lambda}$

So, let us prove that every Eigen value of a Hermitian matrix is a real number. So, let us say, let lambda be an Eigen value of A and x the corresponding Eigenvector. Then we have the matrix equation  $Ax = \lambda x$ , then we have this matrix equation  $Ax = \lambda x$ . Now we have to make use of the definition of a Hermitian matrix; that is A is equal to a conjugate transpose. So, what we can do is, let us take the conjugate on both sides. So, conjugate on both side when we do, we have this. Now consecutive x means consecutive A and conjugate of x, then here lambda conjugate x conjugate. Now let us say transpose on both sides. So, A conjugate x conjugate transpose equal to lambda conjugate x conjugate transpose.

Now we know that when we have a product of 2 matrices A into B, the transpose of A B is equal to B transpose A transpose. So, let us apply this property. So, we will have x conjugate transpose A conjugate transpose equal to, lambda is a scalar, so we will have, so it will not be affected. So, lambda conjugate by transpose it is not affected, and then we have x conjugate transpose. Now A conjugate transpose is equal to A. So, we have or x conjugate transpose A equal to lambda conjugate x conjugate transpose. Now, we post multiply this equation by x. So, x conjugate transpose A x equal to lambda conjugate x conjugate transpose x.

now we can write by, by the associativity of the matrix multiplication x conjugate transpose A x equal to lambda conjugate x conjugate transpose x. A x is equal to lambda x, so we can write this, lambda is a scalar I can write it like this, lambda times x

conjugate transpose  $x$ , or  $\lambda - \lambda^*$  conjugate into  $x$  conjugate transpose  $x$  is equal to 0. This is what we have. Now let us note the following. See  $x$  is an Eigenvector, let us say, let  $x$  be having component  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , where we are dealing with  $n$  by  $n$  matrix, so Eigenvector will have  $n$  components, then  $x$  conjugate transpose,  $x^*$  will be equal to,  $x^*$  conjugate means take conjugate of all the components, when we take transpose this column vector becomes row vector. So,  $x_1^*$  conjugate  $x_2^*$  conjugate and so on  $x_n^*$  conjugate these  $x^*$  conjugate transpose into  $x$ , so we have  $x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ .

When we carry out this multiplication, this  $1$  by  $n$  matrix these  $n$  by  $1$  matrix will get  $1$  by  $1$  matrix, and the  $1$  by  $1$  matrix means one number. So,  $x_1^*$  conjugate into  $x_1$ , if you multiply complex number by its conjugate, you get the absolute value of the complex number is square. So, mod of  $x_1$  square, then mod of  $x_2$  is square and so on. Mod of  $x_n$  square,  $x_1$  into  $x_1^*$  conjugate is mod of  $x_1$  square. Now  $x$  is non zero vector. So, at least one component is here is non 0, and therefore, this sum is non 0, because the sum of non negative quantity, which can be 0 only when each quantity is 0.

So, this is not 0, inside it is strictly positive, as  $x$  is not equal to 0. So, this quantity is not 0, it is positive therefore,  $\lambda$  is equal to  $\lambda^*$ . When a complex number equal its conjugate, it is always a real quantity, because suppose  $\lambda$  is a complex number  $\lambda = \alpha + i\beta$ , then  $\lambda^*$  conjugate is  $\alpha - i\beta$ . So,  $\alpha + i\beta = \alpha - i\beta$  means,  $2i\beta = 0$  or  $\beta = 0$ ; hence  $\lambda$  is equal to  $\alpha$ . So, it is a real. So, each Eigen value of the Hermitian matrix is a real quantity.

Now, Eigen values of a skew Hermitian matrix are purely imaginary or 0. The only difference in the case of a skew Hermitian matrix is that, you have a negative sign  $A$  is equal to minus  $A^*$  conjugate transpose. So, in this proof, when I hear I replace  $A^*$  conjugate transpose by  $A$ , you replaced by minus  $A$ . When you replace by minus  $A$ , same proof will carry on, here we will have  $\lambda + \lambda^*$ . So,  $\lambda + \lambda^*$  conjugate will be 0, because  $x^*$  conjugate transpose  $x$  is not 0. And then  $\lambda + \lambda^*$  conjugate is 0,  $\lambda + \lambda^*$  conjugate will be  $2\alpha$ ,  $2\alpha = 0$  means  $\alpha = 0$ . So,  $\lambda$  will be equal to  $i\beta$ ; that means, either  $\lambda$  is purely imaginary or it is 0.

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**Properties of Eigen Values of Special Matrices:**

- The eigen values of a Hermitian matrix are real.
- The eigen values of a skew-Hermitian matrix are purely imaginary or zero.
- The eigen values of a unitary matrix have absolute value 1.

**Theorem:** The eigen vectors of A belonging to distinct eigen values are linearly independent.

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Now let us take the third property be Eigen values of A unitary matrix have absolute value one. So, let us say, let A be a unitary matrix.

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Let A be a unitary matrix  
then  $A\bar{A}^T = I = \bar{A}^T A$   
Let  $\lambda$  be an eigen value of A and  
 $x$  be the corresponding eigen vector  
then  $Ax = \lambda x$   
 $\bar{A}\bar{x} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}$   
 $\bar{x}^T \bar{A}^T = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}^T$   
 $(\bar{x}^T \bar{A}^T)A = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}^T A$   
or  $\bar{x}^T (\bar{A}^T A) = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}^T A$   
 $\bar{x}^T I = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}^T A$   
 $\bar{x}^T x = \bar{\lambda}(\bar{x}^T A)x$   
or  $\bar{x}^T x = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}^T (Ax)$   
 $= \bar{\lambda}\bar{\lambda}(\bar{x}^T x)$   
or  $(1 - \bar{\lambda}\lambda)\bar{x}^T x = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow |1 - \lambda\bar{\lambda}| = 0$   
 $\alpha |\lambda| = 1$

Then  $A\bar{A}^T$  conjugate transpose is equal to identity matrix or you can say  $A$  inverse is equal to  $A$  conjugate transpose. Now let us say let  $\lambda$  be an Eigen value of A and  $x$  be the corresponding Eigenvector, then we have these matrix equation  $Ax = \lambda x$ . So, again take conjugate transpose here, first we take conjugate, so  $\bar{A}\bar{x} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}$ ; like in the previous exercise. Now we take the transport on both sides  $\bar{x}^T \bar{A}^T A = \bar{\lambda}\bar{x}^T A$

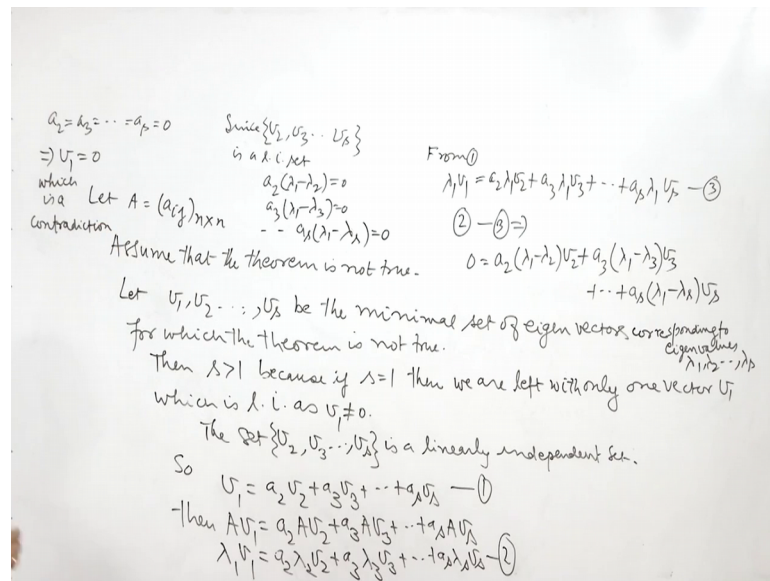
transpose, and then we have  $\lambda \bar{x}^T A^T$ , then we post multiply by  $A$ .

So,  $\bar{x}^T A^T A$  be post multiply by  $A$ , and then this will be equal to  $\lambda \bar{x}^T A^T A$ . Now this is we can write or  $\bar{x}^T A^T A^T A$  equal to  $\lambda \bar{x}^T A^T A$ ,  $A^T A$  is equal to  $I$ ,  $A^T A$  into  $A$  is equal to  $I$  when  $A A^T$  is  $I$ . This is also  $A^T A$  equal to  $I$ .

So, this identity matrix for  $\bar{x}^T A^T$  into identity is equal to  $\lambda \bar{x}^T A^T$ . Now this is matrix this multiply by  $I$ . So, it will give you  $\bar{x}^T A^T$ . Now let us post multiply by  $x$ , let us post multiply by  $x$ . So, this is or  $A x$  equal to  $\lambda x$ . So, we will have  $\lambda \bar{x}^T A^T x$  or we can write  $1 - \lambda \bar{x}^T A^T x = 0$ . We have shown that when  $x$  is an Eigenvector  $\bar{x}^T A^T x$  is never 0, it is positive.

So,  $1 - \lambda \bar{x}^T A^T x = 0$ . Now  $\lambda$  into  $\bar{x}^T A^T x$  is  $\lambda^2$ , so this is 0. So, this implies that  $|\lambda| = 1$ . So, the Eigen values of a unitary matrix have unit modulus or their absolute value is 1. So, now, we know that a real unitary matrix  $A$  really unitary matrix is orthogonal matrix. So, in the case of a real matrix, the real orthogonal matrix, the Eigen values will be either 1 or minus 1 known as go to the Eigen vectors of a belonging to distinct Eigen values are linearly independent. So, suppose you are given an  $n$  by  $n$  matrix.

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Let A be equal to a  $i \times j$  by  $n$ . We want to show that the Eigen vectors of the matrix A which correspond to distinct Eigen values, they are linearly independent. So, let us assume that the theorem is not true. We are proving it to be contradiction. So, assume that, the theorem is not true. Then  $\therefore$  assume that the theorem is not true, then let us let  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_s$  be the minimal set for which the theorem is not true, be the minimal set of Eigen vectors for which this theorem is not true. Then it is clear that  $s$  cannot be equal to 1, then  $s$  is strictly greater than 1, because if  $s$  is equal to 1.

Then we will be having only one vector here which is  $v_1$ , and a single vector when we have which is an Eigen vector, it is linearly independent. Then we are left with only one vector  $v_1$ , which is linearly independent, because it is non zero vector, which is linearly independent as  $v_1$  is not equal to 0 vector. Now, so,  $s$  is greater than 1. Now by our assumption that  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_s$  is minimal set of Eigen vectors for which the theorem is not true. These set, if you take the set of vector  $v_2, v_3, \dots, v_s$ , then it will be a linearly independent set. So, the set  $v_2, v_3, \dots, v_s$  is a linearly independent set and. So,  $v_1$  can be written.

Now  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_s$  is linearly dependent, because for this the theorem is not true,  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  is linearly dependent while  $v_2, v_3, \dots, v_s$  is linearly independent. So, we can write  $v_1$  as a linear combination of  $v_2, v_3, \dots, v_s$ . So,  $v_1 = a_2 v_2 + a_3 v_3 + \dots + a_n v_n$  and so on. Now let us pre multiply this equation by A, the matrix A. So, then  $A v_1$  is equal to  $A(a_2 v_2 + a_3 v_3 + \dots + a_n v_n)$ . So, will get  $A v_1 = a_2 A v_2 + a_3 A v_3 + \dots + a_n A v_n$ . Now  $A v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1$  and  $A v_i = \lambda_i v_i$ . So,  $\lambda_1 v_1 = a_2 \lambda_2 v_2 + a_3 \lambda_3 v_3 + \dots + a_n \lambda_n v_n$ .

$v_1, v_2, \dots, v_s$  are Eigen vectors of the matrix  $A$ . Let us say they correspond to the Eigen values  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_s$  by  $v_1$  corresponds to the Eigen value  $\lambda_1$ . So, then we will have  $\lambda_1 v_1$  is equal to  $a_{11}v_1 + a_{12}v_2 + \dots + a_{1s}v_s$  and so on  $a_{21}v_1 + a_{22}v_2 + \dots + a_{2s}v_s$ .

We are assuming that set of Eigen vectors corresponding to Eigen values  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_s$ , which are distinct. Now we have this equations. Let me call it as 1 equation number and this has equation number 2. Now in the equation 1 we multiply by  $\lambda_1$ . So, from equation 1,  $\lambda_1 v_1$  is equal to  $a_{11}\lambda_1 v_1 + a_{12}\lambda_1 v_2 + \dots + a_{1s}\lambda_1 v_s$ . Let me call it as equation number 3. Then from equation 2 subtract equation 3. So,  $(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)v_2 + \dots + (a_{2s} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$  and so on  $(a_{s1} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{ss} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ .

Now,  $v_2, v_3, \dots, v_s$  form a linearly independent set. Therefore,  $(a_{21} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{2s} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ ,  $(a_{31} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{3s} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ ,  $(a_{s1} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{ss} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ . So, what we get since  $v_2, v_3, \dots, v_s$  form a linearly independent set, is a linearly independent set. We have  $(a_{21} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{2s} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ ,  $(a_{31} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{3s} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$  and so on,  $(a_{s1} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{ss} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ . Now  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_s$  are distinct. So,  $(a_{21} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{2s} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ ,  $(a_{31} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{3s} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$ ,  $(a_{s1} - \lambda_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_{ss} - \lambda_1)v_s = 0$  is not 0.

So, we get since Eigen values are distinct, so we get  $a_{21}, a_{31}, \dots, a_{s1}$  all equal to 0, but  $a_{22}, a_{32}, \dots, a_{s2}$  all equal to 0, means  $v_1$  is equal to 0, but  $v_1$  is a non zero Eigenvector. So, at least one  $a_k$  here is non0, since  $v_1$  is an Eigenvector, at least one  $a_k$  here is non0, but what we get here, all  $a_{21}, a_{31}, \dots, a_{s1}$  are 0. So, this implies that  $v_1 = 0$  which is a contradiction. So, Eigen vectors of a square matrix belonging to distinct Eigen values are all linearly independent  $v$  and then we have result which says that if  $A$  is real symmetric matrix then corresponding to distinct Eigen values, the Eigen vectors of  $A$  are very, of  $A$  are orthogonal.

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**Theorem:** If  $A$  is a real symmetric matrix then corresponding to distinct eigen values, the eigen vectors of  $A$  are orthogonal.

**Example:** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  then  $\lambda = 0, 2$ .

Eigen vectors corresponding to  $\lambda = 0, 2$  are  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  respectively.

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Now this is very important result which we will use in our next lecture when we discuss the diagonalization. So, let us prove this result, the prove is not difficult.

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Let  $A$  be a real symmetric matrix  
 Then  $A = A^T$

Let  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  be any two distinct eigen values of  $A$  and  $x_1$  &  $x_2$  be the corresponding eigen vectors

We have  
 $Ax_1 = \lambda_1 x_1$   
 $Ax_2 = \lambda_2 x_2$

Suppose  
 $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{12} \\ \vdots \\ x_{1n} \end{bmatrix}$   
 $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{21} \\ x_{22} \\ \vdots \\ x_{2n} \end{bmatrix}$

$x_1^T Ax_2 = \lambda_1 x_1^T x_2$   
 $x_2^T Ax_1 = \lambda_2 x_2^T x_1$

$(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) x_1^T x_2 = 0$   
 Since  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$  we have  
 $x_1^T x_2 = 0$

$x_1^T x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \times 1 + 1 \times (-1) = 0$

$x_1^T x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{21} \\ x_{22} \\ \vdots \\ x_{2n} \end{bmatrix} = x_{11}x_{21} + x_{12}x_{22} + \dots + x_{1n}x_{2n} = 0$

So, let  $A$  be a real symmetric matrix, then  $A$  is equal to a transpose. Now we want to prove that corresponding to distinct Eigen values, the Eigen vectors of a are orthogonal. So, let us say let lambda 1 and lambda 2 be any two distinct Eigen values of  $A$  and  $x_1$  &  $x_2$  be the corresponding Eigen vectors. We want to prove that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are orthogonal to each other. So, we have  $Ax_1$  equal to lambda 1  $x_1$ , because lambda within lambda 1



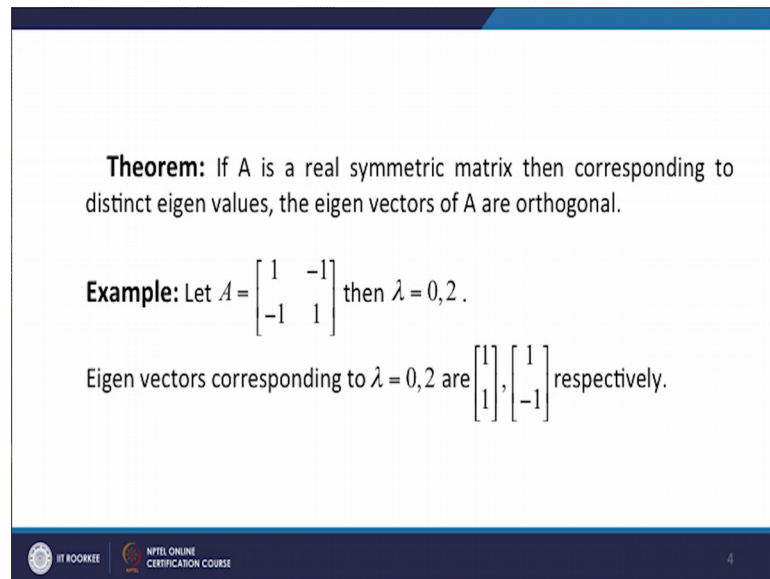
is an Eigen value of  $A$  an  $x_1$  is the corresponding Eigenvector, and then we have second equation  $A x_2$  equal to  $\lambda_2 x_2$ .

we can pick up any equation in order to make use of the given condition on  $A$ ; that it is real symmetric matrix  $A$ ,  $A$  is equal to  $A$  transport, we have to take transpose of any one of these two equations. So, let us take the transport of the first equation. So, we get  $x_1$  transpose  $A$  transpose equal to  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_1$  is a scalar, so it is not affected by transpose, so  $x_1$  transpose. Then  $A$  transpose is equal to  $A$ . So,  $x_1$  transpose  $A$  is equal to  $\lambda_1 x_1$  transpose. Now we post multiply by  $x$ , so  $x_1$  transpose  $A x$  is equal to  $\lambda_1 x_1$  transpose  $x$ ,  $A x$  is given to be, oh be  $A A x$  we are post multiply by  $x_2$ .

So, be post multiply by  $x_2$ . So,  $A x_2$  is equal to  $\lambda_2 x_2$ , so  $x_1$  transpose  $\lambda_2 x_2$  is equal to  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 x_2$ , oh no this is  $x_1$  transpose  $x_2$ . So, we have  $x_1$  transpose  $x_2$ . So, we will have, I can write it as  $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 x_1$  transpose  $x_2$ . Now  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are distinct. So,  $\lambda_1$  is not equal to  $\lambda_2$ , since  $\lambda_1$  is not equal to  $\lambda_2$ , we have  $x_1$  transpose  $x_2$  equal to 0, which means that the vector  $x_1$  and the vector  $x_2$  are orthogonal. See how we get that suppose  $x_1 x_1$  is equal to, we write a vector, Eigenvector as a column vector.

So,  $x_1$  is suppose having components, say say let me call it  $A x_1$   $x_1$   $x_2$  and so on  $x_1$   $n$  and  $x_2$  has components. Let us say  $x_2$   $1$   $x_2$   $2$  and so on,  $x_2$   $n$  then  $x_1$  transpose  $x_2$  will be what  $x_1$  transpose, means row vector. So,  $x_1$   $1$   $x_1$   $2$  and so on,  $x_1$   $n$  and we have  $x_2$   $x_2$   $1$   $x_2$   $2$  and so on,  $x_2$   $n$  equal to 0. So, we get  $x_1$   $1$  into  $x_2$   $1$  plus  $x_1$   $2$  into  $x_2$   $2$  and so on,  $x_1$   $n$  into  $x_2$   $n$  is equal to 0; that is the dot product of the 2 vectors  $x_1$   $x_2$  is equal to 0. So, are a (Refer Time: 53:04) a scalar product is 0. So, the two vectors  $x_1$   $x_2$  are orthogonal and here we have given example where  $A$  is real symmetric matrix you can see.

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**Theorem:** If  $A$  is a real symmetric matrix then corresponding to distinct eigen values, the eigen vectors of  $A$  are orthogonal.

**Example:** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  then  $\lambda = 0, 2$ .

Eigen vectors corresponding to  $\lambda = 0, 2$  are  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  respectively.

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When you find the Eigen values of this, you get Eigen values  $\lambda$  equal to 0 and 2, so which are distinct Eigen values. And when you find the corresponding Eigen vectors like we have found earlier, the Eigen vectors corresponding to  $\lambda$  equal to 0 is 1 1, the Eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$  equal to 2 is 1 minus 1 and you can see if you take these dot product or scalar product of these two vectors, then 1 1 1 1 1 1 vector is 1 1, the other vector is 1 minus 1.

So, suppose this is our  $x_1$  vector and this our  $x_2$  vector, then  $x_1^T x_2$  is equal to 1 1 and here we have 1 minus 1. When we take the matrix multiplication we do, so 1 into 1 and then 1 into minus 1, so which is equal to 0. So, the two vectors are orthogonal to each other. So, by this theorem, by this result we can verify the theorem, and with that we come, we will conclude this lecture.

Thank you very much.