

MATH. 513. JORDAN FORM

Let A_1, \dots, A_k be square matrices of size n_1, \dots, n_k , respectively with entries in a field F . We define the matrix $A_1 \oplus \dots \oplus A_k$ of size $n = n_1 + \dots + n_k$ as the block matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boxed{A_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \boxed{A_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & \boxed{A_k} \end{pmatrix}$$

It is called the *direct sum* of the matrices A_1, \dots, A_k . A matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

is called a *Jordan block*. If k is its size, it is denoted by $J_k(\lambda)$. A direct sum

$$J = J_{k_1} \oplus \dots \oplus J_{k_r}(\lambda_r)$$

of Jordan blocks is called a *Jordan matrix*.

Theorem. Let $T : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear operator in a finite-dimensional vector space over a field F . Assume that the characteristic polynomial of T is a product of linear polynomials. Then there exists a basis \mathcal{E} in V such that $[T]_{\mathcal{E}}$ is a Jordan matrix.

Corollary. Let $A \in M_n(F)$. Assume that its characteristic polynomial is a product of linear polynomials. Then there exists a Jordan matrix J and an invertible matrix C such that

$$A = CJC^{-1}.$$

Notice that the Jordan matrix J (which is called a *Jordan form* of A) is not defined uniquely. For example, we can permute its Jordan blocks. Otherwise the matrix J is defined uniquely (see Problem 7). On the other hand, there are many choices for C . We have seen this already in the diagonalization process.

What is good about it? We have, as in the case when A is diagonalizable,

$$A^N = CJ^N C^{-1}.$$

So, if we can compute J^N , we can compute A^N . It follows from the matrix multiplication that

$$(A_1 \oplus \dots \oplus A_k)^N = A_1^N \oplus \dots \oplus A_k^N.$$

Thus it is enough to learn how to raise a Jordan block in N th power. First consider the case when $\lambda = 0$. We have

$$J_k(0)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \vdots & \vdots & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We see that the ones go to the right until they disappear. Continuing in this way, we see that

$$J_k(0)^k = 0.$$

Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} J_k(\lambda)^N &= (\lambda I_n + J_k(0))^N = \\ &= \lambda^N I_n + \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} J_k(0) + \dots + \binom{N}{i} \lambda^{N-i} J_k(0)^i + \dots + \lambda \binom{N}{N-1} J_k(0)^{N-1} + J_k(0)^N. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

This is proved in the same way as one proves the Newton formula:

$$(a + b)^N = \sum_{i=0}^N \binom{N}{i} a^{n-i} b^i.$$

We look at the product of N factors $(a + b) \dots (a + b)$. To get a monomial $a^{n-i} b^i$ we choose i brackets from which we will take b . The number of choices is $\binom{N}{i}$.

Notice that in formula (1), the powers $J_k(0)^i$ are equal to zero as soon as $i \geq k$.

So we get

$$J_k(\lambda)^N = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^N & \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} & \binom{N}{2} \lambda^{N-2} & \dots & \dots & \binom{N}{k-1} \lambda^{N-k+1} \\ 0 & \lambda^N & \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} & \binom{N}{2} \lambda^{N-2} & \dots & \binom{N}{k-2} \lambda^{N-k+2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \lambda^N & \binom{N}{1} \lambda^{N-1} \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & \lambda^N \end{pmatrix},$$

where, by definition $\binom{N}{m} = 0$ if $N < m$.

Before we go to the proof of the Theorem, let us explain how to find J and C . Notice that

$$\text{rank}(J_k(0)) = k - 1, \quad \text{rank}(J_k(0)^2) = k - 2, \quad \dots, \quad \text{rank}(J_k(0)^k) = 0.$$

Let us introduce the notion of the *corank* of a matrix $A \in \text{Mat}_n(F)$ by setting

$$\boxed{\text{corank}(A) = n - \text{rank}(A) = \text{nullity}(A)}.$$

Then we see that $\text{corank}(J_k(0))^i = i$ and is equal to the number of the first zero columns. Now, for any Jordan matrix $J = J_{k_1}(\lambda_1) \oplus \dots \oplus J_{k_r}(\lambda_r)$, we have

$$\text{corank}((J - \lambda I_n)^q) = \sum_{i \in I(\lambda)} \text{corank}(J_{k_i}(0)^q),$$

where $I(\lambda)$ is the set of indices i for which $\lambda_i = \lambda$. Let

$$\boxed{d_m(\lambda) = \text{the number of Jordan blocks } J_m(\lambda) \text{ in } J},$$

$$\boxed{c_q(\lambda) = \text{corank}((J - \lambda I_n)^q) = \text{corank}((A - \lambda I_n)^q)}. \quad (2)$$

The last equality follows from the fact that

$$(A - \lambda I_n)^q = (CJC^{-1} - \lambda I_n)^q = (C(J - \lambda I_n)C^{-1})^q = C(J - \lambda I_n)^q C^{-1}.$$

So, $(A - \lambda I_n)^q$ and $(J - \lambda I_n)^q$ are matrices of the same operator and hence have the same rank.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} c_1(\lambda) &= \sum_{m \geq 1} d_m(\lambda), \\ c_2(\lambda) - c_1(\lambda) &= \sum_{m \geq 2} d_m(\lambda), \\ &\dots\dots\dots \\ c_j(\lambda) - c_{j-1}(\lambda) &= \sum_{m \geq j} d_m(\lambda), \\ &\dots\dots\dots \\ c_n(\lambda) - c_{n-1}(\lambda) &= \sum_{m \geq n} d_m(\lambda) = d_n(\lambda). \end{aligned}$$

Solving this system for $d_m(\lambda)$ we find

$$\begin{aligned} \boxed{d_1(\lambda) = 2c_1(\lambda) - c_2(\lambda)}, \\ \boxed{d_j(\lambda) = -c_{j-1}(\lambda) + 2c_j(\lambda) - c_{j+1}(\lambda)}, \quad j = 2, \dots, n-1, \\ \boxed{d_n(\lambda) = c_n(\lambda) - c_{n-1}(\lambda)}. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

This gives the answer for J .

Remark. For matrices of small size we can list all possible Jordan forms, and then choose the right one by applying formula (2).

Example. Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The characteristic polynomial is $P_A(\lambda) = (-\lambda)^3 + 2(-\lambda)^2$. So the eigenvalues are 0 and 2. Since 0 is a root of multiplicity 2, it must appear twice at the diagonal. Possible Jordan forms are

$$J_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad J_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since $\text{corank}(A) = \text{corank}(A - 0I_2) = \text{corank}(J_2 - 0I_2) = 1$ we have to choose $J = J_2$.

Now let us give the answer for C . I will describe how to find C without proper justification. By definition of the matrix of a linear operator,

$$AC_1^{(1)} = \lambda_1 C_1^{(1)}, \quad AC_2^{(1)} = \lambda_1 C_2^{(1)} + C_1^{(1)}, \quad \dots, \quad AC_{k_1}^{(1)} = \lambda_1 C_{k_1}^{(1)} + C_{k_1-1}^{(1)}.$$

We solve the first equation for $C_1^{(1)}$ finding an eigenvector with eigenvalue λ_1 . Next we have to solve an inhomogeneous system of equations to find $C_2^{(1)}$. Here we may have a problem because of non-uniqueness of $C_1^{(1)}$. It could be a “wrong eigenvector”, i.e. corresponding to different block with the same λ_1 at the diagonal. In this case a solution of the inhomogeneous system may not exist.

The correct way to do is the following. Let m be the size of the largest Jordan block with λ_1 at the diagonal and $A - \lambda_1 I_n$.

1) Let $V_1 = N(A - \lambda_1 I_n)^m$ Since $(A - \lambda_1 I_n)^m (A - \lambda_1 I_n)(v) = (A - \lambda_1 I_n)(A - \lambda_1 I_n)^m(v)$, the linear operator $L_{A - \lambda_1 I_n}$ maps V_1 to itself. Consider $L_{A - \lambda_1 I_n}$ as a linear operator $U : V_1 \rightarrow V_1$. You can find some basis in V_1 and a matrix A_1 of U in this basis. You will use it in the next steps.

2) Find a basis $v_1^{(1)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(1)}$ in $R(U^{m-1})$. Note that $U^m(v) = 0$ for any $v \in V_1$, so nonzero vectors in $R(U^{m-1})$ are eigenvectors with eigenvalue λ_1 .

3) Now search for linearly independent vectors $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(2)}$ in $R(U^{m-2})$ such that $U(v_i^{(2)}) = v_i^{(1)}$.

4) Then extend $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(2)}$ to a basis $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(2)}$ in $R(U^{m-2})$.

5) Then, do it the same starting from $R(U^{m-2})$. That is, find linearly independent vectors $v_1^{(3)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(3)}$ in $R(U^{m-3})$ that are mapped to $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(2)}$ by U . Then extend this set to a basis $v_1^{(3)}, \dots, v_{n_3}^{(3)}$ in $R(U^{m-3})$.

6) Continuing in this way you will find the following basis in $V(\lambda_1)$:

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} v_1^{(1)} & \dots & v_{n_1}^{(1)} & & & \\ v_1^{(2)} & \dots & v_{n_1}^{(2)} & \dots & v_{n_2}^{(2)} & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ v_1^{(m)} & \dots & v_{n_1}^{(m)} & \dots & v_{n_2}^{(m)} & \dots & v_{n_m}^{(m)} \end{array} \quad (4)$$

It satisfies the following properties

(i) $n_1 \leq n_2 \leq \dots \leq n_m$;

(ii) $n_1 + \dots + n_i = \dim R(U^{m-i})$, in particular, $n_1 + \dots + n_m = \dim V_1$;

7) Now take $C_1^{(1)} = v_1^{(1)}, \dots, C_1^{(m)} = v_1^{(m)}$ in this order. These are the first m columns of the matrix C . They correspond to the largest block $J_m(\lambda_1)$. Next take the vectors

$$C_2^{(1)} = v_2^{(1)}, \dots, C_2^{(m)} = v_2^{(m)}, \dots, C_{n_1}^{(1)} = v_{n_1}^{(1)}, \dots, C_{n_1}^{(m)} = v_{n_1}^{(m)}.$$

they correspond to the remaining blocks $J_m(\lambda_1)$. You have used the first m columns of the list (4) (taking vectors from the top to the bottom). Next go to the next columns and do the same. This gives you the part of C responsible for the blocks with λ_1 at the diagonal.

8) Now go to the next eigenvalue λ_2 and do steps 1)-7). This will give you the part of C responsible for the blocks with λ_2 at the diagonal. Continue in this way until you have used all the distinct eigenvalues.

Example (cont.) Let us find the matrix C such that $A = CJC^{-1}$. First we take $\lambda_1 = 0$. We find $V_1 = N(A^2)$ is spanned by $(3, 0, -2), (-1, 1, 0)$. Now $N(A)$ is spanned by $C_1 = (-1, 1, 0)$. This is a unique eigenvector with eigenvalue 0 (up to proportionality). Now we are looking for $C_2 = a(3, 0, -2) + b(-1, 1, 0)$ such that $AC_2 = C_1$. We find that C_2 could be taken equal to $(3, 0, -2)$. It is not a unique solution. We can add to C_2 any vector proportional to C_1 to obtain another solution. Finally we find the third column C_3 by solving the equation $(A - 2I_3)C_3 = 0$. A

solution is $C_3 = (1, 1, 0)$. So

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We leave to the reader to verify that $A = CJC^{-1}$.

Now let us go to the proof of the main theorem.

For any linear operator $T : V \rightarrow V$ and a non-negative integer i we denote by T^i the composition of T with itself i -times. By definition, $T^0 = \text{id}_V$.

A linear subspace $L \subset V$ is called *invariant* with respect to T if $T(v) \in L$ for any $v \in L$.

Let

$$L_1 \subset L_2 \subset \dots \subset L_k \subset \dots \subset V$$

be a sequence of linear subspaces of V such that each is a subset of the next one. Let

$$L = \bigcup_k L_k$$

be the union of these subspaces (it could be infinitely many of them). I claim that L is a linear subspace of V . Indeed, take $v, w \in L$. Let $v \in L_k, w \in L_m$. Without loss of generality we may assume that $k \leq m$. Since $L_k \subset L_m$, we get $v, w \in L_m$. Since L_m is a linear subspace, we get $v + cw \in L_m \subset L$ for any $c \in F$. Thus L is a linear subspace.

We apply this to the following situation. Let U be a linear operator, and $L_k = N(U^k)$. We have $N(U^k) \subset N(U^{k+1})$ since $N^k(v) = 0$ implies $N(U^{k+1}) = N(N^k(v)) = N(0) = 0$. Thus we have a sequence of linear subspaces

$$\{0\} \subset N(U) \subset N(U^2) \subset \dots \subset N(U^k) \subset \dots \subset V.$$

It follows from above that

$$\bigcup_k N(U^k) = \{v \in V : U^k(v) = 0 \text{ for some } k > 0\}.$$

is a linear subspace of V . It is also invariant with respect to U . In fact, if $v \in N(U^k)$ for some k , then $U^{k-1}(U(v)) = U^k(v) = 0$, hence $U(v) \in N(U^{k-1})$ (if $k = 0$, we have $v = 0$ so $U(v) = 0$ belongs to any subspace).

Recall that the eigensubspace of T corresponding to an eigenvalue λ is the kernel of the operator $T - \lambda \text{id}_V$. Define the *generalized eigensubspace* of T corresponding to an eigenvalue λ by

$$V(T, \lambda) = \{v \in V : (T - \lambda \text{id}_V)^i(v) = 0 \text{ for some } i > 0\}.$$

Take $U = T - \lambda \text{id}_V$ in above, we obtain the proof of the following.

Lemma 1. $V(T, \lambda)$ is a linear subspace of V . It is invariant with respect to T .

Let us restrict the operator T to the invariant subspace $V(T, \lambda)$ (that is consider the same rule for T only applied to vectors from $V(T, \lambda)$). We shall exhibit a basis in $V(T, \lambda)$ such that the matrix of T with respect to this basis is the direct sum of Jordan block matrices with λ at the diagonal.

Notice that the operator $U = T - \lambda \text{id}_V$ when restricted to $V(T, \lambda)$ satisfies $U^m = 0$ for some $m > 0$. In fact, every vector $v \in V(T, \lambda)$ satisfies $U^i(v) = 0$ for some $i > 0$. Choose a basis v_1, \dots, v_k in $V(T, \lambda)$ and let m be chosen such that $U^m(v_i) = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, k$. This can be done since $U^j(v) = 0$ implies $U^s(v) = U^{s-j}(U^j(v)) = 0$ for $s \geq j$. Now writing any $v \in V(T, \lambda)$ as a linear combination of the basis, and using that U^m is a linear operator, we obtain that $U^m(v) = 0$ for all $v \in V(T, \lambda)$.

Let us consider any finite-dimensional vector space W and a linear operator $U : W \rightarrow W$ satisfying $U^m = 0$ for some $m \geq 0$ (a linear operator with such property is called a *nilpotent operator*). The smallest m with this property is called *level of nilpotency of U* .

Observe that

$$R(U^{i+1}) \subset R(U^i).$$

Indeed $U^{i+1}(v) = U^i(U(v))$, so if a vector w is equal to the value of U^{i+1} at some vector v , then it is also equal to the value of U^i at $U(v) \in V(T, \lambda)$. So we have a chain of linear subspaces

$$\{0\} = R(U^m) \subset R(U^{m-1}) \subset \dots \subset R(U) \subset W. \quad (4)$$

Observe that

$$U(R(U^i)) = R(U^{i+1}).$$

To see this, use that $U^{i+1}(v) = U(U^i(v))$, so each vector in $R(U^{i+1})$ is equal to the value of U at some vector in $R(U^i)$.

Lemma 2. *Let U be a nilpotent linear operator on a vector space $W \neq \{0\}$. Let m be its nilpotency level. Then all inclusions in (4) are strict.*

Proof. Suppose $R(U^k) = R(U^{k-1})$. Then $\dim N(U^k) = \dim N(U^{k-1})$, and since $N(U^{k-1}) \subset N(U^k)$ we get $N(U^k) = N(U^{k-1})$. For any $v \in V$ we have $0 = U^m(v) = U^k(U^{m-k}(v))$, hence $U^{m-k}(v) \in N(U^k)$. By above $U^{m-k}(v) \in N^{k-1}$, hence $N^{k-1}(U^{m-k}(v)) = N^{m-1}(v) = 0$. This contradicts the definition of the level of nilpotency of U .

Let us go back to our situation when $U = T - \lambda \text{id}_V$ restricted to $V(T, \lambda)$. Let $n_1 = \dim R(U^{m-1})$. Since $R(U^m) = 0$, U sends all vectors from $R(U^{m-1})$ to $\{0\}$. Let $v_1^{(1)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(1)}$ be a basis of this space. Since $U : R(U^{m-2}) \rightarrow R(U^{m-1})$ is surjective, we can find $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(2)}$ in $R(U^{m-2})$ with

$$U(v_i^{(2)}) = v_i^{(1)}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n_1.$$

I claim that

$$v_1^{(1)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(1)}, v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(2)}$$

are linearly independent. In fact, if

$$a_1 v_1^{(1)} + \dots + a_{n_1} v_{n_1}^{(1)} + b_1 v_1^{(2)} + \dots + b_{n_1} v_{n_1}^{(2)} = 0,$$

we apply U to obtain that

$$0 = a_1 U(v_1^{(1)}) + \dots + a_{n_1} U(v_{n_1}^{(1)}) + b_1 U(v_1^{(2)}) + \dots + b_{n_1} U(v_{n_1}^{(2)}) = b_1 v_1^{(1)} + \dots + b_{n_1} v_{n_1}^{(1)}.$$

This gives $b_1 = \dots = b_{n_1} = 0$, and hence $a_1 = \dots = a_{n_1} = 0$. Notice that $v_1^{(1)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(1)}$ belong to $N(U)$, so we can find a basis of $N(U) \cap R(U^{m-2})$ of the form $v_1^{(1)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(1)}, v_{n_1+1}^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(2)}$. Together

with the vectors $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(2)}$ we get a basis of $R(U^{m-2})$. In fact, by the formula for the dimension of the range space of a linear transformation, the dimensions of the subspaces $\text{span}(v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(2)})$ and $N(U) \cap R(U^{m-2})$ add up to the dimension of $R(U^{m-2})$. Also their intersection is the zero subspace $\{0\}$. In fact, if $\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} a_i v_i^{(2)} \in N(U)$, applying U we get $\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} a_i U(v_i^{(2)}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} a_i v_i^{(1)} = 0$, hence $a_1 = \dots = a_{n_1} = 0$ because the vectors $v_1^{(1)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(1)}$ are linearly independent. Next we find $v_1^{(3)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(3)} \in R(U^{m-3})$ which are mapped to $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(2)}$, respectively. Then we find a basis of $N(U) \cap R(U^{m-3})$ which includes the previous basis $v_1^{(1)}, \dots, v_{n_1}^{(1)}, v_{n_1+1}^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(2)}$ of $N(U) \cap R(U^{m-2})$. The union of this basis and the set $v_1^{(2)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(2)}, v_1^{(3)}, \dots, v_{n_2}^{(3)}$ is a basis of $R(U^{m-3})$. Proceeding in this way, we find a basis in $V(T, \lambda)$

$$\begin{array}{cccccc}
v_1^{(1)} & \dots & v_{n_1}^{(1)} & & & \\
v_1^{(2)} & \dots & v_{n_1}^{(2)} & \dots & v_{n_2}^{(2)} & \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
v_1^{(m)} & \dots & v_{n_1}^{(m)} & \dots & v_{n_2}^{(m)} & \dots & v_{n_m}^{(m)}
\end{array} \tag{6}$$

satisfying the following property

- (i) $n_1 \leq n_2 \leq \dots \leq n_m$;
- (ii) $n_1 + \dots + n_i = \dim R(U^{m-i})$, in particular, $n_1 + \dots + n_m = \dim V(T, \lambda)$;
- (iii) $(T - \lambda \text{id}_V)(v_i^{(j+1)}) = v_i^{(j)}$ if $i = 1, \dots, n_j$.

Let us find the matrix of $V(T, \lambda)$ of T with respect to this basis. We first reorder the vectors by taking the first m vectors from the first column in (6) starting from the top, then go to the second column and so on. Since $(T - \lambda \text{id}_V)(v_1) = 0$, $(T - \lambda \text{id}_V)(v_i) = v_{i-1}$, $i = 2, \dots, m$, we obtain

$$T(v_1) = \lambda v_1, \quad T(v_i) = \lambda v_i + v_{i-1}, \quad i = 2, \dots, m.$$

This shows that the first m columns of the matrix of T look like

$$\begin{pmatrix}
\lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\
0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & \lambda & 1 \\
0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & \lambda
\end{pmatrix}$$

Continuing in this way we easily convince ourselves that the matrix of T in our basis is equal to the direct sum of n_1 Jordan blocks of size m , $n_2 - n_1$ Jordan blocks of size $m - 1$, and, finally, $n_m - n_{m-1}$ Jordan blocks of size 1. All of them of course have λ at the diagonal.

To finish the proof we use

Lemma 3. *Let λ be an eigenvalue of T . Then*

$$V = V(T, \lambda) \oplus W,$$

where W is invariant with respect to T and $T - \lambda \text{id}_V$ is invertible when restricted to W .

Proof. We know that $V(T, \lambda) = N((T - \lambda \text{id}_V)^m)$ for some $m > 0$. Define $W = R((T - \lambda \text{id}_V)^m)$. Then the dimensions of the spaces $V(T, \lambda)$ and W add up to $\dim V$. It remains to show that

$V(T, \lambda) \cap W = \{0\}$. If v is in the intersection we have $v = (T - \lambda \text{id}_V)^m(w)$, for some $w \in V$, and hence $0 = (T - \lambda \text{id}_V)^m(v) = (T - \lambda \text{id}_V)^{2m}(w)$. This implies that $w \in V(T, \lambda)$. But then $(T - \lambda \text{id}_V)^m(w) = 0$ and thus $v = 0$.

Now we can finish the proof. Take a Jordan basis in $V(T, \lambda)$ and extend it to some basis of V . The matrix of T is the direct sum of a Jordan matrix and a matrix of T restricted to W . It is easy to see that the determinant of a block matrix is equal to the product of determinants of the blocks. This shows that the characteristic polynomial of an operator restricted to W divides the characteristic polynomial of T (this is true for any invariant subspace, see Theorem 5.21 from the book). By assumption it factors into the product of linear polynomials. By induction on dimension of the vector space, we may assume that the theorem is true for W . Since the restriction of $T - \lambda \text{id}_V$ to W is invertible, its eigenvalues are different from λ . Thus T restricted to W has a basis such that the matrix of T is the sum of Jordan blocks with no λ at the diagonal. Taking this basis and adding to this the basis for $V(T, \lambda)$ which we have just constructed we see that the matrix of T is the sum of Jordan blocks. The theorem is proven.

Let us give one application of the theory. We know that $A^k = CJ^kC^{-1}$. For any polynomial $P(x) = a_0x^d + a_{d-1}x^{d-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_d$ define

$$P(A) = a_0A^d + a_{d-1}A^{d-1} + \dots + a_1A + a_dI_n.$$

It is immediately checked that $P(A) = CP(J)C^{-1}$. Since we know how to compute J^k , we know how to compute $P(J)$. It is enough to give a formula for $P(J_k(\lambda))$.

$$P(J_k(\lambda)) = \begin{pmatrix} P(\lambda) & P^{(1)}(\lambda) & \frac{1}{2!}P^{(2)}(\lambda) & \dots & \dots & \frac{1}{(k-1)!}P^{(k-1)}(\lambda) \\ 0 & P(\lambda) & P^{(1)}(\lambda) & \frac{1}{2!}P^{(2)}(\lambda) & \dots & \frac{1}{(k-2)!}P^{(k-2)}(\lambda) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & P(\lambda) & P^{(1)}(\lambda) \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & P(\lambda) \end{pmatrix},$$

where, by definition

$$P^{(k)}(x) = a_0 \frac{d!}{(d-k)!} x^{d-k} + a_1 \frac{(d-1)!}{(d-k-1)!} x^{d-k-1} + \dots + a_k k! a_k,$$

the familiar formula for the k -th derivative of a polynomial.

Now suppose $F = \mathbb{R}$ (or \mathbb{C} for those who is familiar with functions in one complex variable) and we are given any function $f(x) : F \rightarrow F$ such that the set of eigenvalues $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r\}$ (called the *spectrum of A*) lies in its domain of definition and also that f has $m_i + 1$ derivatives $f^{(1)}(\lambda_i), \dots, f^{(m_i+1)}(\lambda_i)$ at λ_i , where m_i is the size of the largest block of J with λ_i at the diagonal. Let

$$p_i(x) = f(\lambda_i) + f^{(1)}(\lambda_i)(x - \lambda_i) + \frac{1}{2!}f^{(2)}(\lambda_i)(x - \lambda_i)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{m_i!}f^{(m_i)}(\lambda_i)(x - \lambda_i)^{m_i}$$

be the Taylor polynomial of $f(x)$ of order m_i at the point λ_i . Let $J = J_1 \oplus \dots \oplus J_r$ be the block sum of Jordan matrices (not necessary block-matrices) J_i with λ_i at the diagonal. Then we define

$$f(A) = C(p_1(J_1) \oplus \dots \oplus p_r(J_r))C^{-1}.$$

One can prove that this definition does not depend on a choice of the jordanization $A = CJC^{-1}$. For example, one can define $e^A, \sin A, \cos A$ for all matrices, or $\log A$ for all matrices with positive eigenvalues, and check that $\frac{1}{A}$ is defined if $\det A \neq 0$ and coincides with A^{-1} .

For example, one solve a system of linear differential equations

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = A \cdot \mathbf{x}(t)$$

in one step

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{tA}\mathbf{x}_0,$$

where $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0$.

Problems

1. Find the Jordan form of the following matrices

$$a) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 4 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad b) \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -4 & 0 & 2 \\ 4 & -5 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2. For the matrix a) from Problem 1 compute A^{10} .

3. Prove that a matrix A with complex entries is nilpotent if and only if its characteristic polynomial is equal to $(-\lambda)^n$ (the assertion is true for a matrix with entries in any field).

4. Find the Jordan form of a matrix A with complex entries satisfying $A^2 = A$.

5 Let $J = J_n(0)$. Find the Jordan form of J^2 .

6. Count the number of different (up to permutation of blocks) Jordan matrices of size $n \leq 4$ with 0 at the diagonal.

7. Prove that two Jordan matrices are matrices of the same linear operator with respect to different bases if and only if one is obtained from another by permutation of its Jordan blocks.