

Special Matrices

O_2 Zero Matrix

$$O_2 = (\vec{0} \ \vec{0}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

is called the zero matrix. It satisfies the identity

$$O_2 X = X O_2 = O_2$$

$O_2 X = O_2$ follows from

$$O_2 \vec{x} = (\vec{0} \ \vec{0}) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \vec{0} + x_2 \vec{0} = \vec{0}$$

$O_2 X = O_2 (\vec{x}_1 \ \vec{x}_2) = (O_2 \vec{x}_1 \ O_2 \vec{x}_2) = (\vec{0} \ \vec{0})$

and $X O_2 = O_2$ from

$$X \vec{0} = (\vec{x}_1 \ \vec{x}_2) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \vec{x}_1 + 0 \vec{x}_2 = \vec{0}$$

$X O_2 = X (\vec{0} \ \vec{0}) = (X \vec{0} \ X \vec{0}) = (\vec{0} \ \vec{0})$

Special Matrices 2

I_2 Identity Matrix

$$I_2 = (\vec{e}_1 \ \vec{e}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

is called the **Identity Matrix**. It enjoys for a 2×2 matrix X , the identity

$$X I_2 = I_2 X = X$$

It follows from the identities

$$(\vec{a} \ \vec{b}) \vec{e}_1 = 1\vec{a} + 0\vec{b} = \vec{a}, \quad (\vec{a} \ \vec{b}) \vec{e}_2 = 0\vec{a} + 1\vec{b} = \vec{b}$$

that

$$X I_2 = (\vec{x}_1 \ \vec{x}_2) (\vec{e}_1 \ \vec{e}_2) = (\vec{x}_1 \ \vec{x}_2) = X$$

$= (\vec{x}_1 \ \vec{x}_2, \vec{e}_1 \ \vec{x}_1 \ \vec{x}_2, \vec{e}_2)$

Moreover $I_2 X = X$ from

$$(\vec{e}_1 \ \vec{e}_2) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x \vec{e}_1 + y \vec{e}_2 = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

Inverse matrix

We have the identity

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ad - bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad - bc \end{pmatrix}$$

Cofactor Matrix

For $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, its cofactor matrix is defined by $|A| = ad - bc$

$$\tilde{A} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

Then we have the identity

$$A\tilde{A} = \tilde{A}A = |A| \cdot I_2$$

Inverse Matrix 2

Assume that $|A| \neq 0$. Then multiply by $\frac{1}{|A|}$ and get

$$A \cdot \frac{1}{|A|} \tilde{A} = \frac{1}{|A|} \tilde{A} \cdot A = I_2$$

Inverse Matrix

In case $|A| \neq 0$, the **Inverse Matrix** of A is defined by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \tilde{A} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

Regularity of Matrices, Uniqueness of Inverse

Regularity of Matrices

A 2×2 matrix A is called **regular** if there exists another 2×2 matrix X satisfying

$$AX = XA = I_2$$

If $|A| \neq 0$,
the A is regular.

In this situation X is called the **inverse** of A .

- (i) If $|A| \neq 0$, A is regular.
- (ii) (Uniqueness of the inverse) Assume

$$AX = XA = I_2, \quad AY = YA = I_2$$

Then $X = Y$. In fact, from $AX = I_2$ multiplied by Y from the left follows

$$Y(AX) = YI_2 = Y$$

On the other hand, $Y(AX) = (YA)X = I_2X = X$.
Accordingly $X = Y$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ad - bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad - bc \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

In case $|A| = 0$

Theorem A

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ a 2×2 matrix with $|A| = 0$. Then there exists $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$ satisfying $A\vec{v} = \vec{0}$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d \\ -c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -b \\ a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad d = 0 \text{ and } c = 0.$$

- (i) In case $d \neq 0$ or $c \neq 0$, $\begin{pmatrix} d \\ -c \end{pmatrix} \neq \vec{0}$ AND $A \begin{pmatrix} d \\ -c \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0}$.
- (ii) In case $b \neq 0$ or $a \neq 0$, $\begin{pmatrix} -b \\ a \end{pmatrix} \neq \vec{0}$ AND $A \begin{pmatrix} -b \\ a \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0}$.
- (iii) Not (i) AND Not (ii). Then $A = O_2$.

$$\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2, \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$$

$$a = b = c = d = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A\vec{v} = \vec{0}$$

Equivalent conditions for regularity

If A is regular, then

$$A\vec{v} = \vec{0} \text{ implies } A^{-1}A\vec{v} = I_2\vec{v} = \vec{0}$$

Thus it follows from Theorem A that if $|A| = 0$ then A is not regular.

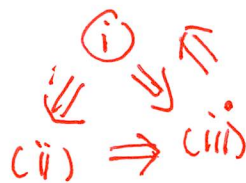
Theorem B

The following (i), (ii) and (iii) are equivalent for a 2×2 matrix A .

- (i) A is regular.
- (ii) $A\vec{v} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \vec{v} = \vec{0}$
- (iii) $|A| \neq 0$.

There exists
 $\exists \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$
 $A\vec{v} = \vec{0}$

This never happens
 if A is
 regular.



Proof for Theorem B

If $|A| = 0 \Rightarrow A$ is not regular.

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- (i) \Rightarrow (iii) The contraposition Not (iii) \Rightarrow Not (i) is already shown.
 - (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Already shown.
 - (iii) \Rightarrow (i) Already shown.
 - The contraposition Not (iii) \Rightarrow Not (ii) is given in Theorem A.

$$(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) \quad |A| = 0 \Rightarrow \text{for some } \vec{v} \neq \vec{0} \quad A\vec{v} = \vec{0}$$

contraposition of
 $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$

Addition of two 2×2 Matrices

Definition

Given two 2×2 matrices

$$A = (\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$B = (\vec{b}_1 \ \vec{b}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{b}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the 2×2 matrix $A + B$ is defined by

$$A + B = (\vec{a}_1 + \vec{b}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 + \vec{b}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_2 + \mathbf{b}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Basic Properties (1)

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- (i) $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$
- (ii) $A + O_2 = O_2 + A = A$
- (iii) $A + B = B + A$
- (iv) $\lambda(A + B) = \lambda A + \lambda B$
- (v) $(\lambda + \mu)A = \lambda A + \mu A$

$\rightarrow A + B + C$

(i) follows from $(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) + \vec{c} = \vec{a} + (\vec{b} + \vec{c})$.

(ii) follows from $\vec{a} + \vec{0} = \vec{0} + \vec{a} = \vec{a}$.

(iii) follows from $\vec{a} + \vec{b} = \vec{b} + \vec{a}$.

(v) follows from $(\lambda + \mu)\vec{a} = \lambda\vec{a} + \mu\vec{a}$.

$$\lambda(\vec{a} + \vec{c}) = \lambda\vec{a} + \lambda\vec{c}$$

(iv) is proved as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} LHS &= \lambda(\vec{a}_1 + \vec{b}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 + \vec{b}_2) = (\lambda(\vec{a}_1 + \vec{b}_1) \ \lambda(\vec{a}_2 + \vec{b}_2)) \\ &= (\lambda\vec{a}_1 + \lambda\vec{b}_1 \ \lambda\vec{a}_2 + \lambda\vec{b}_2) = (\lambda\vec{a}_1 \ \lambda\vec{a}_2) + (\lambda\vec{b}_1 \ \lambda\vec{b}_2) = RHS \end{aligned}$$

Basic Properties (2)

Basic Properties (2)

- (vi) $A(B + C) = AB + AC$

- (vii) $(B + C)A = BA + CA$

(vi) (i) follows from $A(\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = A\vec{b} + A\vec{c}$. In fact

$$LHS = A(\vec{b}_1 + \vec{c}_1 \quad \vec{b}_2 + \vec{c}_2) = (A(\vec{b}_1 + \vec{c}_1) \quad A(\vec{b}_2 + \vec{c}_2))$$

$$= (A\vec{b}_1 + A\vec{c}_1 \quad A\vec{b}_2 + A\vec{c}_2) = (\underbrace{A\vec{b}_1 \quad A\vec{b}_2}_{AB}) + (\underbrace{A\vec{c}_1 \quad A\vec{c}_2}_{AC}) = RHS$$

(vii) (ii) follows from the identity $(B + C)\vec{a} = B\vec{a} + C\vec{a}$ which is derived as follows.

$$LHS = (\vec{b}_1 + \vec{c}_1 \quad \vec{b}_2 + \vec{c}_2) \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = a_1(\vec{b}_1 + \vec{c}_1) + a_2(\vec{b}_2 + \vec{c}_2)$$

$$= \dots = (a_1\vec{b}_1 + a_2\vec{b}_2) + (a_1\vec{c}_1 + a_2\vec{c}_2) = RHS$$

$$= B \vec{a}$$

$$= C \vec{a}$$

Theorem of Cayley and Hamilton

In the case of 2×2 matrices

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Nobuyuki TOSE Theorem of Cayley and Hamilton

Notation and a Remark

Notation $M_2(\mathbf{R})$

The set of 2×2 matrices with value in \mathbf{R} is denoted by

$$M_2(\mathbf{R}) := \{A; 2 \times 2 \text{ matrix with value in } \mathbf{R}\}$$

Remark and Notation

We have already seen that

$$A, B \in M_2(\mathbf{R}) \Rightarrow AB \in M_2(\mathbf{R})$$

The n th power of $A \in M_2(\mathbf{R})$ can be defined by

$$A^n = \underbrace{A \cdots A}_{n \text{ copies}} \in M_2(\mathbf{R})$$

or recursively by

$$A^n = A^{n-1}A, \quad A^0 = I_2$$

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An Application

We make it in the following two forms:

$$A(A + I_2) = 5(A + I_2), \quad A(A - 5I_2) = -(A - 5I_2) = A(A - 5I_2)$$

Accordingly we get

$$A(A + I_2) = 5(A + I_2), \quad A(A - 5I_2) = -(A - 5I_2)$$

We use these identities repeatedly to get

$$A^n(A + I_2) = 5^n(A + I_2), \quad A^n(A - 5I_2) = (-1)^n(A - 5I_2)$$

Namely

$$A^{n+1} + A^n = 5^n(A + I_2), \quad A^{n+1} - 5A^n = (-1)^n(A - 5I_2)$$

This leads us to $A^n = \frac{1}{6} 5^n (A + I_2) - \frac{1}{6} (-1)^n (A - 5I_2)$

$$6A^n = 5^n(A + I_2) - (-1)^n(A - 5I_2)$$

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Theorem of Cayley and Hamilton

$$\begin{aligned} A^2(A + I_2) &= A \cdot A(A + I_2) = A \cdot (5(A + I_2)) \\ &= 5A(A + I_2) = 5 \cdot 5(A + I_2) = 5^2(A + I_2) \\ A^3(A + I_2) &= A \cdot A^2(A + I_2) = A \cdot 5^2(A + I_2) \\ &= 5^2A(A + I_2) = 5^2 \cdot 5(A + I_2) \end{aligned}$$

Polynomials of matrices

We can form polynomials in the matrix $A \in M_2(\mathbf{R})$.

Definition

For any polynomial

$$f(\lambda) = a_n \lambda^n + \cdots + a_1 \lambda + a_0$$

we define

$$f(A) := a_n A^n + \cdots + a_1 A + a_0 I_2$$

Basic properties of this operation is given in the following theorem.

Theorem

For f, g polynomials in λ , we have

$$(f + g)(A) = f(A) + g(A), \quad (f \cdot g)(A) = f(A) \cdot g(A)$$

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Theorem of Cayley and Hamilton

Theorem of Cayley and Hamilton

Theorem

For $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, we have

$$A^2 - (a + d)A + |A| \cdot I_2 = O_2$$

(proof)

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + bc & ab + bd \\ ca + dc & cb + d^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + bc & b(a + d) \\ c(a + d) & cb + d^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(a + d)A = \begin{pmatrix} (a + d)a & (a + d)b \\ (a + d)c & (a + d)d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + ad & (a + d)b \\ (a + d)c & ad + d^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^2 - (a + d)A = \begin{pmatrix} bc - ad & 0 \\ 0 & bc - ad \end{pmatrix} = -|A| \cdot I_2$$

Add

$|A| I_2$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^2 - (a + d)A + (ad - bc)I_2 = O_2$$

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Theorem of Cayley and Hamilton

An Application

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$. Then it follows from Theorem of C-H that

$$A^2 - 4A - 5I_2 = O_2$$

$5 + (-1) = 4$
 $= (-1) \cdot 5$

We associate to A the *eigen-polynomial* of A :

$$\Phi_A(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - 4\lambda - 5 = (\lambda + 1)(\lambda - 5)$$

Then the Vieta's Theorem leads us to

$$5 + (-1) = 4, \quad (-1) \cdot 5 = -5$$

Thus we get

$$A^2 - ((-1) + 5)A + (-1)5I_2 = O_2$$

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Theorem of Cayley and Hamilton