## A Geometric Proof of the Jordan Canonical Form of a matrix A

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Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix. We say that u is an eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$  if

$$(A - \lambda I)u = 0.$$

We way u is a generalized eigenvector if there exists N > 1 such that

$$(A - \lambda I)^N u = 0.$$

We want to show that there exists a basis of n generalized eigenvectors

$$P = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$$

such that

$$P^{-1}AP = \operatorname{diag}(B_i),$$

where  $B_i$  is a square matrix of the form

$$B_i = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 1 \dots 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \lambda_i \dots 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \dots \lambda_i \end{pmatrix} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_i) + N_i.$$

The matrix  $N_i$  is nilpotent. See:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nilpotent\_matrix

The proof is divided into several lemmas, which are of independent interest.

For each  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ , let  $A_{\lambda} = A - \lambda I$ . Let  $X = \mathbb{C}^n$ .

## Lemma 0.1.

$$X \supset R(A_{\lambda}) \supset \cdots \supset R(A_{\lambda}^{k}) \supset R(A_{\lambda}^{k+1}),$$
  
 $R(A_{\lambda}^{k+1}) = A_{\lambda}R(A_{\lambda}^{k})$ 

## Lemma 0.2.

$$0 \in N(A_{\lambda}) \subset N(A_{\lambda}^{2}) \subset \cdots \subset N(A_{\lambda}^{k}) \subset N(A_{\lambda}^{k+1}),$$
  
$$N(A_{\lambda}^{k+1}) = A_{\lambda}^{-1} N(A_{\lambda}^{k}),$$

where  $A_{\lambda}^{-1}$  denotes the pre-image of the mapping  $A_{\lambda}$ .

**Definition 0.3.** There exists  $k \geq 0$  such that  $N(A_{\lambda}^k) = N(A_{\lambda}^{k+1})$ . The smallest such number is called the ascent of  $A_{\lambda}$ , and is denoted by  $\alpha(A_{\lambda})$ .

There exists  $k \geq 0$  such that  $R(A_{\lambda}^k) = R(A_{\lambda}^{k+1})$ . The smallest such number is called the descent of  $A_{\lambda}$ , and is denoted by  $\delta(A_{\lambda})$ .

**Remark 0.4.** (1) If  $\alpha(A_{\lambda}) = 0$ , then  $A_{\lambda}$  is nonsingular. If  $\delta(A_{\lambda}) = 0$ , then  $R(A_{\lambda}) = X$ . Again  $A_{\lambda}$  is nonsingular. Thus,  $\alpha(A_{\lambda}) = 0$  is equivalent to  $\delta(A_{\lambda}) = 0$ .

(2)  $R(A_{\lambda}^k) = R(A_{\lambda}^{k+1})$  for all  $k \geq \delta(A_{\lambda})$ . Similarly  $N(A_{\lambda}^k) = N(A_{\lambda}^{k+1})$  for all  $k \geq \alpha(A_{\lambda})$ .

**Lemma 0.5.**  $\alpha := \alpha(A_{\lambda}) = \delta := \delta(A_{\lambda}).$ 

*Proof.* The proof is divided into two parts:

(1) Show  $\alpha \leq \delta$ .

Since  $N(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha-1}) \neq N(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha})$ , there exists  $x_0 \in N(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha})$  but  $x_0 \neq N(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha-1})$ . Thus,  $y = A_{\lambda}^{\alpha-1} x_0 \neq 0$  but  $A_{\lambda}^{\alpha} x_0 = 0$ . This shows that  $\dim R(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha}) < \dim R(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha-1})$ . Thus  $R(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha-1}) \neq R(A_{\lambda}^{\alpha})$ . Therefore  $\delta(A_{\lambda}) \geq \alpha(A_{\lambda})$ .

(2) Show  $\delta \leq \alpha$ .

Since  $R(A_{\lambda}^{\delta-1}) \neq R(A_{\lambda}^{\delta})$ , there exists  $y \in R(A_{\lambda}^{\delta-1}), y \neq 0$  but  $A_{\lambda}y = 0$ . Let  $y = A_{\lambda}^{\delta-1}x_0$ . Then  $A_{\lambda}^{\delta-1}x_0 \neq 0$  but  $A_{\lambda}^{\delta}x_0 = 0$ . This shows that  $N(A_{\lambda}^{\delta-1}) \neq N(A_{\lambda}^{\delta})$ . Therefore  $\alpha(A_{\lambda}) \geq \delta(A_{\lambda})$ .

**Lemma 0.6.** Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of A, and  $p := \alpha(A_{\lambda}) = \delta(A_{\lambda})$ . Then:

- (1) The matrix  $A_{\lambda}$  is nonsingular in  $R(A_{\lambda}^{p})$ .
- (2) Let  $\mu \neq \lambda$ . Then the matrix  $A_{\mu}$  is nonsingular in  $N(A_{\lambda}^{p})$ .

*Proof.* (1) If there exists  $x \in R(A_{\lambda}^{p})$  such that  $A_{\lambda}x = 0$ , then  $A_{\lambda}R(A_{\lambda}^{p}) \neq R(A_{\lambda}^{p})$ , contradicting to  $p = \delta(A_{\lambda})$ .

(2) Assume that there exists  $x \in N(A_{\lambda}^{p})$  such that  $A_{\mu}x = 0$ . Since  $x \in N(A_{\lambda}^{p})$ , there exists an integer  $k \geq 0$  such that  $A_{\lambda}^{k-1}x \neq 0$ ,  $A_{\lambda}^{k}x = 0$ . Applying  $A_{\lambda}^{k-1}$  to

$$A_{\lambda}x + (\lambda - \mu)x = 0,$$

we have  $(\lambda - \mu)A_{\lambda}^{k-1}x = 0$ . This can occur only if  $\lambda - \mu = 0$ .

Our next man result shows that X is a direct sum of two invariant subspaces  $R(A_{\lambda}^{p}) \oplus N(A_{\lambda}^{p}) = X$ , where  $\lambda$  is nonsingular on  $R(A_{\lambda}^{p})$  and  $\lambda$  is the only eigenvalue for  $N(A_{\lambda}^{p})$ .

**Lemma 0.7.** Let  $p = \alpha(A_{\lambda}) = \delta(A_{\lambda})$ . Then

$$R(A_{\lambda}^p) \oplus N(A_{\lambda}^p) = X.$$

*Proof.* (1) We show that  $R(A_{\lambda}^p) \cap N(A_{\lambda}^p) = 0$ .

If  $y \in R(A_{\lambda}^p) \cap N(A_{\lambda}^p)$ , then  $y = A_{\lambda}^p x$  and  $A_{\lambda}^p y = 0$ . Thus  $A_{\lambda}^{2p} x = 0$ .  $x \in N(A_{\lambda}^{2p}) = N(A_{\lambda}^p)$ . Thus  $A_{\lambda}^p x = 0$ . This implies y = 0.

(2) We show that for any  $x \in X$ , there exist  $x_1 \in R(A_{\lambda}^p)$ ,  $x_2 \in N(A_{\lambda}^p)$  such that  $x = x_1 + x_2$ .

Consider  $A_{\lambda}^p x \in R(A_{\lambda}^p) = R(A_{\lambda}^{2p})$ . There exists y such that  $A_{\lambda}^{2p} y = A_{\lambda}^p x$ . Thus

$$A_{\lambda}^{p}(x - A_{\lambda}^{p}y) = 0.$$

Let  $x_1 = A_{\lambda}^p y$ , and  $x_2 = x - x_1$ . Then  $x_1 \in R(A_{\lambda}^p)$ ,  $x_2 \in N(A_{\lambda}^p)$ .

Let

$$\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$$

be a list of all the distinct eigenvalues of A, each associated with a unique

$$p_i = \alpha(A_{\lambda_i}) = \delta(A_{\lambda_i}).$$

We have shown

$$R(A_{\lambda_i}^{p_i}) \oplus N(A_{\lambda_i}^{p_i}) = X.$$

Clearly  $N(A_{\lambda_i}^{p_i})$  is the generalized eigenspace for  $\lambda_i$ . We now show

## Lemma 0.8.

$$\bigoplus_i N(A_{\lambda_i}^{p_i}) = X.$$

*Proof.* (1) We show that the generalized eigenspaces, each corresponding to a distinct  $\lambda_i$ , are linearly independent. Let k be the smallest integer such that  $x_1 + \cdots + x_k = 0$  where we assume, without loss of generality,  $x_j \in N(A_{\lambda_i}^{p_j})$  and is nonzero.

Applying  $A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1}$  to  $x_1 + \cdots + x_k = 0$ , we have

$$A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1} x_2 + \dots + A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1} x_k = 0.$$

From Lemma 0.6,  $A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1}$  is nonsingular in each of its invariant subspace  $N(A_{\lambda_j}^{p_j}), j \neq 1$ , and thus  $y_j := A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1} x_j \neq 0$ . We have  $y_2 + \cdots + y_k = 0$ . This is a contradiction to the minimal property of k.

(2) For any  $x \in X$ , we show, by induction, that it is possible to express x as  $x = x_1 + \dots + x_m$  with  $x_i \in N(A_{\lambda_i}^{p^i})$ .

If m=1, then  $R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1}) \oplus N(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1})$ . From Lemma 0.6,  $\lambda_1$  is not an eigenvalue of A restricted to  $R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1})$ . If  $R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1}) \neq 0$ , then the restriction of A to it has no eigenvalue. This is a contradiction. Thus  $R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1}) = 0$  and  $X = N(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1})$ .

If the lemma is true for m-1, then consider all the invariant subspaces

$$N(A_{\lambda_2}^{p_2}), \ldots, N(A_{\lambda_m}^{p_m}).$$

They are all contained in  $R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1})$  because from Lemma 0.6,  $A_{\lambda_1}$  is nonsingular in each  $N(A_{\lambda_j}^{p_j}), j \geq 2$ . Therefore, if A is restricted to  $R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1})$ , it has all the eigenvalues  $\lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_m$  but not  $\lambda_1$ . This is due to Lemma 0.6 that  $\lambda_1$  is not an eigenvalue in  $R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1})$ . Based on the induction assumption, for the case of m-1 eigenvalues, we have

$$R(A_{\lambda_1}^{p_1}) = \bigoplus_{2 \le j \le m} N(A_{\lambda_j}^{p_j}).$$

Thus

$$X = \bigoplus_{1 \le j \le m} N(A_{\lambda_j}^{p_j}).$$

To finish the construction of the Jordan canonical form, it remains to show that in each generalized eigenspace  $N(A_{\lambda_j}^{p_j})$ , a cyclic basis can be selected. The idea of the proof is illustrated in Figure 1.

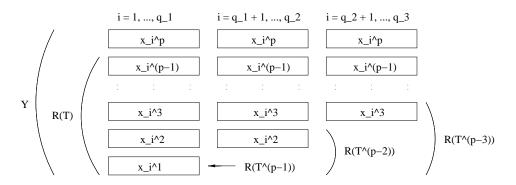


FIGURE 1. A cyclic basis can be selected for  $N(A_{\lambda}^{p})$ .

Let T be the restriction of the matrix  $A_{\lambda}$  to  $Y:=N(A_{\lambda}^{p})$  where  $\lambda$  is one of the  $\lambda_{j}$  and  $p=p_{j}$ . Since  $T^{p}=0$  but  $T^{p-1}\neq 0$ ,  $R(T^{p-1})\neq 0$ . Let  $(x_{1}^{1},\ldots,x_{q_{1}}^{1})$  be a basis of  $R(T^{p-1})$ . Each  $x_{i}^{1}$  can be written as  $x_{i}^{1}=T^{p-1}x_{i}^{p}$  for some  $x_{i}^{p}\in Y, i=1,\ldots,q_{1}$ . If p>1, set  $T^{p-2}x_{i}^{p}=x_{i}^{2}$ , so that  $Tx_{i}^{2}=x_{i}^{1}$ . The vectors  $x_{i}^{k}, k=1,2, i=1,\ldots,q_{1}$ , belong to  $R(T^{p-2})$  and are linearly independent. In fact,  $\sum \alpha_{i}x_{i}^{2}+\sum \beta_{i}x_{i}^{1}=0$  implies  $\sum \alpha_{i}x_{i}^{2}=0$  on applying T and hence  $\alpha_{i}=0$  for all i, hence  $\sum \beta_{i}x_{i}^{1}=0$  and  $\beta_{i}=0$  for all i. We can enlarge the family  $\{x_{i}^{k}\}$  to a basis of  $R(T^{p-2})$  by adding, if necessary, new vectors  $x_{q_{1}+1}^{2},\ldots,x_{q_{2}}^{2}$ ; here we can arrange that  $Tx_{i}^{2}=0$  for  $i>q_{1}$ . (Proof: Consider  $Tx_{i}^{2},i>q_{1}$ , which are in  $R(T^{p-1})$ . Therefore  $Tx_{i}^{2},i>q_{1}$  can be written as a linear combination of  $x_{i}^{1},i=1,\ldots,q_{1}$ . We then subtracting  $x_{i}^{2},i>q_{1}$ , by a linear combination of  $x_{i}^{2},i=1,\ldots,q_{1}$  with the same coefficients. This yields is a revised set of new vectors which are mapped to 0 by T.)

If p > 2, we can repeat the process the same way. Finally, we arrive at a basis  $\{x_i^k\}$  of Y with the following properties:  $k = 1, \ldots, p, j = 1, \ldots, q_k, q_1 \leq q_2 \leq \cdots \leq q_p$ ,

$$Tx_j^k = \begin{cases} x_j^{k-1}, & 1 \le j \le q_{k-1}, \\ 0, & q_{k-1} + 1 \le j \le q_k, \end{cases}$$

where we set  $q_0 = 0$ .

If we arrange the basis  $\{x_j^k\}$  in the order  $\{x_1^1, \ldots, x_1^p, x_2^1, \ldots, x_2^p, \ldots\}$ , the matrix of T with respect to this basis takes the form

Figures that illustrate the proofs.