

## Lecture 14

### Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

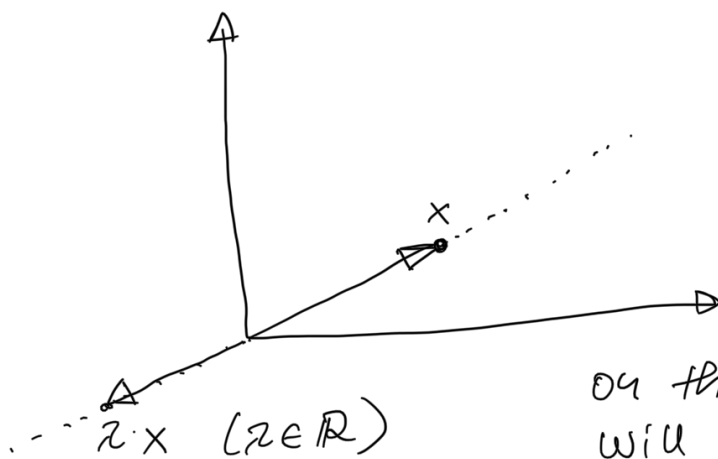
Definition: Assume that  $A$  is a square matrix. A nonzero vector  $x$  that satisfies the equation

$$Ax = \lambda \cdot x$$

is called an eigenvector of the matrix  $A$ , and the number  $\lambda$  is called an eigenvalue of  $A$ .

Remark: If we apply  $A$  to an eigenvector  $x$  (i.e., we compute  $A \cdot x$ ), the result is a multiple of  $x$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Geometric interpretation:



If we draw a straight line through the origin in the direction of an eigenvector, then any vector on this straight line will remain on the line after the map  $A$  is applied.

Example: Find all eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Solution:  $\underbrace{Ax = \lambda x}$

$$\Rightarrow Ax - \lambda x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow Ax - \lambda \cdot \underbrace{I_2}_{\text{identity matrix}} x = 0$$

$$(\text{as } I_2 x = x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{(A - \lambda I_2)}_{\sim \sim \sim} x = 0$$

This is a homogeneous system.

In order to obtain a nontrivial solution ( $x \neq 0$ ),  $A - \lambda I_2$  must be singular:

$$\det(A - \lambda I_2) = 0.$$

(because if  $\det(\dots) \neq 0$ , then we have exactly one solution, namely  $x = 0$ ).

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow A - \lambda I_2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} - \lambda \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 2 \\ 3 & 2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I_2) &= (1 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) - 2 \cdot 3 \\ &= 2 - \lambda - 2\lambda + \lambda^2 - 6 \\ &= \lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 4 \\ &= (\lambda + 1)(\lambda - 4) \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 4$ . These are the eigenvalues of  $A$ .

To compute the eigenvectors, we solve

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•  $Ax = -x$  for  $\lambda_1 = -1$

•  $Ax = 4x$  for  $\lambda_2 = 4$ .

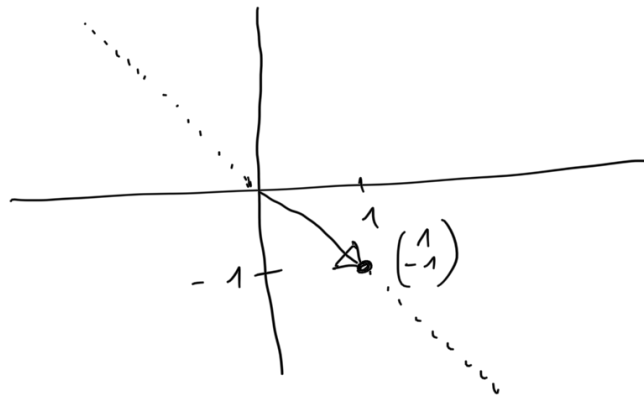
•  $Ax = -x \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -x_1 \\ -x_2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} x_1 + 2x_2 &= -x_1 \\ 3x_1 + 2x_2 &= -x_2 \end{aligned}$

$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} 2x_1 + 2x_2 &= 0 & | : 2 \\ 3x_1 + 3x_2 &= 0 & | : 3 \end{aligned} \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + 2x_2 &= 0 \\ 3x_1 + 3x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{these equations} \\ \text{are identical!}$

$x_1 + x_2 = 0$

$\Rightarrow$  All vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$  that satisfy  $x_1 + x_2 = 0$  are eigenvectors to the eigenvalue  $\lambda_1 = -1$ .  
For example,  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector associated to the eigenvalue  $\lambda_1 = -1$  of  $A$ .



•  $Ax = 4x \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4x_1 \\ 4x_2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} x_1 + 2x_2 &= 4x_1 \\ 3x_1 + 2x_2 &= 4x_2 \end{aligned}$

$\Rightarrow -2x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \quad | \cdot (-1) \left. \vphantom{-2x_1 + 2x_2 = 0} \right\} \text{these} \\ \text{two are}$

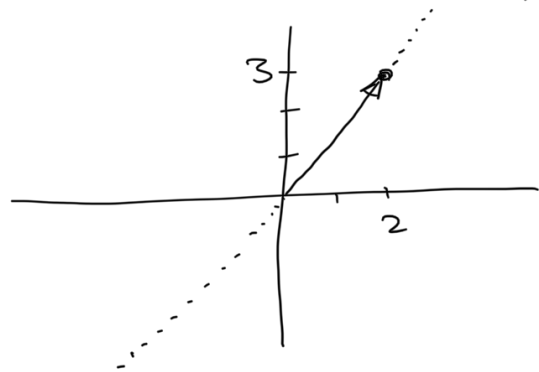
$$3x_1 - 2x_2 = 0$$

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$$\Rightarrow \boxed{3x_1 - 2x_2 = 0}$$

$\Rightarrow$  All vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$  that satisfy  $3x_1 = 2x_2$  are eigenvectors associated to the eigenvalue  $\lambda_2 = 4$  of  $A$ .

For example,  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector.



Eigenvectors are not unique, they are determined only up to a multiplicative constant.

When the eigenvalues are real (as they are in this course), all eigenvectors corresponding to a particular eigenvalue lie on the same straight line through the origin.

Indeed, when  $x$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  corr. to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , then  $\alpha \cdot x$  is also an eigenvector of  $A$ , ( $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ )

because:

$$\begin{aligned} A \cdot (\underline{\alpha x}) &= \alpha \cdot (\underline{Ax}) = \alpha \cdot (\underline{\lambda x}) \\ &= \lambda \cdot (\underline{\alpha x}). \end{aligned}$$

Example: Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Solution: To find the eigenvalues of  $A$ , we solve

$$\det(A - \lambda I_2) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 4 \\ 1 & -2-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (1-\lambda)(-2-\lambda) - 4 \cdot 1$$

$$= -2 - \lambda + 2\lambda + \lambda^2 - 4$$

$$= \lambda^2 + \lambda - 6$$

$$= (\lambda - 2)(\lambda + 3) \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = -3$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$ .

• Eigenvectors corr. to  $\lambda_1 = 2$ :

$$Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 \\ 2x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \begin{array}{l} x_1 + 4x_2 = 2x_1 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 = 2x_2 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \underbrace{\begin{array}{l} -x_1 + 4x_2 = 0 \\ x_1 - 4x_2 = 0 \end{array}}_{\text{both equations are identical}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{x_1 - 4x_2 = 0}$$

$\Rightarrow$  All vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$  with  $x_1 = 4x_2$  are eigenvectors w.r.t.  $\lambda_1 = 2$ .

For example,  $\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector w.r.t.  $\lambda_1$ .

- eigenvectors corr. to  $\lambda_2 = -3$  :

$$Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3x_1 \\ -3x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 + 4x_2 = -3x_1$$

$$\Rightarrow 4x_1 + 4x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{x_1 + x_2 = 0}$$

$\Rightarrow$  All vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$  with  $x_1 = -x_2$

are eigenvectors w.r.t.  $\lambda_2 = -3$ .

For example,  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector w.r.t.  $\lambda_2$ .

When a matrix  $A$  is

- diagonal ( $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{pmatrix}$ )

- upper triangular ( $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix}$ )

- lower triangular ( $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ ),

then the eigenvalues are precisely the diagonal elements.

Example : Find the eigenvalues of

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

$$\Rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I_2) = \det\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} - \lambda \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

$$= \det\begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (1-\lambda)(2-\lambda) \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 2$$

$\rightarrow \lambda_1 = \dots =$

Example: Find all eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

• Eigenvalues:

$$\det(A - \lambda I_2) = \det\left(\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

$$= \det\begin{pmatrix} -2-\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & -1-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (-2-\lambda)(-1-\lambda) - 1 \cdot 0 \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = -2, \lambda_2 = -1.$$

• Eigenvectors corr. to  $\lambda_1 = -2$ :

$$Ax = \lambda_1 x$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2x_1 \\ -2x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} -2x_1 + \overset{=0}{x_2} &= -2x_1 &\Rightarrow -2x_1 &= -2x_1 \\ -x_2 &= -2x_2 &\Rightarrow x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow -2x_1 = -2x_1$ : Any value of  $x_1$  satisfies this equation!

However, we cannot choose  $x_1 = 0$ , as  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  cannot be an eigenvector.

$\Rightarrow$  E.g.,  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector associated to  $\lambda_1 = -2$ .

• Eigenvectors corr. to  $\lambda_2 = -1$ :

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$$Ax = \lambda_2 x$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -x_1 \\ -x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} -2x_1 + x_2 &= -x_1 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 \\ -x_2 &= -x_2 \end{aligned}$$

The second equation ( $-x_2 = -x_2$ ) means that any value of  $x_2$  is allowed. From the first equation, we get  $x_1 = x_2$ . This means that any vector  $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$  with  $x_1 = x_2$ ,  $x \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , is an eigenvector of  $A$  w.r.t.  $\lambda_2 = -1$ .

$\Rightarrow$  E.g., the vector  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector.

Suppose that  $A$  is a square matrix and that  $x$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ :

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

$$A^2 x = A(Ax) = \lambda(Ax) = \lambda^2 x$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^3 x &= A(A^2 x) = A(\lambda^2 x) \\ &= \lambda^2(Ax) \\ &= \lambda^3 x \end{aligned}$$

⋮

$$\boxed{A^n x = \lambda^n x} \text{ for any positive integer } n \geq 1.$$

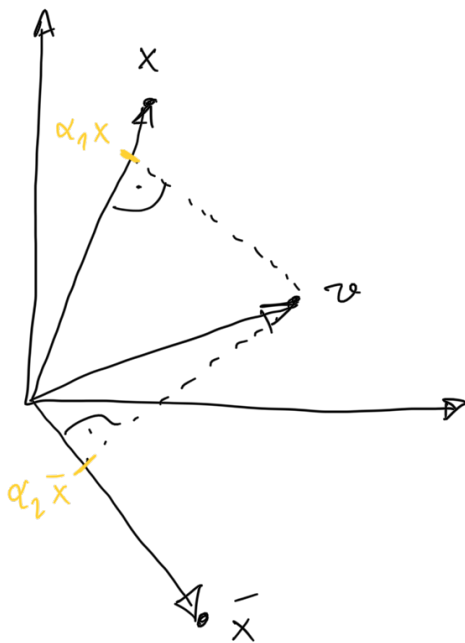
In other words: If  $x$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

of  $A$  corr. to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ ,  
 $x$  will also be an eigenvector of  $A^N$   
 corr. to the eigenvalue  $\lambda^N$ .

This analysis is useful if we want to  
 find vectors of the form  $A^N v$ ,  
 where  $v$  is some arbitrary vector  
 (not necessarily an eigenvector of  $A$ ),  
 and  $N$  is a big integer.

Suppose we are given some vector  $v$ .  
 If we know two eigenvectors  $x, \bar{x}$   
 of  $A$ , we can analyze  $v$  as

$$v = \alpha_1 \cdot x + \alpha_2 \cdot \bar{x}.$$



Then, with e.g.  $N=1000$   
 $A^{1000} v = A^{1000} (\alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 \bar{x})$   
 $= \alpha_1 (A^{1000} x) + \alpha_2 (A^{1000} \bar{x})$   
 $= \alpha_1 \lambda_1^{1000} x + \alpha_2 \lambda_2^{1000} \bar{x}$   
 (it is much easier  
 to calculate  $\lambda_1^{1000}$ ,  
 $\lambda_2^{1000}$  than  $A^{1000}$ )

Example: Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ . Find  $A^{10} v$ ,  
 where  $v = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

... are  $\lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 4$



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