

- A matrix M acts as a linear transformation that maps a standard basis $\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n$ to a new set of vectors $M\vec{e}_1, M\vec{e}_2, \dots, M\vec{e}_n$.
- This transformation can change the coordinates or scale of vectors.
- The new set of vectors might not always form a basis (if, for example, they become linearly dependent), but that topic is mentioned as something to explore later.

2. Example 1: Rotational Matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- This matrix rotates the unit vectors cyclically:
 - $x \rightarrow y \rightarrow z \rightarrow x$
- In other words, this transformation changes:
 - $(1, 0, 0) \rightarrow (0, 1, 0)$
 - $(0, 1, 0) \rightarrow (0, 0, 1)$
 - $(0, 0, 1) \rightarrow (1, 0, 0)$ ↓

- This is called a cyclic permutation of the components, and it rotates around the $[111]$ axis, meaning equal contribution of x, y, z .

3. Example 2: Scaling Matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2.54 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2.54 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2.54 \end{pmatrix}$$

- This matrix rescales all the axes by a factor of 2.54:
 - Converting between centimeters (cm) and inches (in).
- The multiplication by 2.54 increases each axis proportionally.
- Since volume is calculated as the product of lengths along all three axes, the volume scales by: $(2.54)^3$
 - Numerically, the volume increases by this factor.
 - Physically, the actual volume remains the same, but its representation in a different unit system (inches vs. centimeters) changes.

• One might wish to scale units differently for the coordinates, like km and miles in x and y , but m or yard for z (land maps; maintain height vs horizontal distances) ← we get matrix like this

• In data science, one often has correlated data to optimize: but we might get the same data in different coordinate systems.

Can we "extract" some properties from a given matrix that describes "what it does"?

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Definition of eigenvalue and eigenvector

Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix with entries from \mathbb{R} .

Definition: Given a real $n \times n$ matrix A , a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (with $x \neq \vec{0}$) is an **eigenvector** of A with **eigenvalue** λ if $Ax = \lambda x$

- ▶ A is a $(n \times n)$ matrix and x is $(n \times 1)$ so Ax is $(n \times 1)$
- ▶ Note that in general Ax need not be a multiple of x at all!

Example: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ and $x = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Then $Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} \neq \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

Easy to see that Ax is not x multiplied by any constant!

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Example: $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ Then

► A is a $(n \times n)$ matrix and x is $(n \times 1)$ so Ax is $(n \times 1)$

► Note that in general Ax need not be a multiple of x at all

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Example: $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ Then

$Bx = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

So $\lambda = -1$ is one eigenvalue.

Can you find the second one, and its eigenvector?

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Definition of eigenvalue and eigenvector

Let F be a field, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and F^n a n -dimensional vector space with linear mappings (in the vector space) represented by matrices $M \in F^{n \times n}$.

Definition: $\lambda_i \in F$ is called an **eigenvalue** of M to the **eigenvector** $\vec{x}_i \in F^n, \vec{x}_i \neq \vec{0}$, if $M\vec{x}_i = \lambda_i \vec{x}_i$

- For λ_j , we can expect up to n different solutions
- For each eigenvalue λ_i , we can solve for \vec{x}_i .
- We obtain up to n pairs (eigenvalue, eigenvector) λ_i, \vec{x}_i .
- Some k eigenvalues may be identical ("degenerate"), then these form a k -dimensional subspace

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How to find eigenvalues & eigenvectors of A

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

We want to find an $(n \times 1)$ vector x such that there exists constants λ satisfying $Ax = \lambda x$.

$Ax = \lambda x = \lambda Ix$ where $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Therefore, $(A - \lambda I)x = \vec{0}$

- Let $B = (A - \lambda I)$
- If B has an inverse, say B^{-1} , then we can multiply above equation on both sides by it to get $\vec{0} = B^{-1} \vec{0} = B^{-1}(Bx) = (B^{-1}B)x = Ix = x$
- So, the only solution is $x = \vec{0}$ if $(A - \lambda I)$ has an inverse
- Need to see when $(A - \lambda I)$ does not have an inverse

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Finding eigenvalues (cont'd)

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$. We define $\det(A) = ad - bc$

More complicated definition of determinant for $(n \times n)$ matrices when $n \geq 3$

For any $n \times n$ matrix A , it has an inverse if and only if $\det(A) \neq 0$

Example from previous slide: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

- Want to see for which constants λ_i does $(A - \lambda_i I)$ not have an inverse
- That is, for which constants λ_i is $\det(A - \lambda_i I) = 0$

$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda_i & -1 \\ 2 & -1 - \lambda_i \end{pmatrix}$

$0 = \det(A - \lambda_i I) = (1 - \lambda_i)(-1 - \lambda_i) - (-2) = \lambda_i^2 + 1$

If the matrix A is real and symmetric, then all eigenvalues are real numbers

Eigenvalues can be complex even if the matrix A has real entries ($\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$)

- You will see examples of this next semester(s) in AI and Data Science
- Many other examples in Physics, Robotics, Control, Signal Processing, ...

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Finding eigenvectors from eigenvalues

If we know an eigenvalue λ_i for a $(n \times n)$ matrix A , then we can compute the eigenvector corresponding to it by solving the equation $Ax = \lambda_i x$

- Solve using Gaussian elimination

(but we first have to find the eigenvalues!)

Two steps for finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a $(n \times n)$ matrix A :

- First, find all eigenvalues by solving $\det(A - \lambda_i I) = 0$ (characteristic equation)
Note: $\det(A - \lambda_i I) = 0$ is a polynomial of degree n (characteristic polynomial)
- Then, for each eigenvalue λ_i , find the corresponding eigenvector x by solving $Ax = \lambda_i x$ using Gaussian elimination

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Eigenvalues of a non-symmetric matrix

(23) $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ with $b \neq c$

Example: $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Then $0 \neq \det(M - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda^2 + 1$

Complex Numbers

"define" i as solution of $i^2 = -1$ (also $-i$ then is a solution)

and "write" $i = \sqrt{-1}$ (also $-i$ then is a solution)

Here, we get $\lambda_1 = i = \sqrt{-1}$, $\lambda_2 = -i = -\sqrt{-1}$.

Complex Numbers (blinded version)

For any complex number $z \in \mathbb{C}$, there are $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

$z \in \mathbb{C} \Leftrightarrow z = x + iy$ with $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

$x = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}$ (real part)

$y = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$ (imaginary part)

$x = \operatorname{Re}(z)$ | $y = \operatorname{Im}(z)$

Complex Numbers (Wiskal version)

For any complex number $z \in \mathbb{C}$, there are $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $z = x + iy$

(i) $z \in \mathbb{R} \iff z = x + i \cdot 0 \iff z = x \in \mathbb{R}$ (Real part)

(ii) $z \in \mathbb{C} \iff z = x + iy$ (Imaginary part)

$x = (z + \bar{z})/2$
 $y = (z - \bar{z})/2i$

$x = \operatorname{Re}(z)$
 $y = \operatorname{Im}(z)$

Def: complex conjugate and solution of $z^2 = -1$
 $\bar{z} = x - iy$
 $i^2 = -1$

We need to multiply complex numbers:
 $(x + iy)(a + ib) = xa + iya + ixb + i^2 yb = (xa - yb) + i(ya + xb)$

Using polar coordinates

$x = r \cdot \cos(\varphi)$
 $y = r \cdot \sin(\varphi)$

$z = x + iy = r \cdot (\cos(\varphi) + i \sin(\varphi)) = r \cdot e^{i\varphi} = r \cdot \exp(i\varphi)$

Norm $\|z\|^2 = x^2 + y^2 = (x + iy)(x - iy) = (x - iy)(x + iy) = z \cdot \bar{z} \Rightarrow \|z\| = \sqrt{z \cdot \bar{z}}$

Need inner product to be defined as
 $\langle \vec{z}_1, \vec{z}_2 \rangle = (\vec{z}_1)_1 (\vec{z}_2)_1 + (\vec{z}_1)_2 (\vec{z}_2)_2$

Eigenvalues (R-vectors) of a rotation matrix

$R = \begin{pmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix}$ with $c^2 + s^2 = 1$, $c = \cos \varphi$, $s = \sin \varphi$

$\det(R - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} c - \lambda & -s \\ s & c - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (c - \lambda)^2 + s^2 = (c - \lambda)^2 - (is)^2$

$\alpha - c = is$
 $\alpha - c = -is$

$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 = c + is$ and $\alpha_2 = c - is$ or $\alpha_2 = \bar{\alpha}_1$

Eigenvectors & coordinate transforms

$R = \begin{pmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha_1 = c + is$, $v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$, $v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$

Now define $D := \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{pmatrix}$

Then $T^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix}$ (Bk: verify $TT^{-1} = I$)

$TDT^{-1} = T \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot T^{-1} = \dots = \begin{pmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix} = R$

$TDT^{-1} = RT$ (Even if T not invertible, T^{-1} would hold)

Simplifying T^{-1} using the complex conjugate and rationalisation rules

$$T^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix}$$

Motivation, cont'd

If for some \vec{x}_i the matrix M only stretches \vec{x}_i by some factor λ_i , this means that

$M \vec{x}_i = \lambda_i \vec{x}_i$ Eigenvalue & Eigenvector equation

What does that mean?

We need to exclude the zero vector $\vec{0}$

$M \vec{x}_i = \lambda_i \vec{x}_i \iff (M - \lambda_i I) \vec{x}_i = \vec{0}$

Result: For $A \vec{x} = \vec{0}$, we have 2 cases: $\begin{cases} \text{a unique solution } \vec{x} = \vec{0} \\ \text{if } \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}, \text{ for any } \lambda \end{cases}$

Hence, \vec{x}_i is a nontrivial solution if and only if $A(\vec{x}_i) = \lambda(\vec{x}_i) = \vec{0}$ (iff)

$\det(M - \lambda_i I) = 0$ for some $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{F}$

$M = I_3$ Then $\det(M - \lambda I) = 0$

$= \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (1 - \lambda)^3 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 1$

For a diagonal matrix $\begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & d_2 & \\ & & d_n \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = d_1, \lambda_2 = d_2, \dots, \lambda_n = d_n$

Subspace $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = \dots$ from \square

Some more examples....

2D case $M = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ with $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$

$0 = \det(M - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ c & d - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (a - \lambda)(d - \lambda) - bc = \lambda^2 - (a + d)\lambda + (ad - bc)$

$= a + d \cdot \lambda + \dots = \lambda^2 + p\lambda + q$

Some more examples.... with $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$

2D case: $M = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$

$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} \det(M - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} a-\lambda & b \\ c & d-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (a-\lambda)(d-\lambda) - b \cdot c = \lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + (ad-bc)$$

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{a+d}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{a+d}{2}\right)^2 - (ad-bc)} \quad \text{with } p = -(a+d), \quad q = ad-bc$$

For $b=c$: $\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{a+d}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{a+d}{2}\right)^2 - ad + \frac{b^2}{2}} = \frac{a+d}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{a-d}{2}\right)^2 + b^2}$

For $b=c$: $\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{a+d}{2} \pm \sqrt{\underbrace{\left(\frac{a-d}{2}\right)^2}_{\geq 0} + \underbrace{4b^2}_{\geq 0}} \in \mathbb{R}$

Theorem: The eigenvalues of a real symmetric matrix are real

$A = A^T$

