

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

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Definiton

Definition

Let A be a square matrix of order n . $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is called an **eigenvalue** of A , if there exists a nonzero vector X in \mathbf{R}^n such that: $AX = \lambda X$.

The vector X is then called an **eigenvector** corresponding to λ .

Remark

An eigenvalue can have *many* eigenvectors. But every eigenvector has **only** one eigenvalue.

Matrix and Vector Multiplication

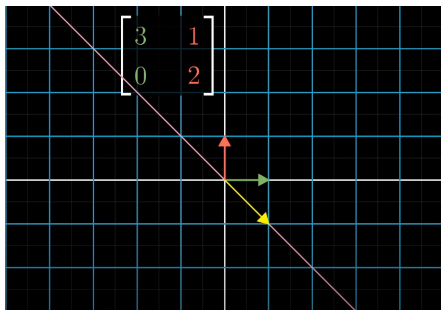
Example

Let $M = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

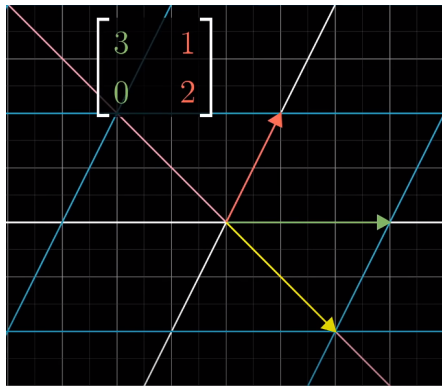
We have:

$$MA = 1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - 1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = 2A$$

Therefore, 2 is an **eigenvalue** of M and the vector A is an **eigenvector** corresponding to 2.



(a) Before Multiplying



(b) After Multiplying

Notice that the unit vectors i and j , after multiplying by the Matrix M , are exactly where the columns of M tell us; $M \cdot i = (3, 0)$, $M \cdot j = (1, 2)$. So we get the following result:

Multiplication

Let $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & \alpha \\ b & \beta \end{bmatrix}$ and $V = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ Then we have:

$$MV = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} y = \begin{bmatrix} ax + \alpha y \\ bx + \beta y \end{bmatrix}$$

This can be proven using the fact that the 1st column of M is the coordinates of the unit vector i after the transformation, and the 2nd column is the coordinates of the unit vector j after the transformation. Therefore, we get:

$$MV = M \left(x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = x \cdot M \cdot i + y \cdot M \cdot j$$

Linear Maps

Property

If f is a linear map, then there exists a Matrix M such that $\forall X \in \mathbb{D}_f, f(X) = MX$.

With this new knowledge, we can look at linear maps a bit differently. In essence, Linear maps use Matrices to describe a linear transformation i.e. the origin doesn't move and straight, parallel lines remain straight and parallel.

It's worth mentioning that every linear map is associated with a Matrix, and every Matrix can be associated to a linear transformation.

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

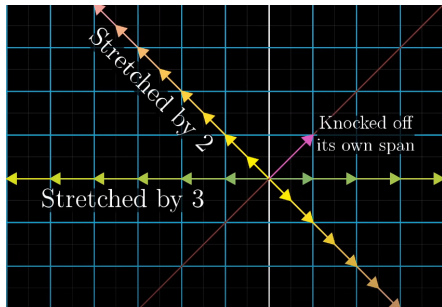
The Matrix A represents projection on the x - y plane, while the Matrix B performs a rotation by θ degrees.

One can easily verify that A and B meet the conditions to perform Linear Maps.

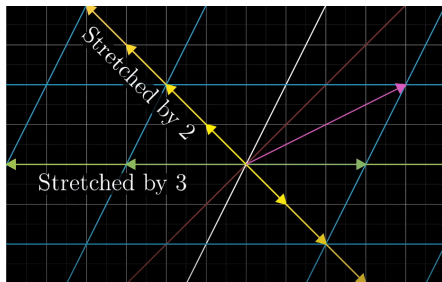
Eigenvectors' and Eigenvalues' visual Characteristics.

If we knew that multiplying a Matrix with a vector is but a linear transformation, the meaning behind **eigenvectors'** definition becomes clear: they are the answer to the question 'What are the vectors that do not leave their span?'

And **eigenvalues** is just the value by which they are multiplied.



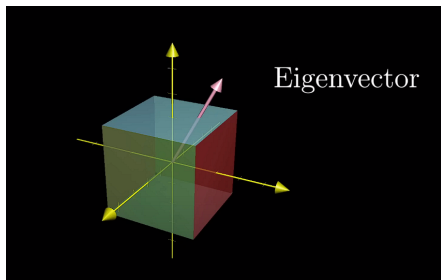
(a) Before Multiplying



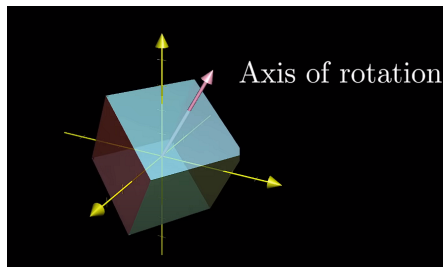
(b) After Multiplying

We can observe that

- The yellow vector and the green vector stayed on line, and they both got stretched by 2 and 3 respectively.
- The violet vector left its span.



(a) Before Multiplying



(b) After Multiplying

In 3D, finding an **eigenvector** has the same sense of finding the axis of rotation.

Characteristic Equation

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with eigenvalue λ and corresponding eigenvector X . Thus $AX = \lambda X$. This equation may be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}(AX = \lambda X) &\Leftrightarrow (AX - \lambda X = 0_X) \\ &\Leftrightarrow ([A - \lambda I_n]X = 0_X)\end{aligned}$$

If $[A - \lambda I_n]$ is invertible, then $X = 0_X$. But we are not interested in this case, which means that $[A - \lambda I_n]$ is not invertible. So, **det** $(A - \lambda I_n) = |A - \lambda I_n| = 0$.

Therefore, we arrive at the following result:

Remark

Expanding $|A - \lambda I_n|$, we get the characteristic polynomial of A in λ . Solving the characteristic equation (polynomial = 0) will give us the values of eigenvalues.

Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}(A - \lambda I_3) &\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & -1 + \lambda & 0 \\ 4 & 5 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 9 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

$|A - \lambda I_3| = (10 - \lambda)(\lambda - 1)^2 \implies \lambda \in \{1, 10\}$ The corresponding eigenvectors are found by using three values (1 is a double solution) of λ in the equation $[A - \lambda I_3]X = 0_X$

Definition

The set of all eigenvectors corresponding to λ , together with the zero vector of A , is a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n .

This subspace is called the **eigenspace** of λ .

Let M be a square Matrix of order n .

- The product of $\lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2 \cdot \lambda_3 \cdots = |M|$.
- λ is an eigenvalue of $M \implies \lambda^{-1}$ is an eigenvalue of M^{-1} .
- λ is an eigenvalue of $M \implies \lambda^n$ is an eigenvalue of M^n , $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Diagonalization

Definition

Let A and B be square matrices of the same size. B is said to be similar to A if there exists an invertible matrix C such that $B = C^{-1}AC$. The transformation of the matrix A into the matrix B in this manner is called a similarity transformation.

Let A, B, C be square matrices of the same size with C invertible. Calculate $A = C^{-1}BC$.

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -10 \\ 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 C^{-1}BC &= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -10 \\ 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -10 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Remark

Similar matrices have the same eigenvalues.

Definition

A square matrix A is said to be diagonalizable if there exists an invertible matrix C such that $D = C^{-1}AC$ is a diagonal matrix.

Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ Matrix.

A is diagonalizable if and only if it has n linearly independent eigenvectors. Furthermore, The Matrix C whose columns consist of n linearly independent eigenvectors can be used in a similarity transformation $C^{-1}AC$ to give a diagonal matrix D . The diagonal elements of D will be the eigenvalues of A in the **same order**.

Example

Show that $A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonalizable.

Find a diagonal matrix B that is similar to A .

Determine the similarity transformation that diagonalizes the Matrix A .

The eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors of this matrix can be easily calculated using the characteristic polynomial. They are:

$$\lambda_1 = 2 \quad \text{with } V_1 = a \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\lambda_2 = -1 \quad \text{with } V_2 = b \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \forall b \in \mathbb{R}$$

Solution:

- 1 The vectors V_1 and V_2 are linearly independent. So A is diagonalizable.
- 2 A is similar to the diagonal Matrix B , which has elements $\lambda_1 = 2$, $\lambda_2 = -1$. Thus,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is similar to } B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 3 Let $C = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, we have:

$$C^{-1}AC = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = B$$

Theorem

If a $n \times n$ Matrix A has n eigenvalues, it's diagonalizable. If A has less than n eigenvalues i.e. the roots of the characteristic polynomial are not simple, we have to check if the set of all eigenvectors of A form a basis i.e. the vectors are independent.

Let's take our previous example. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

With eigenvalues $\lambda \in \{1, 10\}$.

- Let $\lambda = 10$. We get:

$$(A - 10I_3)V = 0_V \implies \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & -5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0_V$$

We find $V = \{\alpha (2, 2, 1), \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$

- Let $\lambda = 1$. We have:

$$(A - I_3)V = 0_V \implies \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0_V$$

We find:

$$V = \{\alpha (-1, 1, 0) + \beta (-1, 0, 0), \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Proposition

$A = C^{-1}BC$, if and only if, $CAC^{-1} = B$.

Meaning (A is similar to B) \iff (B is similar to A).

Let $A = C^{-1}BC$

$$\begin{aligned}(A = C^{-1}BC) &\iff (CA = BC) \\ &\iff (CAC^{-1} = B)\end{aligned}$$

We use this method when calculating the Matrix CAC^{-1} is relatively easy, even though this is the main goal of this Chapter.

The Importance of Diagonal Matrices

$$A = C^{-1}BC \implies A^k = C^{-1}B^kC, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$

If A is similar to a diagonal matrix D under the transformation $C^{-1}AC$, then it can be shown that

$$A^k = CD^kC^{-1}$$

This result can be used to compute A^k . Let us derive this result. We have:

$$A^k = CDC^{-1} \times CDC^{-1} \times \cdots \times CDC^{-1} = CD^kC^{-1}$$

Proposition

Let A be an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix.

- (a) All the eigenvalues of A are real numbers.
- (b) The dimension of an eigenspace of A is the multiplicity of the eigenvalues as a root of the characteristic equation.
- (c) A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.