

Unit 058 Eigenspaces

Slide 01: In this unit, we introduce the concept of eigenspaces of a matrix. The eigenspace of a matrix is closely related to eigenvalues and eigenvectors, both of which were discussed in earlier units.

Slide 02: Let \mathbf{A} be a square matrix of order n and λ be an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} .

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Recall that the matrix $(\lambda\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})$, whose determinant is the characteristic polynomial of \mathbf{A} . Now, use this matrix as the coefficient matrix to form a homogeneous linear system as shown.

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Before we proceed, note that since λ is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} , it would make the matrix $(\lambda\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})$ singular. This implies that the homogeneous linear system would have infinitely many solutions.

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Consider the solution space of the homogeneous linear system $(\lambda\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. This solution space is called the eigenspace of \mathbf{A} associated with the eigenvalue λ . We will denote this solution space as E_λ .

Slide 03: Let us look at the definition of the eigenspace of \mathbf{A} again. Remember that it is the solution space of a homogeneous linear system whose coefficient matrix is $(\lambda\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})$.

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Thus, a non zero vector \mathbf{v} belongs to E_λ if and only if \mathbf{v} is a solution of the homogeneous linear system. In other words, $(\lambda\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.

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This is equivalent to $\lambda\mathbf{I}\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

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which can be rearranged to give $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$.

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Thus, the eigenspace E_λ contains all the eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} that are associated with the eigenvalue λ .

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Recall the definition of the nullspace of a matrix. It should be clear now that E_λ is also the nullspace of the matrix $(\lambda\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})$.

Slide 04: Let us revisit some of the matrices we have seen in previous units. First the 2×2 matrix \mathbf{A} from the population movement example. We have found that \mathbf{A} has two eigenvalues 1 and 0.95. For $\lambda = 1$, let us investigate the eigenspace E_1 .

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We need to evaluate the coefficient matrix $1\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}$,

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as shown

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and then solve the homogeneous linear system by Gaussian elimination. The reduced row-echelon form of the augmented matrix is shown.

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The first row of the matrix tells us that the two variables are related by the equation $x_1 - \frac{1}{4}x_2 = 0$.

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Thus a vector \mathbf{x} belonging to the eigenspace E_1 is of the form $(\frac{t}{4}, t)$, where t is an arbitrary real number.

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In conclusion, we know that E_1 is the linear span of the vector $(\frac{1}{4}, 1)$.

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Note that this is a one dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Slide 05: We move on to the second eigenvalue 0.95 and investigate the eigenspace $E_{0.95}$.

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First computing the coefficient matrix $(0.95\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})$

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we have the following

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and then we solve the homogeneous linear system as we did previously, we obtain the reduced row-echelon form as shown.

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The first row of the matrix tells us that the two variables are related by the equation $x_1 + x_2 = 0$.

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Thus a vector \mathbf{x} that belongs to the eigenspace $E_{0.95}$ is of the form $(-t, t)$, where t is an arbitrary real number.

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In conclusion, we know that $E_{0.95}$ is the linear span of the vector $(-1, 1)$.

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Note that this eigenspace is also a one dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Slide 06: Next we consider the 3×3 matrix \mathbf{B} which we have also found to have 2 eigenvalues, namely 3 and 0. We start by investigating the eigenspace E_3 .

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The coefficient matrix is $3\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B}$

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and when we solve the homogeneous linear system, we arrive at the following reduced row-echelon form. Notice that it has two non zero rows and one non pivot column on the left hand side.

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You should be able to write down a general solution very quickly. A vector \mathbf{x} belongs to this eigenspace if \mathbf{x} is of the form (t, t, t) where t is any real number.

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Thus E_3 is the linear span of the vector $(1, 1, 1)$

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and it is a one dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Slide 07: Moving on to E_0 .

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The coefficient matrix is $0\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B}$

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and when we solve the homogeneous linear system, we arrive at the following reduced row-echelon form. Notice that it has one non zero row and two non pivot columns on the left hand side. So how many arbitrary parameters are there in a general solution for the linear system?

Slide 08: From the reduced row-echelon form, we have the equation $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$.

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A general solution to the linear system is as shown, where $x_1 = -s - t$, $x_2 = s$, $x_3 = t$, s and t are arbitrary parameters.

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Thus a vector \mathbf{x} belongs to E_0 if and only if \mathbf{x} is a linear combination of $(-1, 1, 0)$ and $(-1, 0, 1)$.

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The eigenspace E_0 is the linear span of $(-1, 1, 0)$ and $(-1, 0, 1)$

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and the dimension of E_0 is 2.

Slide 09: Without showing the details, we see here the other 3×3 matrix \mathbf{C} , which has 3 distinct eigenvalues 1 , $\sqrt{2}$ and $-\sqrt{2}$. The eigenspace E_1 , $E_{\sqrt{2}}$ and $E_{-\sqrt{2}}$ are all one dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Slide 10: Consider this 2×2 matrix \mathbf{M} . Since it is a lower triangular matrix, we can immediately conclude that \mathbf{M} has only one eigenvalue 2.

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To investigate the eigenspace E_2 , we solve the homogeneous linear system

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with coefficient matrix $(2\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{M})$.

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We see that a vector \mathbf{x} belongs to the eigenspace E_2 if and only if \mathbf{x} is of the form $(0, s)$ where s is any real number.

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So E_2 is the linear span of $(0, 1)$ and it is a one dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Slide 11: Before we end this unit, recall that leading up to this unit, we were concerned with the question of whether for a given square matrix \mathbf{A} , we could find an invertible matrix \mathbf{P} such that \mathbf{A} can be written as \mathbf{PDP}^{-1} where \mathbf{D} is a diagonal matrix. Recall that if this can be done, it would help us to compute powers of \mathbf{A} efficiently.

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$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{PDP}^{-1}$ can equivalently be written as $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{AP} = \mathbf{D}$.

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While we will not answer this question in this unit, the examples we have seen so far are in fact illustrative enough to give you a hint as to when it is or not possible for \mathbf{A} to be written as \mathbf{PDP}^{-1} .

Slide 12: The matrix \mathbf{A} is a 2×2 matrix. It has two eigenvalues and each of the two eigenspaces are one dimensional.

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The matrix \mathbf{B} is a 3×3 matrix. It has two eigenvalues 3 and 0.

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The dimension of E_3 is 1 while the dimension of E_0 is 2.

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The matrix \mathbf{C} is a 3×3 matrix. It has three eigenvalues, 1, $\sqrt{2}$ and $-\sqrt{2}$.

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The dimension of each of the three eigenspaces is 1. We will discover, in a later unit that all the three matrices here can be written as \mathbf{PDP}^{-1} . Perhaps you would like to pause for a while and see what do the three matrices have in common. As a hint, you may wish to look at the highlighted dimensions of the various eigenspaces.

Slide 13: Contrastingly, this matrix \mathbf{M} which we have seen in this unit is one that cannot be written as \mathbf{PDP}^{-1} . Do you know why? Once again, the hint lies in the dimension of the eigenspace highlighted. We will answer these questions in the subsequent units.

Slide 14: In this unit,

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We defined what is an eigenspace of a matrix associated with a particular eigenvalue λ .