

A First Course in
LINEAR ALGEBRA

Lecture Notes
for Math 1503

**Spectral Theory: 7.1 Eigenvalues and
Eigenvectors**

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A First Course in Linear Algebra

Lecture Slides

These lecture slides were originally developed by Karen Seyffarth of the University of Calgary. Edits, additions, and revisions have been made to these notes by the editorial team at Lyryx Learning to accompany their text [A First Course in Linear Algebra](#) based on K. Kuttler's original text.

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Motivation: Calculating Powers of a Matrix

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Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find A^{100} .

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where D is a **diagonal** matrix.

Example (continued)

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If A is an $n \times n$ matrix and P is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix such that $A = PDP^{-1}$, then $A^k = PD^kP^{-1}$ for each $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

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Answer

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Definition

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix, λ a real number, and $X \neq 0$ an n -vector. If $AX = \lambda X$, then λ is an **eigenvalue** of A , and X is an **eigenvector** of A corresponding to λ , or a **λ -eigenvector**.

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Since $X \neq 0$, X is a nontrivial solution to the linear system with coefficient matrix $\lambda I - A$, and therefore the matrix $\lambda I - A$ is not invertible. Since a matrix is invertible if and only if its determinant is not equal to zero, it follows that

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

The Characteristic Polynomial

Definition

The **characteristic polynomial** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is defined to be

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Finding Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

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Procedure:

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

- **Eigenvalues:** Find λ by solving the equation

$$c_A(x) = \det(xI - A) = 0$$

- **Eigenvectors:** For each λ , find $X \neq 0$ by finding the basic solutions to

$$(A - \lambda I)X = 0$$

- **Check:** For each pair of λ, X check that $AX = \lambda X$.

Example (continued)

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so A has eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 5$.

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The 2-eigenvectors of A (meaning the eigenvectors of A corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 2$) are found by solving the homogeneous system $(2I - A)X = 0$.

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This is the homogeneous system with coefficient matrix:

$$2I - A$$

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The 2-eigenvectors of A (meaning the eigenvectors of A corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 2$) are found by solving the homogeneous system $(2I - A)X = 0$.

This is the homogeneous system with coefficient matrix:

$$2I - A = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Solve the system in the standard way, by putting the augmented matrix of the system in reduced row-echelon form.

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However, since eigenvectors are **nonzero**, the 2-eigenvectors of A are all vectors

$$X = t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } t \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } t \neq 0.$$

Example (continued)

To find the 5-eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ solve the homogeneous system $(5I - A)X = 0$, with coefficient matrix

$$5I - A = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

Therefore the 5-eigenvectors of A are the vectors

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -2s \\ s \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } s \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } s \neq 0.$$

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Definition

A **basic eigenvector** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is any nonzero multiple of a basic solution to $(\lambda I - A)X = 0$, where λ is an eigenvalue of A .

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Eigenvalues with multiplicity greater than one

Problem

Find the characteristic polynomial and eigenvalues of the matrix

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Therefore, A has eigenvalues 1 and 4, with 4 being an eigenvalue of **multiplicity two**.

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The **multiplicity** of an eigenvalue λ of A is the number of times λ occurs as a root of $c_A(x)$.

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The general solution is $X = \begin{bmatrix} -s \\ s \\ s \end{bmatrix}$ where $s \in \mathbb{R}$. We get a basic eigenvector by choosing $s = 1$ (in fact, any nonzero value of s gives us a basic eigenvector).

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$$X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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We can obtain other pairs of basic 4-eigenvectors for A by taking any nonzero scalar multiple of X_1 , and any nonzero scalar multiple of X_2 .

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Notice that every 4-eigenvector of A is a nonzero linear combination of basic 4-eigenvectors.

Problem

For

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 1 & -5 & 5 \end{bmatrix},$$

find $c_A(x)$, the eigenvalues of A , and basic eigenvector(s) for each eigenvalue.

LECTURE 2

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors (review)

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- 4 λ -eigenvectors are the (nontrivial) solutions to this system.

Similar Matrices

Definition

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Let A and B be similar matrices, so that $A = P^{-1}BP$ where A, B are $n \times n$ matrices and P is invertible. Then A and B have the same eigenvalues.

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Assume $BX = \lambda X$. Let $Y = P^{-1}X$. Then

$$AY = (P^{-1}BP)P^{-1}X = P^{-1}BX = P^{-1}\lambda X = \lambda Y.$$

Using Similar and Elementary Matrices

Problem

Find the eigenvalues for the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 33 & 105 & 105 \\ 10 & 28 & 30 \\ -20 & -60 & -62 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Solution

We will use elementary matrices to simplify A before finding the eigenvalues. Left multiply A by $E(2 \times 2 + 3)$, and right multiply by the inverse of $E(2 \times 2 + 3)$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 33 & 105 & 105 \\ 10 & 28 & 30 \\ -20 & -60 & -62 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 33 & -105 & 105 \\ 10 & -32 & 30 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that the resulting matrix and A are similar matrices (with $E(2 \times 2 + 3)$ playing the role of P) so they have the same eigenvalues.

Solution (continued)

We do this step again, on the resulting matrix above.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 33 & -105 & 105 \\ 10 & -32 & 30 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 15 \\ 10 & -2 & 30 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = B$$

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Again by properties of similar matrices, the resulting matrix here (labeled B) has the same eigenvalues as our original matrix A . The advantage is that it is much simpler to find the eigenvalues of B than A .

Finding these eigenvalues follows the usual procedure and is left as an exercise.

Example (Triangular Matrices)

Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Therefore the eigenvalues of A are 2, 5, 0 and -4 , **exactly the entries on the main diagonal of A .**

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Eigenvalues of Triangular Matrices

If A is an $n \times n$ upper triangular (or lower triangular) matrix, then the eigenvalues of A are the entries on the main diagonal of A .

Geometric Interpretation of Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

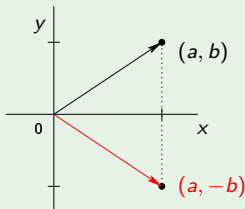
Example

Recall that in \mathbb{R}^2 , **reflection in the x-axis** is a linear transformation that transforms $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ to $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ -b \end{bmatrix}$.

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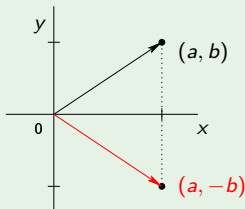
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Recall that in \mathbb{R}^2 , **reflection in the x-axis** is a linear transformation that transforms $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ to $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ -b \end{bmatrix}$.

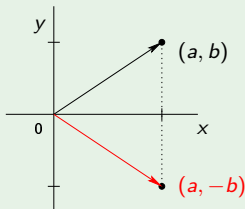


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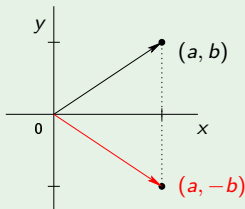


Let A be the matrix that induces reflection in the x-axis. If λ were an eigenvalue of A and X a corresponding eigenvector, then $AX = \lambda X$ implies that, geometrically, **reflecting X in the x-axis** is the same as changing X to a vector parallel to X .

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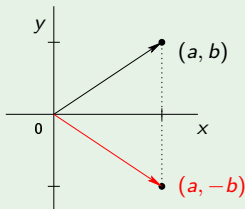
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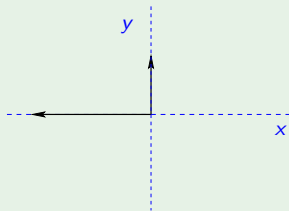


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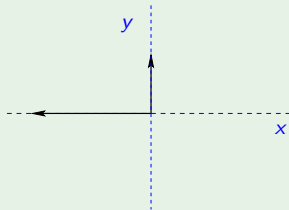
How could this be possible?

Can you picture what an eigenvector of A would look like?

Example (continued)

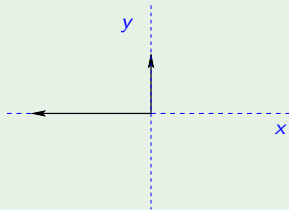


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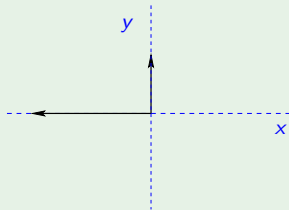
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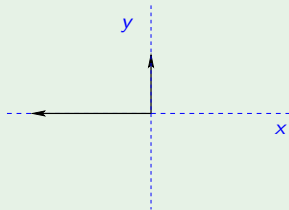
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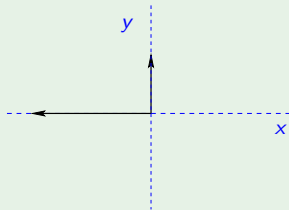
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This makes sense, since we know that reflection in the x-axis is induced by the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

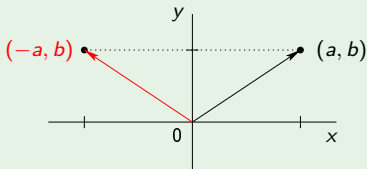
which has eigenvalues 1 and -1 .

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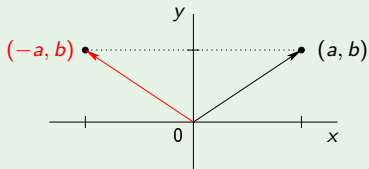
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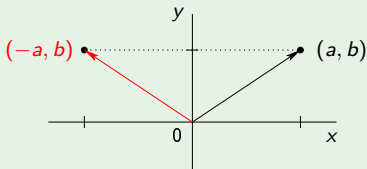
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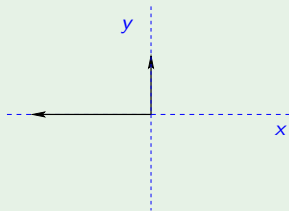
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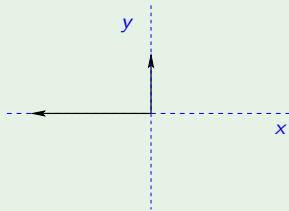


Let A be the matrix that induces reflection in the y -axis. If λ were an eigenvalue of A and X a corresponding eigenvector, then $AX = \lambda X$ implies that, geometrically, **reflecting X in the y -axis** is the same as changing X to a vector parallel to X .

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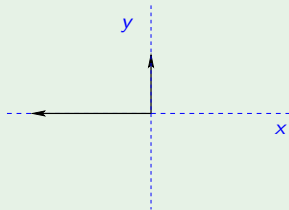


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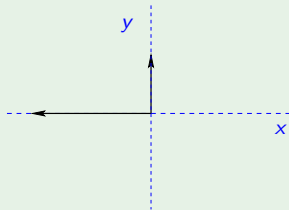
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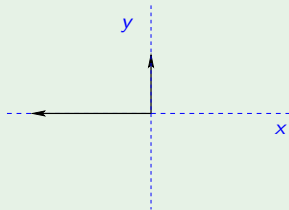
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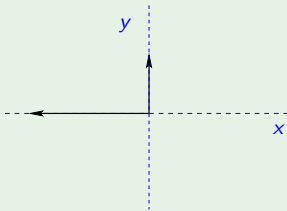
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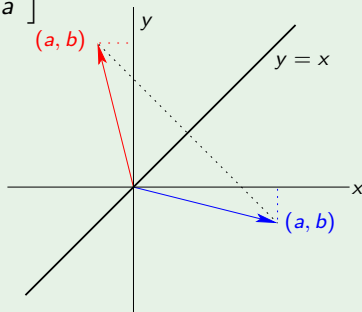
This makes sense, since we know that reflection in the y-axis is induced by the matrix

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which has eigenvalues 1 and -1 .

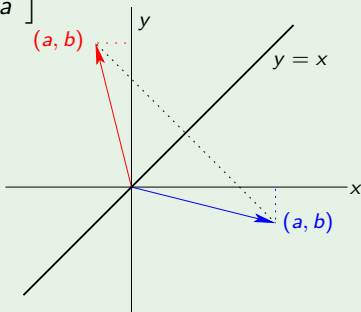
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Reflection in the line $y = x$ is a linear transformation that transforms $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ to $\begin{bmatrix} b \\ a \end{bmatrix}$.



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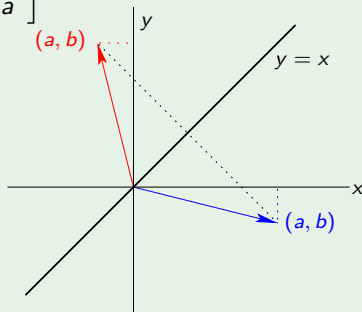
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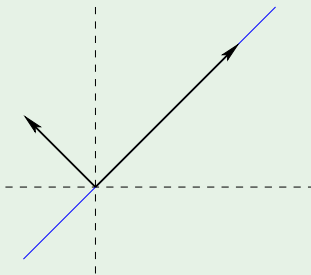
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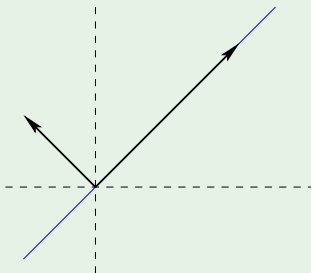


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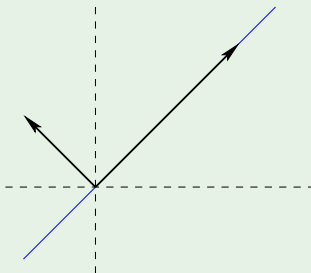


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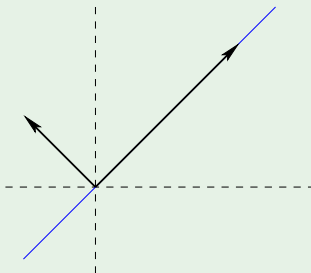
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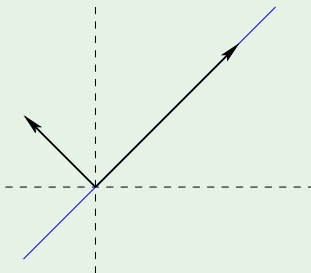
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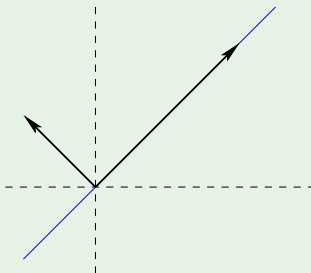
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Therefore, 1 and -1 are eigenvalues of A .

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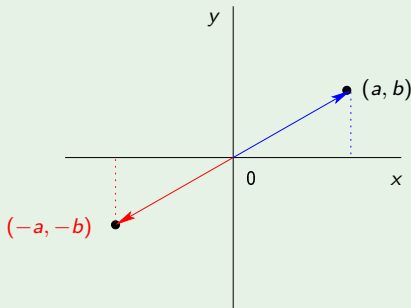
Therefore, 1 and -1 are eigenvalues of A ; in fact, these are the only two eigenvalues of A and each has multiplicity one. This follows from the fact that A is a 2×2 matrix, so its characteristic polynomial has degree two.

Example (Rotation through π)

We denote by $R_\pi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ counterclockwise rotation about the origin through an angle of π .

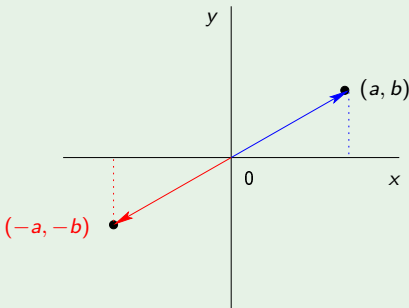
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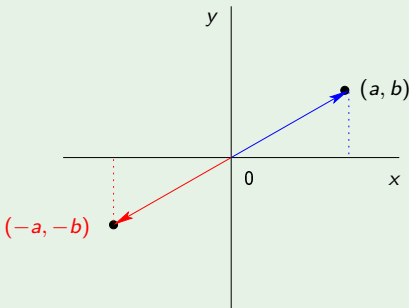
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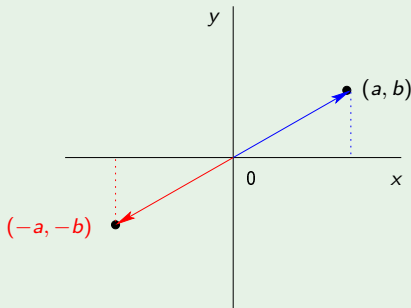


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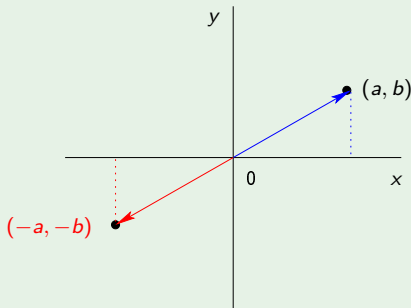


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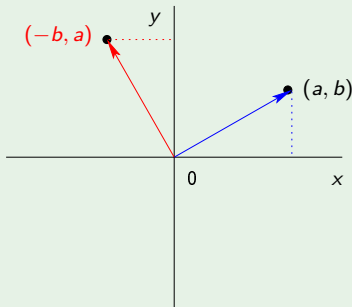
Let A denote the matrix that induces rotation through π . Then $AX = -X$ for every nonzero vector X , meaning that **every nonzero vector of \mathbb{R}^2 is an eigenvector of A corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda = -1$.**

Example (Rotation through $\pi/2$)

We denote by $R_{\pi/2} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ counterclockwise rotation about the origin through an angle of $\pi/2$.

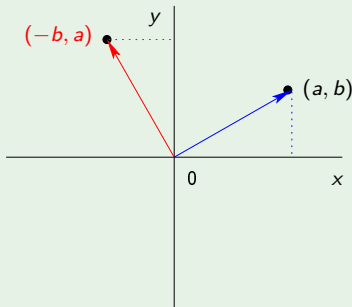
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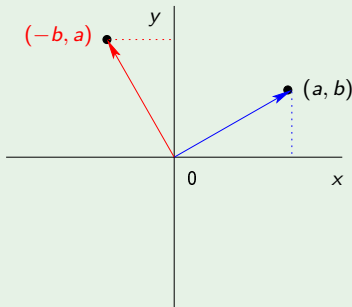
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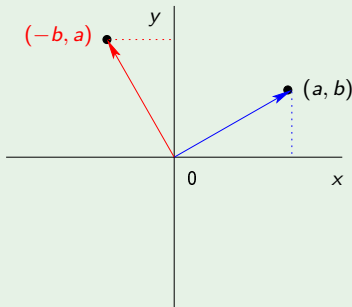


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Notice that there is no nonzero vector X that can be rotated through an angle of $\pi/2$ to produce a vector parallel to X .

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Notice that there is no nonzero vector X that can be rotated through an angle of $\pi/2$ to produce a vector parallel to X . Therefore, A has no **real** eigenvalues.

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and $c_A(x) = x^2 + 1$. Therefore, A has complex eigenvalues i and $-i$.