

# LECTURE 29

## EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS

Given a square matrix  $A$ , a **non-zero vector  $\mathbf{v}$**  is said to be an eigenvector of  $A$  if  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . The number  $\lambda$  is referred to as the associated eigenvalue of  $A$ .

We **first find eigenvalues** through the **characteristic equation**  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ . The **eigenvectors** are then found via row reduction and back substitution.

**The zero vector is never an eigenvector but it is OK to have a zero eigenvalue.**

If an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  has  **$n$  linearly independent eigenvectors** and  **$P$  is the matrix of eigenvectors aligned vertically** then  **$P^{-1}AP = D$**  where  **$D$  is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues**. The order of the eigenvalues in  $D$  must match the order of the eigenvectors in  $P$ . This is referred to as the **diagonalization of  $A$** .

A matrix can be **non-diagonalisable** by coming up **short on eigenvectors**. The only general way to find out if a matrix has a full set of eigenvectors is to find them all.

A useful check is the fact that  **$\Sigma(\text{eigenvalues}) = \text{Trace}(A)$** .

**Eigenvectors from different eigenvalues are linearly independent.**

**Eigenvectors from different eigenvalues for symmetric matrices are perpendicular.**

Establishing the eigenanalysis of a particular matrix gives you a clear vision of the internal workings of that matrix, and through diagonalisation the matrix may be transformed into a more workable diagonal structure.

Consider the matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$  and let's have a look at what  $A$  does to a random vector:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -3 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phantom{0} \\ \phantom{0} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phantom{0} \\ \phantom{0} \end{pmatrix} \dots \text{it's nothing special!}$$

$$\text{But now consider } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -3 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 14 \\ 21 \end{pmatrix} = 7 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Observe that  $A$  simply makes this vector 7 times as long! We say that  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  with associated eigenvalue  $\lambda = 7$ .

How do we find all the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of a matrix  $A$ ? Well

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \rightarrow A\mathbf{v} = \lambda I\mathbf{v} \rightarrow A\mathbf{v} - \lambda I\mathbf{v} = 0 \rightarrow (A - \lambda I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Now  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  is the trivial solution to the above matrix equation and we are seeking non-trivial solutions. Thus the matrix  $A - \lambda I$  must be non-invertible and hence we demand that

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

This is called the characteristic equation and generates the eigenvalues.  $2 \times 2$  matrices have a quadratic characteristic equation and  $3 \times 3$  matrices will have a cubic characteristic equation. Once you have the eigenvalues you can then find the eigenvectors by solving  $(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  using row reduction.

**Example 1** Find all the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$  and hence

find an invertible matrix  $P$  and a diagonal matrix  $D$  such that  $P^{-1}AP = D$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 4 \\ -3 & 9-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1-\lambda)(9-\lambda) + 12 = 0 \\ &\lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 21 = 0 \\ &(\lambda-7)(\lambda-3) = 0 \\ \therefore \text{eigvals are } \lambda &= 7, 3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{For } \lambda = 7: \quad \begin{pmatrix} -6 & 4 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0}$$

$$\text{by inspection: } v_1 = 2, \quad v_2 = 3$$

$$\therefore \text{eigvec is } \vec{v} = t \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad t \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for eigval } \lambda = 7$$

$$\text{For } \lambda = 3: \quad \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ -3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0}$$

$$\text{by inspection: } v_1 = 2, \quad v_2 = 1$$

$$\therefore \text{eigvec is } \vec{v} = t \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad t \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for eigval } \lambda = 3$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{For } P^{-1}AP = D : P = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \wedge \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\star \quad P = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \quad \star$$

**Example 2** Find all the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and hence diagonalise  $A$ .

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We start with the characteristic polynomial  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ . If at all possible we will try to avoid the situation where we actually produce a cubic polynomial equation as these are difficult to solve.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \begin{vmatrix} -2-\lambda & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} &= (-2-\lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & -6 \\ -2 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -6 \\ -1 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} - 3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1-\lambda \\ -1 & -2 \end{vmatrix} \\
 &= (-2-\lambda)\{-\lambda(1-\lambda) - 12\} - 2\{-2\lambda - 6\} - 3\{-4 + 1 - \lambda\} \\
 &= (-2-\lambda)\{\lambda^2 - \lambda - 12\} - 2\{-2\lambda - 6\} - 3\{-3 - \lambda\} \\
 &= (-2-\lambda)\{\lambda^2 - \lambda - 12\} + 4\lambda + 12 + 9 + 3\lambda \\
 &= (-2-\lambda)(\lambda - 4)(\lambda + 3) + 7\lambda + 21 \\
 &= (-2-\lambda)(\lambda - 4)(\lambda + 3) + 7(\lambda + 3) \\
 &= (\lambda + 3)\{(-2-\lambda)(\lambda - 4) + 7\} \\
 &= (\lambda + 3)\{-\lambda^2 + 2\lambda + 15\} \\
 &= -(\lambda + 3)\{\lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 15\} \\
 &= -(\lambda + 3)(\lambda + 3)(\lambda - 5) = 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\lambda = -3, -3, 5$ .

As a check  $-3 + -3 + 5 = -2 + 1 + 0$ .

Note that the fact that  $\lambda = -3$  has doubled up is certainly troubling but it does not imply that we necessarily will be short an eigenvector. Let's now find the eigenvectors, first for  $\lambda = -3$ :

$$\text{For } \lambda = -3: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 4 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0}$$

$$\therefore v_1 + 2v_2 - 3v_3 = 0$$

$$\text{By inspection: } v_1 = 1, \quad v_2 = 1, \quad v_3 = 1$$

$$v_1 = 3, \quad v_2 = 0, \quad v_3 = 1$$

$$\therefore \text{eigvecs are } \vec{v} = t_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, t_1 \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \vec{v} = t_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

for eigenval  $\lambda = -3$ .

$$\text{For } \lambda = 5: \begin{pmatrix} -7 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & -4 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & -5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0}$$

$$-7v_1 + 2v_2 - 3v_3 = 0, \quad v_1 - 2v_2 - 3v_3 = 0, \quad -v_1 - 2v_2 - 5v_3 = 0$$

$$-7v_1 + (v_1 - 3v_3) - 3v_3 = 0$$

$$-6v_1 - 6v_3 = 0$$

$$\therefore v_1 = -v_3$$

$$(-2v_2 - 5v_3) - 2v_2 - 3v_3 = 0$$

$$4v_2 + 8v_3 = 0$$

$$\therefore v_2 = -2v_3$$

$$\text{let } v_1 = 1 \quad \therefore v_3 = -1, v_2 = 2$$

$$\therefore \text{eigvec is } \vec{v} = t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\therefore D = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\star \quad P = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -2 & 3 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \star$$

What is happening with the process of diagonalisation?

When we think of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  we like to use  $\{\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}\}$  as a basis. But these vectors mean nothing to  $A$ . If you were to ask  $A$  what would *it* prefer as a basis it would respond by saying “I’ll have my eigenvectors thanks”.  $A$  likes its eigenvectors since the action of  $A$  upon the eigenvectors is simply contraction and elongation. If we are prepared to abandon  $\{\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}\}$  and instead make  $A$  happy by using the coordinate system generated by its

eigenvectors  $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$  then  $A$  transforms into the trivial matrix  $D$ .

That is  $P$  transforms the complicated  $A$  into the very simple diagonal  $D$  via  $P^{-1}AP = D$ !

## Proof of Diagonalisation formula

Let's prove the above claims in the  $3 \times 3$  case. The proof in other dimensions is similar.

Suppose that  $A$  is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix with a full set of linearly independent eigenvectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$  and associated eigenvalues  $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3\}$ .

Let  $P$  be the matrix of eigenvectors  $P = (\mathbf{v}_1 | \mathbf{v}_2 | \mathbf{v}_3)$ .

Then

$$\begin{aligned} AP &= A(\mathbf{v}_1 | \mathbf{v}_2 | \mathbf{v}_3) = (A\mathbf{v}_1 | A\mathbf{v}_2 | A\mathbf{v}_3) = (\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 | \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 | \lambda_3 \mathbf{v}_3) = (\mathbf{v}_1 | \mathbf{v}_2 | \mathbf{v}_3) \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= PD \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $AP = PD \longrightarrow P^{-1}AP = D$  as required.

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<sup>29</sup>You can now do Q 90