


# 5.1 EIGEN VALUES AND EIGEN VECTORS



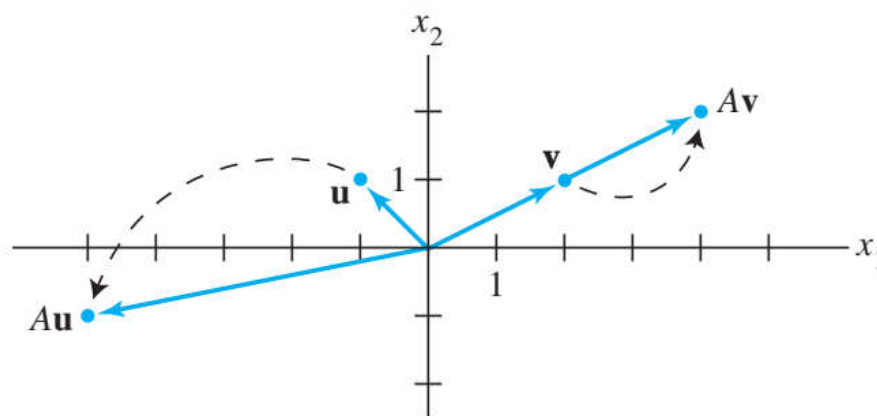


Although a transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$  may move vectors in a variety of directions, it often happens that there are special vectors on which the action of  $A$  is quite simple.


**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

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**FIGURE 1** Effects of multiplication by  $A$ .




An **eigenvector** of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  for some scalar  $\lambda$ . A scalar  $\lambda$  is called an **eigenvalue** of  $A$  if there is a nontrivial solution  $\mathbf{x}$  of  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ ; such an  $\mathbf{x}$  is called an *eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$* .<sup>1</sup>



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It is easy to determine if a given vector is an eigenvector of a matrix. It is also easy to decide if a specified scalar is an eigenvalue.




**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ . Are  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  eigenvectors of  $A$ ?

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$$A\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -24 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} = -4 \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = -4\mathbf{u}$$


$$A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix} \neq \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$



**EXAMPLE 3** Show that 7 is an eigenvalue of matrix  $A$  in Example 2, and find the corresponding eigenvectors.

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$$A\mathbf{x} = 7\mathbf{x} \qquad A\mathbf{x} - 7\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \qquad (A - 7I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$A - 7I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 6 \\ 5 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} -6 & 6 & 0 \\ 5 & -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Thus  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  if and only if the equation

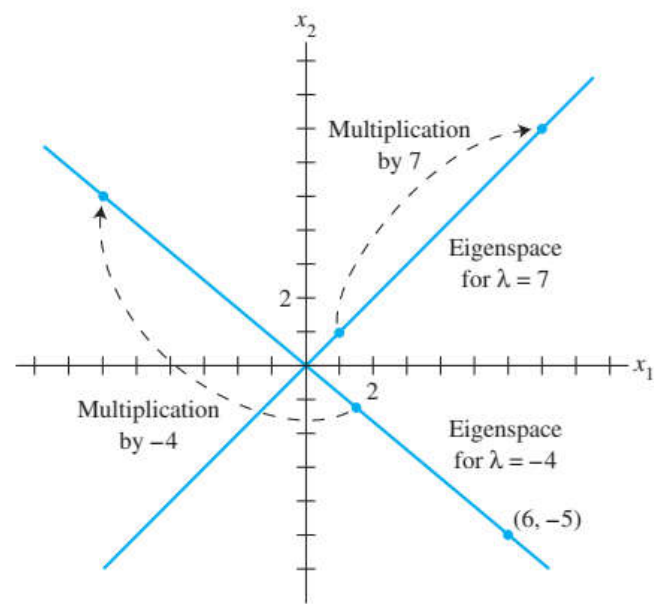
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Thus  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  if and only if the equation

$$(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

has a nontrivial solution. The set of *all* solutions of (3) is just the null space of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$ . So this set is a *subspace* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and is called the **eigenspace** of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$ . The eigenspace consists of the zero vector and all the eigenvectors corresponding to  $\lambda$ .



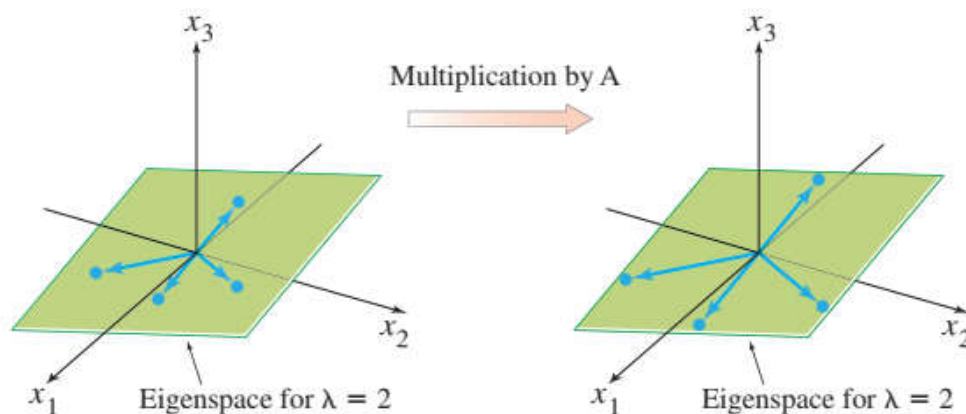
**FIGURE 2** Eigenspaces for  $\lambda = -4$  and  $\lambda = 7$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ . An eigenvalue of  $A$  is 2. Find a basis for the corresponding eigenspace.

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$$A - 2I = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 6 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$





## THEOREM 1

The eigenvalues of a triangular matrix are the entries on its main diagonal.



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$$\begin{aligned} A - \lambda I &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22} - \lambda & a_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Lower triangular??

**EXAMPLE 5** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ . The eigenvalues of  $A$  are 3, 0, and 2. The eigenvalues of  $B$  are 4 and 1. ■

What does it mean for a matrix  $A$  to have an eigenvalue of 0, such as in Example 5?

**EXAMPLE 5** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ . The eigenvalues of  $A$  are 3, 0, and 2. The eigenvalues of  $B$  are 4 and 1. ■

What does it mean for a matrix  $A$  to have an eigenvalue of 0, such as in Example 5?

$$A\mathbf{x} = 0\mathbf{x}$$

Thus 0 is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if and only if  $A$  is not invertible.



## THEOREM 2

If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$  are eigenvectors that correspond to distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$  of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , then the set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$  is linearly independent.

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Suppose  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$  is linearly dependent.

$$c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_p \mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{v}_{p+1}$$


$$c_1 A \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_p A \mathbf{v}_p = A \mathbf{v}_{p+1}$$

$$c_1 \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_p \lambda_p \mathbf{v}_p = \lambda_{p+1} \mathbf{v}_{p+1}$$

$$c_1 (\lambda_1 - \lambda_{p+1}) \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_p (\lambda_p - \lambda_{p+1}) \mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{0}$$


$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = A\mathbf{x}_k \quad (k = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then (8) is a *recursive* description of a sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .


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If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then (8) is a *recursive* description of a sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

The simplest way to build a solution of (8) is to take an eigenvector  $\mathbf{x}_0$  and its corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda$  and let

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \lambda^k \mathbf{x}_0 \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots) \tag{9}$$

This sequence is a solution because

$$A\mathbf{x}_k = A(\lambda^k \mathbf{x}_0) = \lambda^k (A\mathbf{x}_0) = \lambda^k (\lambda \mathbf{x}_0) = \lambda^{k+1} \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}_{k+1}$$



2. If  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$ , what is  $A^3\mathbf{x}$ ?





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$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$A^2\mathbf{x} = A(\lambda\mathbf{x}) = \lambda A\mathbf{x} = \lambda^2\mathbf{x}$$

$$A^3\mathbf{x} = A(A^2\mathbf{x}) = A(\lambda^2\mathbf{x}) = \lambda^2 A\mathbf{x} = \lambda^3\mathbf{x}$$


$$A^k\mathbf{x} = \lambda^k\mathbf{x}$$



If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix and  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ , show that  $2\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $2A$ .

## 5.2 CHARACTERISTIC EQUATION





**EXAMPLE 1** Find the eigenvalues of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$ .

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$$(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & -6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 3 \\ 3 & -6 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

finding all  $\lambda$  such that the matrix  $A - \lambda I$  is *not* invertible


determinant is zero

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= (2 - \lambda)(-6 - \lambda) - (3)(3) \\ &= -12 + 6\lambda - 2\lambda + \lambda^2 - 9 \\ &= \lambda^2 + 4\lambda - 21 \\ &= (\lambda - 3)(\lambda + 7) \end{aligned}$$

### The Invertible Matrix Theorem (continued)


Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then  $A$  is invertible if and only if:

- s. The number 0 is *not* an eigenvalue of  $A$ .
- t. The determinant of  $A$  is *not* zero.



A scalar  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  if and only if  $\lambda$  satisfies the characteristic equation

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



**EXAMPLE 3** Find the characteristic equation of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 6 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 6 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Characteristic polynomial of A.**


$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} 5-\lambda & -2 & 6 & -1 \\ 0 & 3-\lambda & -8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5-\lambda & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (5-\lambda)(3-\lambda)(5-\lambda)(1-\lambda) \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda^4 - 14\lambda^3 + 68\lambda^2 - 130\lambda + 75 = 0$$

eigenvalue 5 is said to have *multiplicity* 2



**EXAMPLE 4** The characteristic polynomial of a  $6 \times 6$  matrix is  $\lambda^6 - 4\lambda^5 - 12\lambda^4$ . Find the eigenvalues and their multiplicities.



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$$\lambda^6 - 4\lambda^5 - 12\lambda^4 = \lambda^4(\lambda^2 - 4\lambda - 12) = \lambda^4(\lambda - 6)(\lambda + 2)$$

Because the characteristic equation for an  $n \times n$  matrix involves an  $n$ th-degree polynomial, the equation has exactly  $n$  roots, counting multiplicities, provided complex roots are allowed.

# Similar matrices



If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then  $A$  is similar to  $B$  if there is an invertible matrix  $P$  such that

$$P^{-1}AP = B, \text{ or, equivalently, } A = PBP^{-1}$$

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$B$  is also similar to  $A$ , and we say simply that  $A$  and  $B$  **are similar**

Changing  $A$  into  $P^{-1}AP$  is called a **similarity transformation**

# Similar matrices

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warning

**PROOF** If  $B = P^{-1}AP$ , then

$$B - \lambda I = P^{-1}AP - \lambda P^{-1}P = P^{-1}(AP - \lambda P) = P^{-1}(A - \lambda I)P$$

Using the multiplicative property (b) in Theorem 3, we compute

$$\begin{aligned}\det(B - \lambda I) &= \det[P^{-1}(A - \lambda I)P] \\ &= \det(P^{-1}) \cdot \det(A - \lambda I) \cdot \det(P)\end{aligned}$$



**EXAMPLE 5** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} .95 & .03 \\ .05 & .97 \end{bmatrix}$ . Analyze the long-term behavior of the dynamical system defined by  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = A\mathbf{x}_k$  ( $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ), with  $\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} .6 \\ .4 \end{bmatrix}$ .



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$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \det \begin{bmatrix} .95 - \lambda & .03 \\ .05 & .97 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = (.95 - \lambda)(.97 - \lambda) - (.03)(.05) \\ &= \lambda^2 - 1.92\lambda + .92 \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda = 1 \text{ and } \lambda = .92 \qquad \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}_1 &= A\mathbf{x}_0 = c_1 A\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 A\mathbf{v}_2 \\ &= c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 (.92) \mathbf{v}_2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}_2 &= A\mathbf{x}_1 = c_1 A\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 (.92) A\mathbf{v}_2 \\ &= c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 (.92)^2 \mathbf{v}_2\end{aligned}$$


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$$\mathbf{x}_k = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 (.92)^k \mathbf{v}_2 \quad (k = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_k = .125 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} + .225 (.92)^k \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_k \text{ tends to } \begin{bmatrix} .375 \\ .625 \end{bmatrix} = .125 \mathbf{v}_1$$



Show that if  $A = QR$  with  $Q$  invertible, then  $A$  is similar to  $A_1 = RQ$ .

# DIAGONALIZATION




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$$D^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D^k = \begin{bmatrix} 5^k & 0 \\ 0 & 3^k \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } k \geq 1$$



**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Find a formula for  $A^k$ , given that  $A = PDP^{-1}$

where

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$A^2 = (PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) = PD \underbrace{(P^{-1}P)}_I DP^{-1} = PDDP^{-1}$$

$$= PD^2 P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^3 = (PDP^{-1})A^2 = (PDP^{-1})PD^2 P^{-1} = PD \underbrace{D^2}_I P^{-1} = PD^3 P^{-1}$$

$$A^k = PD^k P^{-1}$$

A square matrix  $A$  is said to be **diagonalizable** if  $A$  is similar to a diagonal matrix, that is, if  $A = PDP^{-1}$  for some invertible matrix  $P$  and some diagonal matrix  $D$ .

## THEOREM 5

### The Diagonalization Theorem

An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable if and only if  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors.

In fact,  $A = PDP^{-1}$ , with  $D$  a diagonal matrix, if and only if the columns of  $P$  are  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors of  $A$ . In this case, the diagonal entries of  $D$  are eigenvalues of  $A$  that correspond, respectively, to the eigenvectors in  $P$ .

## THEOREM 5

### The Diagonalization Theorem


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$$A = PDP^{-1} \quad AP = PD$$

$$AP = A[\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{v}_n] = [A\mathbf{v}_1 \quad A\mathbf{v}_2 \quad \cdots \quad A\mathbf{v}_n]$$


$$PD = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = [\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \quad \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n]$$



**EXAMPLE 3** Diagonalize the following matrix, if possible.

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

That is, find an invertible matrix  $P$  and a diagonal matrix  $D$  such that  $A = PDP^{-1}$ .



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$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = 1: \quad \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = -2: \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} 0 = \det(A - \lambda I) &= -\lambda^3 - 3\lambda^2 + 4 \\ &= -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 2)^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = 1: \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = -2: \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \mathbf{v}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$




**EXAMPLE 4** Diagonalize the following matrix, if possible.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 3 \\ -4 & -6 & -3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$0 = \det(A - \lambda I) = -\lambda^3 - 3\lambda^2 + 4 = -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 2)^2$$

$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = 1: \quad \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Basis for } \lambda = -2: \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



**EXAMPLE 5** Determine if the following matrix is diagonalizable.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -8 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Determine if the following matrix is diagonalizable.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -8 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

**THEOREM 6**

An  $n \times n$  matrix with  $n$  distinct eigenvalues is diagonalizable.



## THEOREM 7

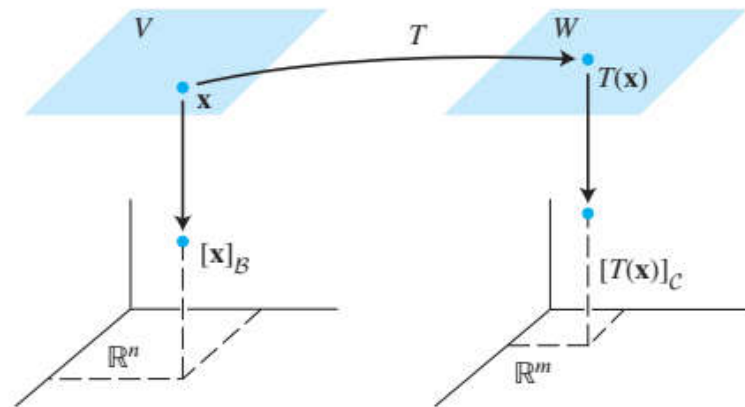
Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix whose distinct eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$ .

- a. For  $1 \leq k \leq p$ , the dimension of the eigenspace for  $\lambda_k$  is less than or equal to the multiplicity of the eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$ .
- b. The matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable if and only if the sum of the dimensions of the eigenspaces equals  $n$ , and this happens if and only if (i) the characteristic polynomial factors completely into linear factors and (ii) the dimension of the eigenspace for each  $\lambda_k$  equals the multiplicity of  $\lambda_k$ .
- c. If  $A$  is diagonalizable and  $\mathcal{B}_k$  is a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to  $\lambda_k$  for each  $k$ , then the total collection of vectors in the sets  $\mathcal{B}_1, \dots, \mathcal{B}_p$  forms an eigenvector basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## 5.4. EIGENVECTORS AND LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS



# Matrix of a Linear Transformation



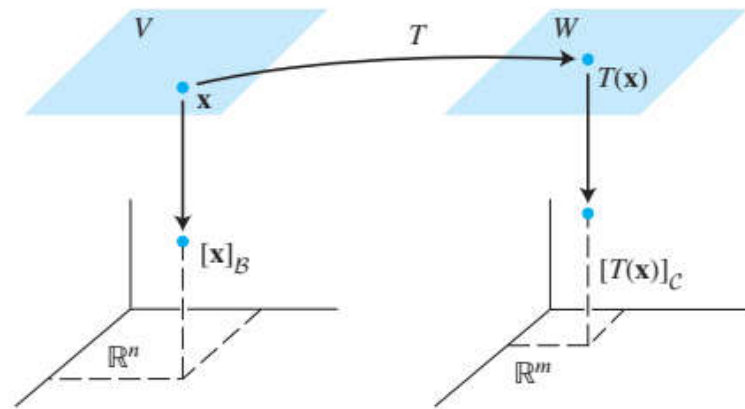
**FIGURE 1** A linear transformation from  $V$  to  $W$ .

# Matrix of a Linear Transformation

$$\mathbf{x} = r_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + r_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

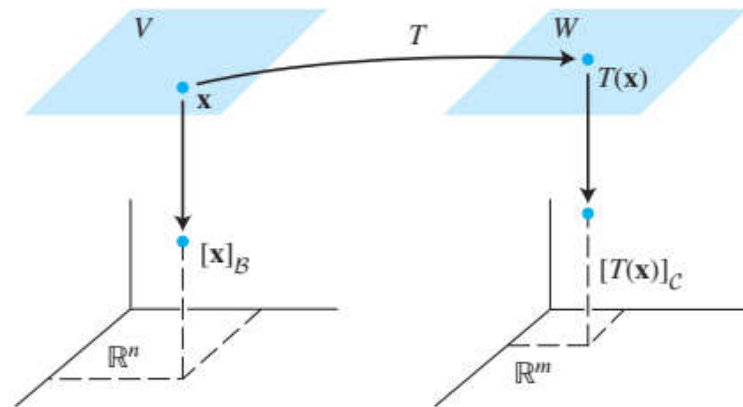
$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ \vdots \\ r_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = T(r_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + r_n \mathbf{b}_n) = r_1 T(\mathbf{b}_1) + \cdots + r_n T(\mathbf{b}_n)$$



**FIGURE 1** A linear transformation from  $V$  to  $W$ .

# Matrix of a Linear Transformation



**FIGURE 1** A linear transformation from  $V$  to  $W$ .

$$\mathbf{x} = r_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + r_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

$$[\mathbf{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ \vdots \\ r_n \end{bmatrix}$$


$$T(\mathbf{x}) = T(r_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + r_n \mathbf{b}_n) = r_1 T(\mathbf{b}_1) + \cdots + r_n T(\mathbf{b}_n)$$

$$[T(\mathbf{x})]_C = r_1 [T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_C + \cdots + r_n [T(\mathbf{b}_n)]_C$$

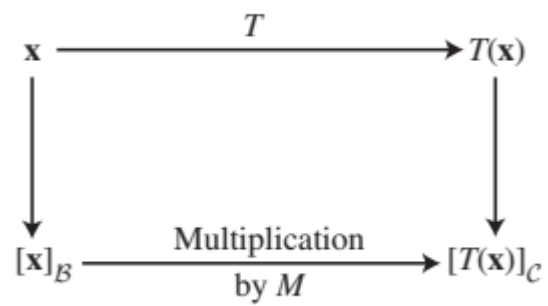
$$[T(\mathbf{x})]_C = M[\mathbf{x}]_B$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} [T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_C & [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_C & \cdots & [T(\mathbf{b}_n)]_C \end{bmatrix}$$




$$[T(\mathbf{x})]_C = M[\mathbf{x}]_B$$

matrix for  $T$  relative to the bases  $B$  and  $C$



**EXAMPLE 1** Suppose  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$  is a basis for  $V$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \mathbf{c}_3\}$  is a basis for  $W$ . Let  $T : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation with the property that


$$T(\mathbf{b}_1) = 3\mathbf{c}_1 - 2\mathbf{c}_2 + 5\mathbf{c}_3 \quad \text{and} \quad T(\mathbf{b}_2) = 4\mathbf{c}_1 + 7\mathbf{c}_2 - \mathbf{c}_3$$

Find the matrix  $M$  for  $T$  relative to  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$ .

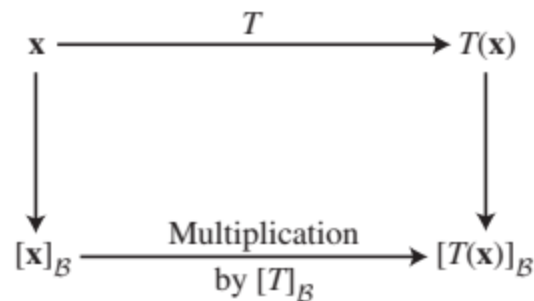
**EXAMPLE 1** Suppose  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$  is a basis for  $V$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \mathbf{c}_3\}$  is a basis for  $W$ . Let  $T : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation with the property that

$$T(\mathbf{b}_1) = 3\mathbf{c}_1 - 2\mathbf{c}_2 + 5\mathbf{c}_3 \quad \text{and} \quad T(\mathbf{b}_2) = 4\mathbf{c}_1 + 7\mathbf{c}_2 - \mathbf{c}_3$$

Find the matrix  $M$  for  $T$  relative to  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$ .


$$[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{C}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{C}} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

# Linear Transformations from $V$ into $V$



**matrix for  $T$  relative to  $\mathcal{B}$ , or simply the  $\mathcal{B}$ -matrix for  $T$ .**

$$[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left[ [T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad \cdots \quad [T(\mathbf{b}_n)]_{\mathcal{B}} \right]$$



**EXAMPLE 2** The mapping  $T : \mathbb{P}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{P}_2$  defined by

$$T(a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2) = a_1 + 2a_2t$$

- Find the  $\mathcal{B}$ -matrix for  $T$ , when  $\mathcal{B}$  is the basis  $\{1, t, t^2\}$ .
- Verify that  $[T(\mathbf{p})]_{\mathcal{B}} = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  for each  $\mathbf{p}$  in  $\mathbb{P}_2$ .

**EXAMPLE 2** The mapping  $T : \mathbb{P}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{P}_2$  defined by

$$T(a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2) = a_1 + 2a_2t$$

- Find the  $\mathcal{B}$ -matrix for  $T$ , when  $\mathcal{B}$  is the basis  $\{1, t, t^2\}$ .
- Verify that  $[T(\mathbf{p})]_{\mathcal{B}} = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  for each  $\mathbf{p}$  in  $\mathbb{P}_2$ .

$$\begin{array}{l} T(1) = 0 \\ T(t) = 1 \\ T(t^2) = 2t \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} [T(1)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad [T(t)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad [T(t^2)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ [T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

b. For a general  $\mathbf{p}(t) = a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} [T(\mathbf{p})]_{\mathcal{B}} &= [a_1 + 2a_2 t]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ 2a_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = [T]_{\mathcal{B}} [\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} \end{aligned}$$

$$P[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{x} \quad \text{and} \quad [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = P^{-1}\mathbf{x}$$

## THEOREM 8

### Diagonal Matrix Representation

Suppose  $A = PDP^{-1}$ , where  $D$  is a diagonal  $n \times n$  matrix. If  $\mathcal{B}$  is the basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  formed from the columns of  $P$ , then  $D$  is the  $\mathcal{B}$ -matrix for the transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ .

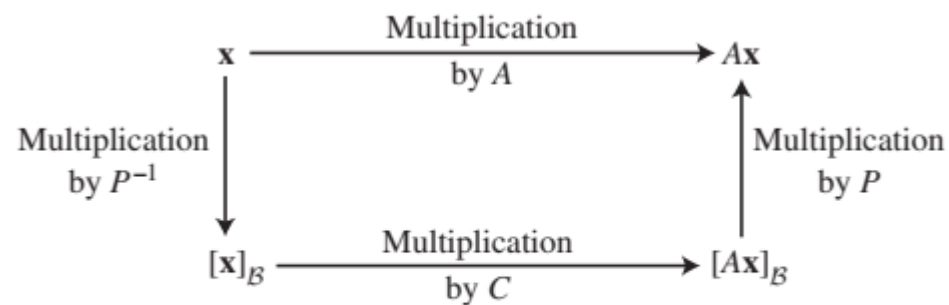
$$\begin{aligned} [T]_{\mathcal{B}} &= \begin{bmatrix} [T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} & \cdots & [T(\mathbf{b}_n)]_{\mathcal{B}} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} [A\mathbf{b}_1]_{\mathcal{B}} & \cdots & [A\mathbf{b}_n]_{\mathcal{B}} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} P^{-1}A\mathbf{b}_1 & \cdots & P^{-1}A\mathbf{b}_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= P^{-1}A[\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b}_n] \\ &= P^{-1}AP \end{aligned}$$




## Similarity of Matrix Representations

The proof of Theorem 8 did not use the information that  $D$  was diagonal.

$$A = PCP^{-1}$$



**FIGURE 5** Similarity of two matrix representations:  
 $A = PCP^{-1}$ .



Find  $T(a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2)$ , if  $T$  is the linear transformation from  $\mathbb{P}_2$  to  $\mathbb{P}_2$  whose matrix relative to  $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2\}$  is

$$[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find  $T(a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2)$ , if  $T$  is the linear transformation from  $\mathbb{P}_2$  to  $\mathbb{P}_2$  whose matrix relative to  $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2\}$  is

$$[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$


Let  $\mathbf{p}(t) = a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2$  and compute

$$[T(\mathbf{p})]_{\mathcal{B}} = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3a_0 + 4a_1 \\ 5a_1 - a_2 \\ a_0 - 2a_1 + 7a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

So  $T(\mathbf{p}) = (3a_0 + 4a_1) + (5a_1 - a_2)t + (a_0 - 2a_1 + 7a_2)t^2$ .


## 5.5. COMPLEX EIGENVALUES





a complex scalar  $\lambda$  satisfies  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$  if and only if there is a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ . We call  $\lambda$  a **(complex) eigenvalue** and  $\mathbf{x}$  a **(complex) eigenvector** corresponding to  $\lambda$ .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda^2 + 1 = 0 \quad \lambda = i \text{ and } \lambda = -i$$



**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Find the eigenvalues of  $A$ , and find a basis for each eigenspace.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = \det \begin{bmatrix} .5 - \lambda & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} &= (.5 - \lambda)(1.1 - \lambda) - (-.6)(.75) & \lambda &= \frac{1}{2}[1.6 \pm \sqrt{(-1.6)^2 - 4}] = .8 \pm .6i \\ &= \lambda^2 - 1.6\lambda + 1 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Find the eigenvalues of  $A$ , and find a basis for each eigenspace.

$$0 = \det \begin{bmatrix} .5 - \lambda & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = (.5 - \lambda)(1.1 - \lambda) - (-.6)(.75) \quad \lambda = \frac{1}{2}[1.6 \pm \sqrt{(-1.6)^2 - 4}] = .8 \pm .6i \\ = \lambda^2 - 1.6\lambda + 1$$

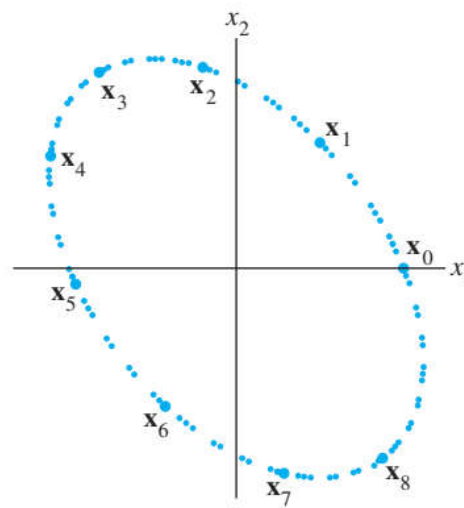
$$A - (.8 - .6i)I = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} .8 - .6i & 0 \\ 0 & .8 - .6i \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} (-.3 + .6i)x_1 - .6x_2 &= 0 \\ .75x_1 + (.3 + .6i)x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} -.3 + .6i & -.6 \\ .75 & .3 + .6i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} .75x_1 &= (-.3 - .6i)x_2 \\ x_1 &= (-.4 - .8i)x_2 \end{aligned} \quad \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 - 4i \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 + 4i \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_0$$


$$\mathbf{x}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_1$$

$$\mathbf{x}_3 = A\mathbf{x}_2,$$



**FIGURE 1** Iterates of a point  $\mathbf{x}_0$  under the action of a matrix with a complex eigenvalue.





The complex conjugate of a complex vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  is the vector  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  whose entries are the complex conjugates of the entries in  $\mathbf{x}$ . The **real** and **imaginary parts** of a complex vector  $\mathbf{x}$  are the vectors  $\text{Re } \mathbf{x}$  and  $\text{Im } \mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  formed from the real and imaginary parts of the entries of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

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**EXAMPLE 4** If  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3-i \\ i \\ 2+5i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ , then


$$\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - i \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3+i \\ -i \\ 2-5i \end{bmatrix} \quad \blacksquare$$

The complex conjugate of a complex vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  is the vector  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  whose entries are the complex conjugates of the entries in  $\mathbf{x}$ . The **real** and **imaginary parts** of a complex vector  $\mathbf{x}$  are the vectors  $\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{x}$  and  $\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  formed from the real and imaginary parts of the entries of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** If  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3-i \\ i \\ 2+5i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ , then

$$\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - i \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3+i \\ -i \\ 2-5i \end{bmatrix} \quad \blacksquare$$


$$\overline{r\mathbf{x}} = \bar{r} \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \quad \overline{B\mathbf{x}} = \bar{B} \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \quad \overline{BC} = \bar{B} \bar{C}, \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{rB} = \bar{r} \bar{B}$$



Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix whose entries are real. Then  $\overline{A\mathbf{x}} = \overline{A}\overline{\mathbf{x}} = A\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ . If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  and  $\mathbf{x}$  is a corresponding eigenvector in  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , then

$$A\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \overline{A\mathbf{x}} = \overline{\lambda\mathbf{x}} = \overline{\lambda}\overline{\mathbf{x}}$$

Hence  $\overline{\lambda}$  is also an eigenvalue of  $A$ , with  $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$  a corresponding eigenvector.



**EXAMPLE 6** If  $C = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are real and not both zero, then the eigenvalues of  $C$  are  $\lambda = a \pm bi$ . (See the Practice Problem at the end of this section.) Also, if  $r = |\lambda| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ , then


$$C = r \begin{bmatrix} a/r & -b/r \\ b/r & a/r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{bmatrix}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** If  $C = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are real and not both zero, then the eigenvalues of  $C$  are  $\lambda = a \pm bi$ . (See the Practice Problem at the end of this section.) Also, if  $r = |\lambda| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ , then

$$C = r \begin{bmatrix} a/r & -b/r \\ b/r & a/r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

rotation



**EXAMPLE 7** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\lambda = .8 - .6i$ , and  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 - 4i \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ , as in Example 2. Also, let  $P$  be the  $2 \times 2$  real matrix

$$P = [\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v}_1 \quad \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}_1] = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -4 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = P^{-1}AP$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\lambda = .8 - .6i$ , and  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 - 4i \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ , as in Example 2. Also, let  $P$  be the  $2 \times 2$  real matrix

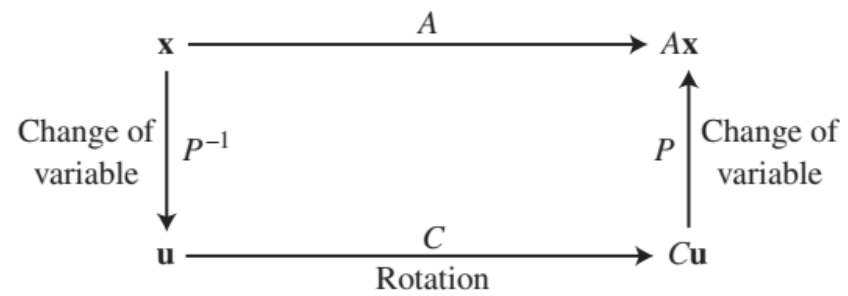
$$P = [\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v}_1 \quad \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}_1] = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -4 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = P^{-1}AP = \frac{1}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 \\ -5 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -4 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} .8 & -.6 \\ .6 & .8 \end{bmatrix}$$

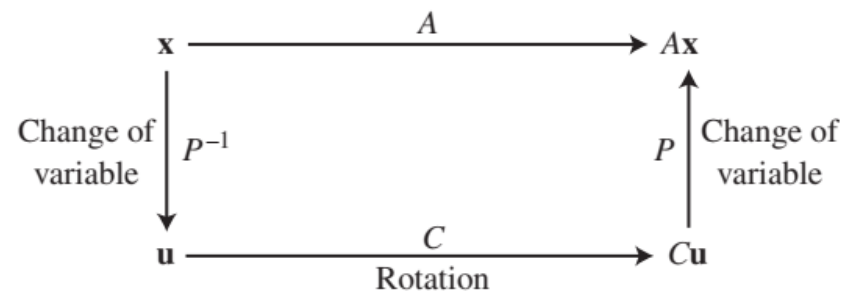
$$A = PCP^{-1} = P \begin{bmatrix} .8 & -.6 \\ .6 & .8 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

Pure rotation





**FIGURE 4** Rotation due to a complex eigenvalue.



**FIGURE 4** Rotation due to a complex eigenvalue.

## THEOREM 9

Let  $A$  be a real  $2 \times 2$  matrix with a complex eigenvalue  $\lambda = a - bi$  ( $b \neq 0$ ) and an associated eigenvector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . Then

$$A = PCP^{-1}, \quad \text{where } P = [\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v} \quad \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}] \quad \text{and} \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

## 5.8. ITERATIVE ESTIMATE FOR EIGENVALUES





Some applications require only a rough approximation to the largest eigenvalue

### Power method

The power method applies to an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  with a **strictly dominant eigenvalue**  $\lambda_1$ , which means that  $\lambda_1$  must be larger in absolute value than all the other eigenvalues. In this case, the power method produces a scalar sequence that approaches  $\lambda_1$  and a vector sequence that approaches a corresponding eigenvector.

# Power method

Assume for simplicity that  $A$  is diagonalizable and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a basis of eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ , arranged so their corresponding eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  decrease in size, with the strictly dominant eigenvalue first. That is,

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n| \quad (1)$$

↑ Strictly larger

# Power method

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$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n| \quad (1)$$

$\uparrow$  Strictly larger

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

$$A^k \mathbf{x} = c_1 (\lambda_1)^k \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 (\lambda_2)^k \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n (\lambda_n)^k \mathbf{v}_n \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots)$$

# Power method

Assume for simplicity that  $A$  is diagonalizable and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a basis of eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ , arranged so their corresponding eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  decrease in size, with the strictly dominant eigenvalue first. That is,

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n| \quad (1)$$

$\uparrow$  Strictly larger

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

$$A^k \mathbf{x} = c_1 (\lambda_1)^k \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 (\lambda_2)^k \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n (\lambda_n)^k \mathbf{v}_n \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$\frac{1}{(\lambda_1)^k} A^k \mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{v}_n \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$(\lambda_1)^{-k} A^k \mathbf{x} \rightarrow c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1.8 & .8 \\ .2 & 1.2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Then  $A$  has eigenvalues 2 and 1, and the eigenspace for  $\lambda_1 = 2$  is the line through  $\mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{v}_1$ . For  $k = 0, \dots, 8$ , compute  $A^k \mathbf{x}$  and construct the line through  $\mathbf{0}$  and  $A^k \mathbf{x}$ . What happens as  $k$  increases?

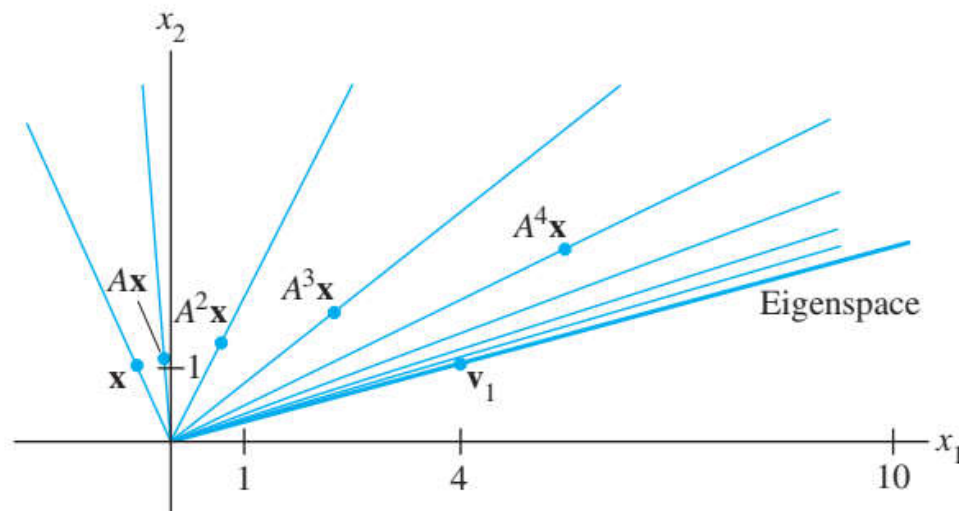


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**TABLE 1** Iterates of a Vector

$k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$A^k \mathbf{x}$	$\begin{bmatrix} -.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} -.1 \\ 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} .7 \\ 1.3 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 2.3 \\ 1.7 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 5.5 \\ 2.5 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 11.9 \\ 4.1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 24.7 \\ 7.3 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 50.3 \\ 13.7 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 101.5 \\ 26.5 \end{bmatrix}$

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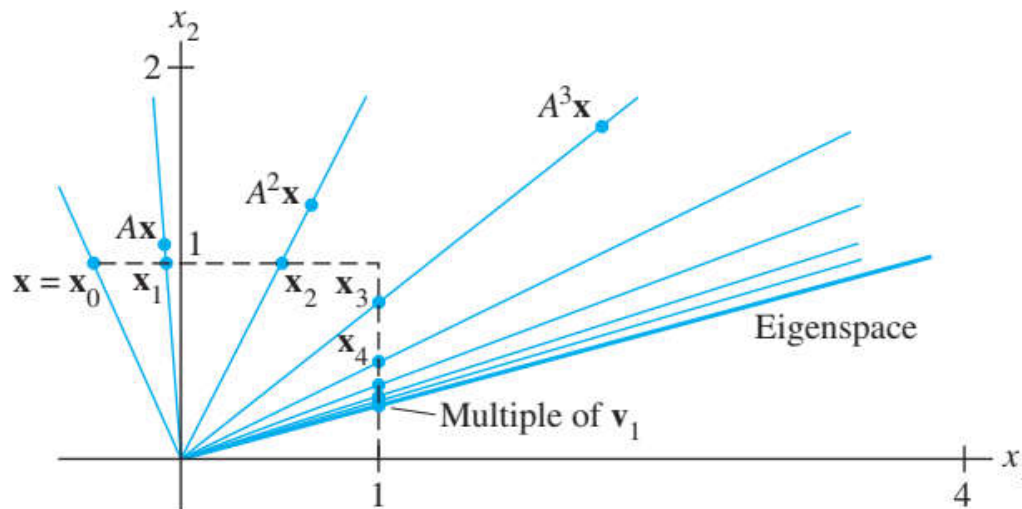


**FIGURE 1** Directions determined by  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $A\mathbf{x}$ ,  $A^2\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $A^7\mathbf{x}$ .




We cannot scale  $A^k \mathbf{x}$  in this way because we do not know  $\lambda_1$ . But we can scale each  $A^k \mathbf{x}$  to make its largest entry a 1. It turns out that the resulting sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  will converge to a multiple of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  whose largest entry is 1.

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**FIGURE 2** Scaled multiples of  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $A\mathbf{x}$ ,  $A^2\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $A^7\mathbf{x}$ .




$\mathbf{x}_k$  is close to an eigenvector for  $\lambda_1$ , the vector  $A\mathbf{x}_k$  is close to  $\lambda_1\mathbf{x}_k$ , with each entry in  $A\mathbf{x}_k$  approximately  $\lambda_1$  times the corresponding entry in  $\mathbf{x}_k$ . Because the largest entry in  $\mathbf{x}_k$  is 1, the largest entry in  $A\mathbf{x}_k$  is close to  $\lambda_1$ .

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### THE POWER METHOD FOR ESTIMATING A STRICTLY DOMINANT EIGENVALUE

1. Select an initial vector  $\mathbf{x}_0$  whose largest entry is 1.
2. For  $k = 0, 1, \dots$ ,
  - a. Compute  $A\mathbf{x}_k$ .
  - b. Let  $\mu_k$  be an entry in  $A\mathbf{x}_k$  whose absolute value is as large as possible.
  - c. Compute  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = (1/\mu_k)A\mathbf{x}_k$ .
3. For almost all choices of  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , the sequence  $\{\mu_k\}$  approaches the dominant eigenvalue, and the sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  approaches a corresponding eigenvector.



**EXAMPLE 2** Apply the power method to  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  with  $\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Stop when  $k = 5$ , and estimate the dominant eigenvalue and a corresponding eigenvector of  $A$ .

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**TABLE 2** The Power Method for Example 2

$k$	0	1	2	3	4	5
$\mathbf{x}_k$	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .4 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .225 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .2035 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .2005 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .20007 \end{bmatrix}$
$A\mathbf{x}_k$	$\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 1.8 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 7.125 \\ 1.450 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 7.0175 \\ 1.4070 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 7.0025 \\ 1.4010 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 7.00036 \\ 1.40014 \end{bmatrix}$
$\mu_k$	5	8	7.125	7.0175	7.0025	7.00036



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$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 1.4 \end{bmatrix} = 7 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ .2 \end{bmatrix} . \quad \bullet \quad \bullet$$

Rate of  
convergence

# **PAGE RANKING FOR A WEB SEARCH ENGINE**



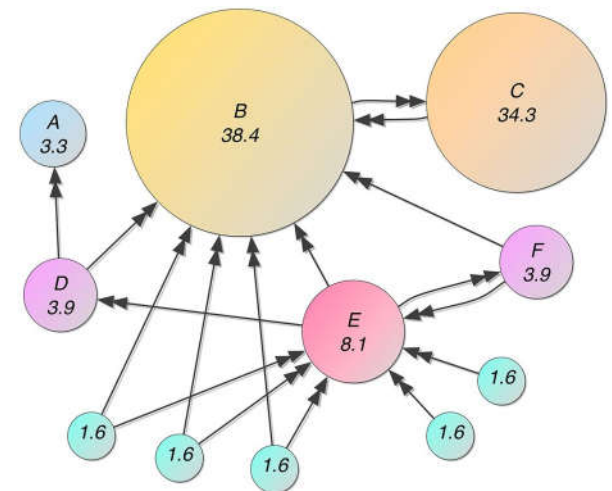
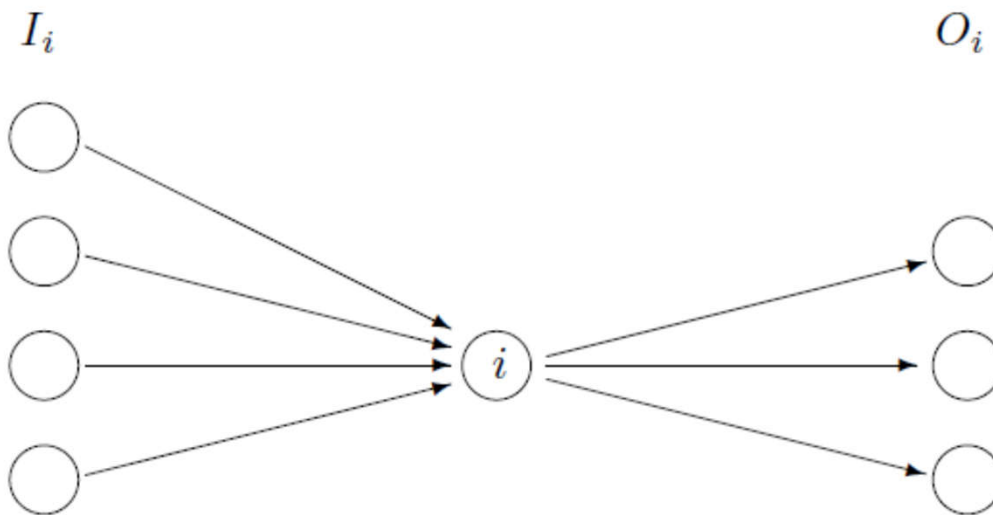
# Pagerank



- When a search on the Internet using a search engine, find all the Web pages containing the words of the query.
- massive size of the Web
- some measure to filter out pages less interesting
- Google uses an algorithm for ranking all the Web pages based on link structure of the Web
- Google assigns a high rank to a Web page if it has inlinks from other pages that have a high rank.

# Pagerank

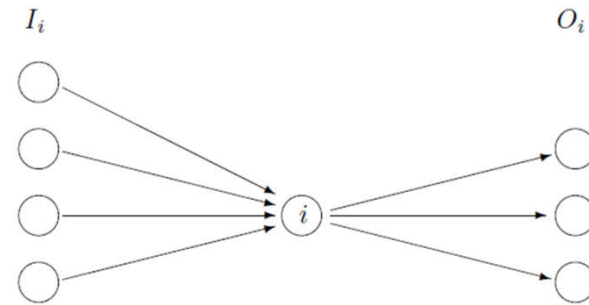
- Number of links to and from a page give information about the importance of a page
- Web pages ordered from 1 to  $n$ , and let  $i$  be a particular Web page
- $O_i$  set of pages that  $i$  is linked to, *outlinks*. number of outlinks denoted  $N_i = |O_i|$ .
- set of *inlinks*, denoted  $I_i$ , are the pages that have an outlink to  $i$ .



# Pagerank

- rank of page  $i$  is a weighted sum of the ranks of the pages that have outlinks to  $i$

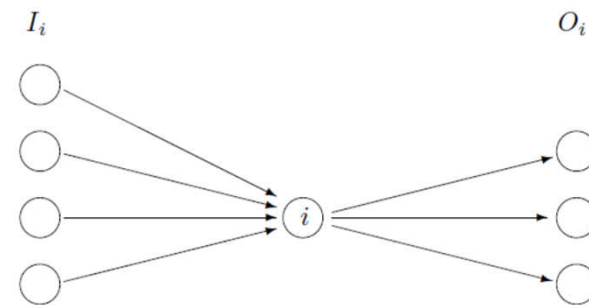
$$r_i = \sum_{j \in I_i} \frac{r_j}{N_j}$$



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reformulate as an eigenvalue problem for a matrix representing the graph of Internet

$$Q_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1/N_j & \text{if there is a link from } j \text{ to } i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

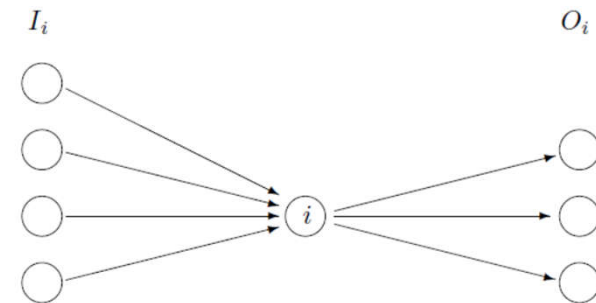
product of row  $i$  and the vector  $r$

$$i \begin{pmatrix} & j \\ & * \\ & 0 \\ & \vdots \\ 0 & * & \dots & * & * & \dots \\ & \vdots \\ & 0 \\ & * \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \leftarrow \text{inlinks} \\ \uparrow \text{outlinks} \end{matrix}$$

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$$\lambda r = Qr, \quad \lambda = 1,$$

*column-stochastic matrix*

nonnegative  
elements, and the  
elements of each  
column sum up to 1



**Power Method for Pagerank Computation**