## Jim Lambers MAT 461/561 Spring Semester 2009-10 Lecture 17 Notes

These notes correspond to Section 7.2 in the text.

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

We have learned what it means for a sequence of vectors to converge to a limit. However, using the definition alone, it may still be difficult to determine, conclusively, whether a given sequence of vectors converges. For example, suppose a sequence of vectors is defined as follows: we choose the initial vector  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  arbitrarily, and then define the rest of the sequence by

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

for some matrix A. Such a sequence will actually arise when we discuss the convergence of various iterative methods for solving systems of linear equations.

An important question will be whether a sequence of this form converges to the zero vector. This will be the case if

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \|\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\| = 0$$

in some vector norm. From the definition of  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ , we must have

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} ||A^k \mathbf{x}^{(0)}|| = 0.$$

From the submultiplicative property of matrix norms,

$$||A^k \mathbf{x}^{(0)}|| \le ||A||^k ||\mathbf{x}^{(0)}||,$$

from which it follows that the sequence will converge to the zero vector if ||A|| < 1. However, this is only a *sufficient* condition; it is not *necessary*.

To obtain a sufficient and necessary condition, it is necessary to achieve a better understanding of the effect of matrix-vector multiplication on the magnitude of a vector. However, because matrix-vector multiplication is a complicated operation, this understanding can be difficult to acquire. Therefore, it is helpful to identify circumstances under which this operation can be simply described.

To that end, we say that a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of an  $n \times n$  matrix A if there exists a scalar  $\lambda$  such that

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

The scalar  $\lambda$  is called an *eigenvalue* of A corresponding to  $\mathbf{x}$ . Note that although  $\mathbf{x}$  is required to be nonzero, it is possible that  $\lambda$  can be zero. It can also be complex, even if A is a real matrix.

If we rearrange the above equation, we have

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

That is, if  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A, then  $A - \lambda I$  is a singular matrix, and therefore  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ . This equation is actually a polynomial in  $\lambda$ , which is called the *characteristic polynomial* of A. If A is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then the characteristic polynomial is of degree n, which means that A has n eigenvalues, which may repeat.

The following properties of eigenvalues and eigenvectors are helpful to know:

- If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A, then there is at least one eigenvector of A corresponding to  $\lambda$
- If there exists an invertible matrix P such that  $B = PAP^{-1}$ , then A and B have the same eigenvalues. We say that A and B are similar, and the transformation  $PAP^{-1}$  is called a  $similarity \ transformation$ .
- If A is a symmetric matrix, then its eigenvalues are real.
- If A is a skew-symmetric matrix, meaning that  $A^T = -A$ , then its eigenvalues are either equal to zero, or are purely imaginary.
- If A is a real matrix, and  $\lambda = u + iv$  is a complex eigenvalue of A, then  $\bar{\lambda} = u iv$  is also an eigenvalue of A.
- If A is a triangular matrix, then its diagonal entries are the eigenvalues of A.
- det(A) is equal to the product of the eigenvalues of A.
- tr(A), the sum of the diagonal entries of A, is also equal to the sum of the eigenvalues of A.

It follows that any method for computing the roots of a polynomial can be used to obtain the eigenvalues of a matrix A. However, in practice, eigenvalues are normally computed using iterative methods that employ orthogonal similarity transformations to reduce A to upper triangular form, thus revealing the eigenvalues of A. In practice, such methods for computing eigenvalues are used to compute roots of polynomials, rather than using polynomial root-finding methods to compute eigenvalues, because they are much more robust with respect to roundoff error.

It can be shown that if each eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of a matrix A satisfies  $|\lambda| < 1$ , then, for any vector  $\mathbf{x}$ ,

$$\lim_{k\to\infty}A^k\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{0}.$$

Furthermore, the converse of this statement is also true: if there exists a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $A^k \mathbf{x}$  does not approach  $\mathbf{0}$  as  $k \to \infty$ , then at least one eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of A must satisfy  $|\lambda| \ge 1$ .

Therefore, it is through the eigenvalues of A that we can describe a necessary and sufficient condition for a sequence of vectors of the form  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = A^k \mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  to converge to the zero vector. Specifically, we need only check if the magnitude of the largest eigenvalue is less than 1. For convenience, we define the *spectral radius* of A, denoted by  $\rho(A)$ , to be  $\max |\lambda|$ , where  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A. We can then conclude that the sequence  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = A^k \mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  converges to the zero vector if and only if  $\rho(A) < 1$ .

The spectral radius is closely related to natural (induced) matrix norms. Let  $\lambda$  be the largest eigenvalue of A, with  $\mathbf{x}$  being a corresponding eigenvector. Then, for any natural matrix norm  $\|\cdot\|$ , we have

$$\rho(A)\|\mathbf{x}\| = |\lambda|\|\mathbf{x}\| = \|\lambda\mathbf{x}\| = \|A\mathbf{x}\| \le \|A\|\|\mathbf{x}\|.$$

Therefore, we have  $\rho(A) \leq ||A||$ . When A is symmetric, we also have

$$||A||_2 = \rho(A).$$

For a general matrix A, we have

$$||A||_2 = [\rho(A^T A)]^{1/2},$$

which can be seen to reduce to  $\rho(A)$  when  $A^T = A$ , since, in general,  $\rho(A^k) = \rho(A)^k$ .

Because the condition  $\rho(A) < 1$  is necessary and sufficient to ensure that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} A^k \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , it is possible that such convergence may occur even if  $||A|| \ge 1$  for some natural norm  $||\cdot||$ . However, if  $\rho(A) < 1$ , we can conclude that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} ||A^k|| = 0,$$

even though  $\lim_{k\to\infty} \|A\|^k$  may not even exist.

In view of the definition of a matrix norm, that ||A|| = 0 if and only if A = 0, we can conclude that if  $\rho(A) < 1$ , then  $A^k$  converges to the zero matrix as  $k \to \infty$ . In summary, the following statements are all equivalent:

- 1.  $\rho(A) < 1$
- 2.  $\lim_{k\to\infty} ||A^k|| = 0$ , for any natural norm  $||\cdot||$
- 3.  $\lim_{k\to\infty} (A^k)_{ij} = 0, i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$
- 4.  $\lim_{k\to\infty} A^k \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

We will see that these results are very useful for analyzing the convergence behavior of various iterative methods for solving systems of linear equations.