

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

**Geometric Algorithms
Lecture 18**

Practice Problem

Suppose A is a 234×300 matrix. What is the smallest possible value for $\dim(\text{Nul}(A))$? What is the largest possible value?

What is the smallest possible value for $\text{rank}(A)$? What is the largest possible value?

Answer

A is $m \times n$
 234×300

$$\dim(\text{Col } A) + \dim(\text{Nul } A) = n$$

"rank" "nullity"

$$66 \leq \dim(\text{Nul } A) \leq 300$$
$$0 \leq \dim(\text{Col } A) \leq 234$$

300

if $\dim(\text{Nul } A) = 300$

& $\dim(\text{Col } A) = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_{300} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Objectives

1. Motivate and introduce the fundamental notion of eigenvalues and eigenvectors
2. Determine how to verify eigenvalues and eigenvectors
3. Look at the subspace generated by eigenvectors
4. Apply the study of eigenvectors to dynamical linear systems

Keyword

Eigenvalues

Eigenvectors

Null Space

Eigenspace

Linear Dynamical Systems

Closed-Form Solutions

Motivation

demo

How can matrices transform vectors?*

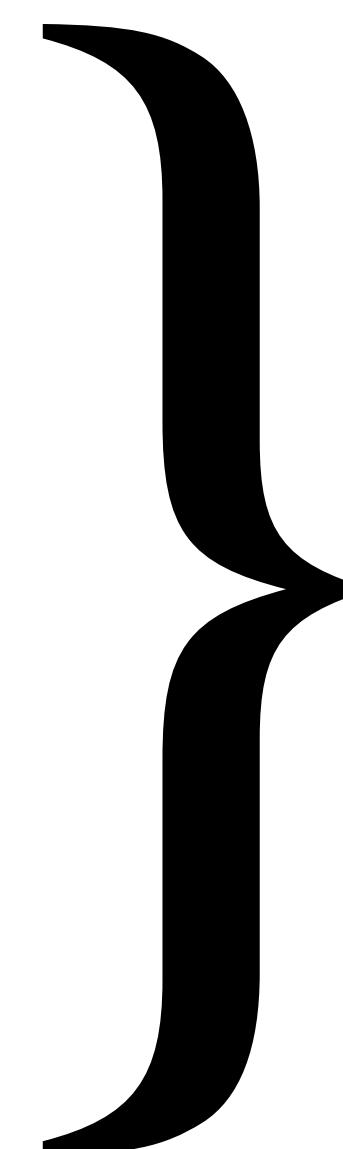
In 2D and 3D we've seen:

- » rotations
- » projections
- » shearing
- » reflection
- » scaling/stretching
- » ...

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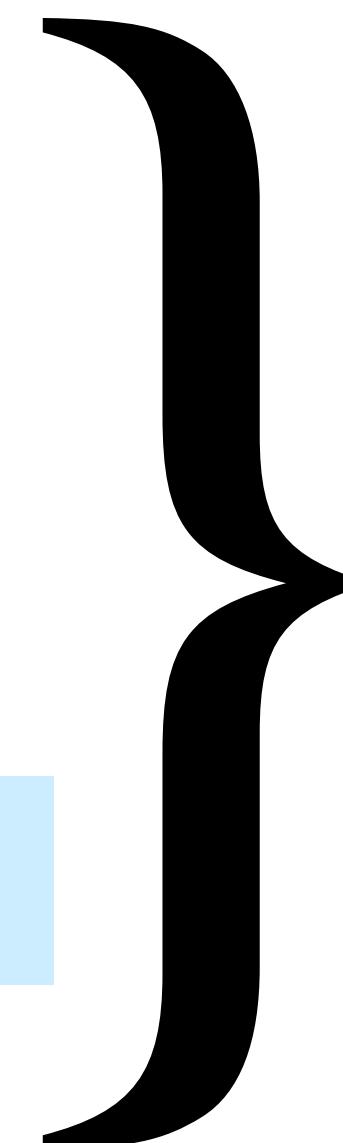


All matrices do
some combination
of these things

How can matrices transform vectors?*

In 2D and 3D we've seen:

- » rotations
- » projections
- » shearing
- » reflection
- » scaling/stretching
- » ... **Today's focus**



All matrices do
some combination
of these things

What's special about scaling?

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We don't need a whole matrix to do scaling

$$\mathbf{x} \mapsto c\mathbf{x}$$

What's special about scaling?

We don't need a whole matrix to do scaling

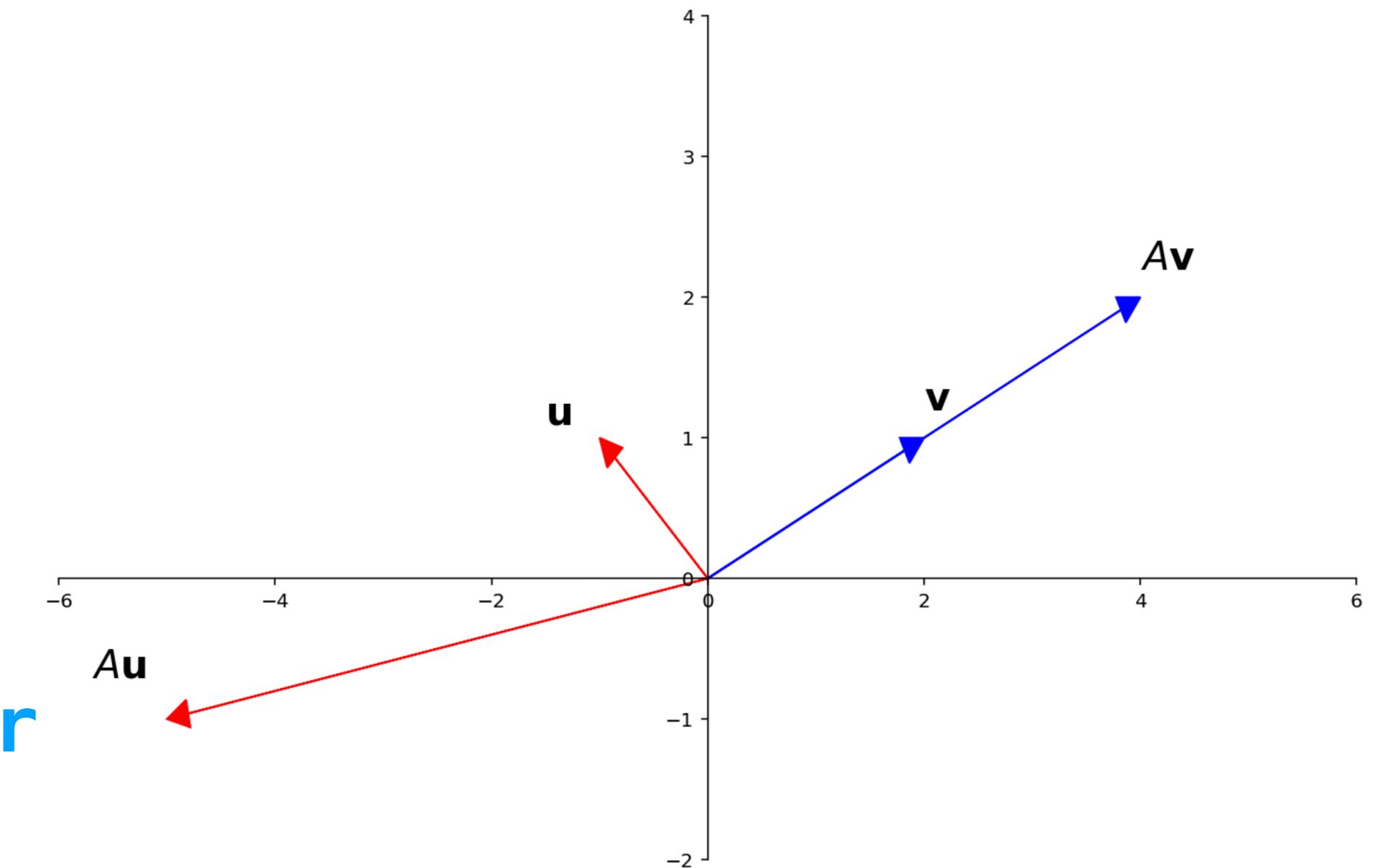
$$\mathbf{x} \mapsto c\mathbf{x}$$

So if $A\mathbf{v} = c\mathbf{v}$ then it's "easy to describe" what A does to \mathbf{v} .

Eigenvectors (Informal)

$$A \boxed{\mathbf{v}} = \lambda \boxed{\mathbf{v}}$$

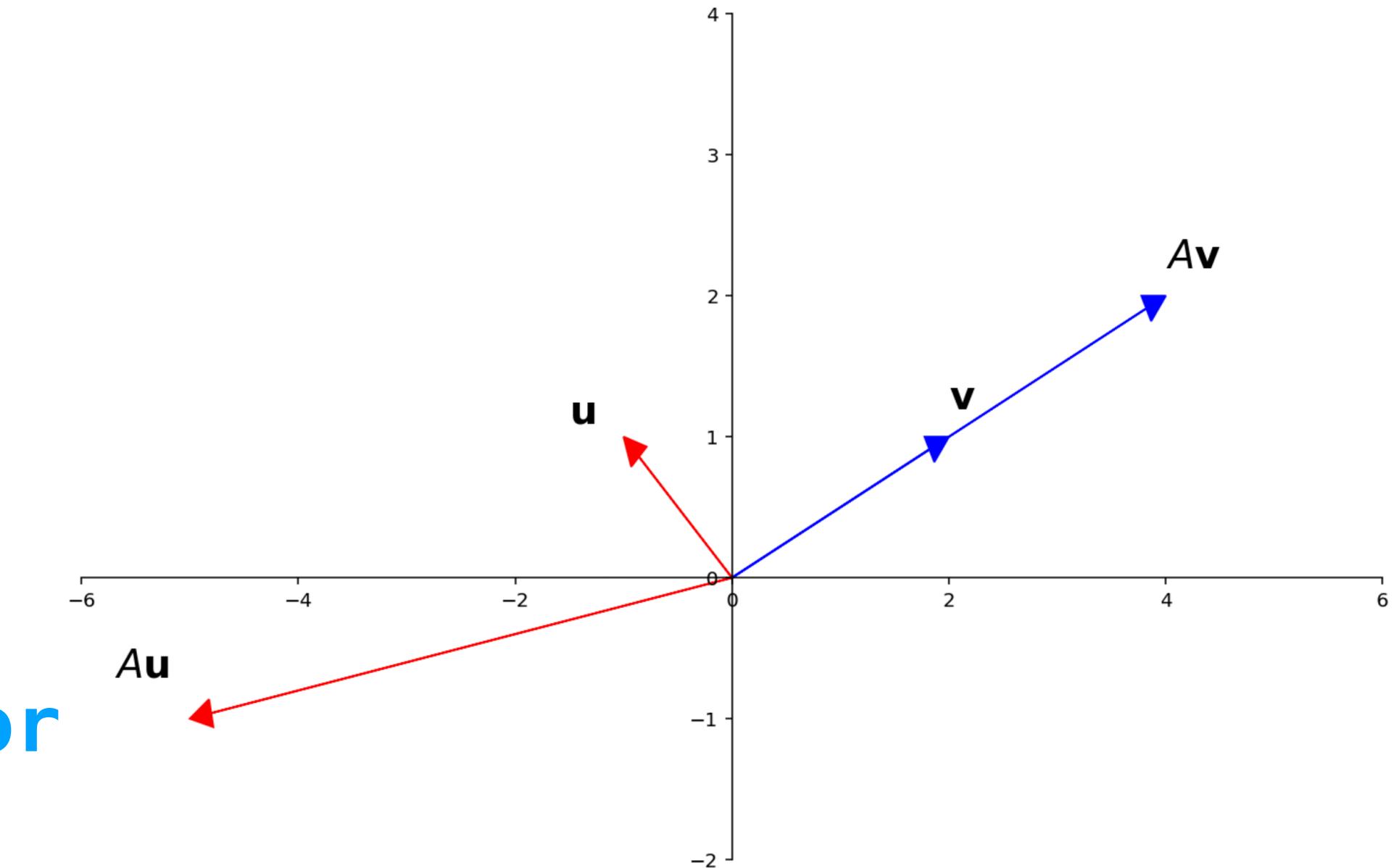
eigenvalue eigenvector



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eigenvalue **eigenvector**

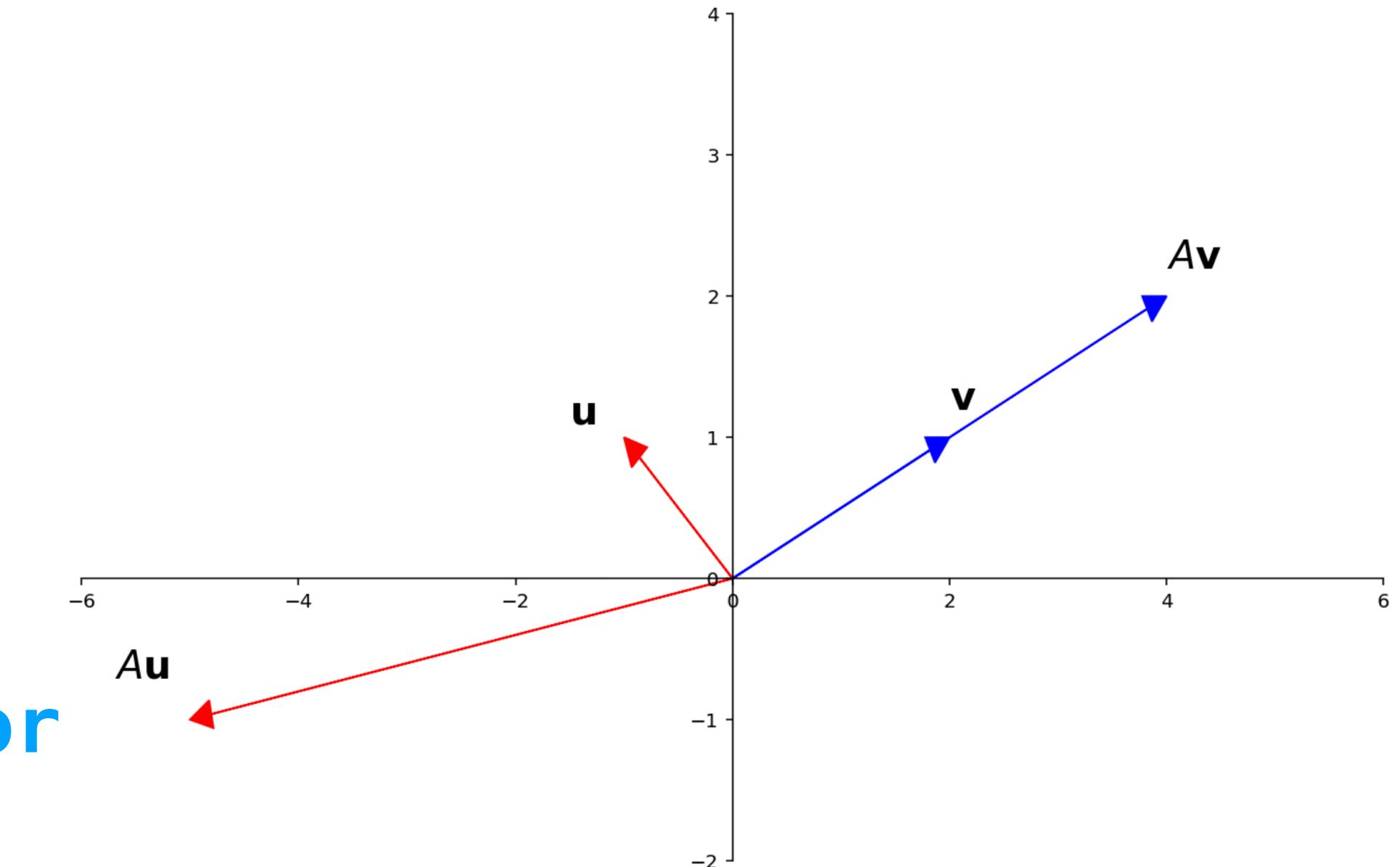


Eigenvectors of A are stretched by A without changing their direction.

Eigenvectors (Informal)

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

eigenvalue
eigenvector



Eigenvectors of A are stretched by A without changing their direction.

The amount they are stretched is called the **eigenvalue**.

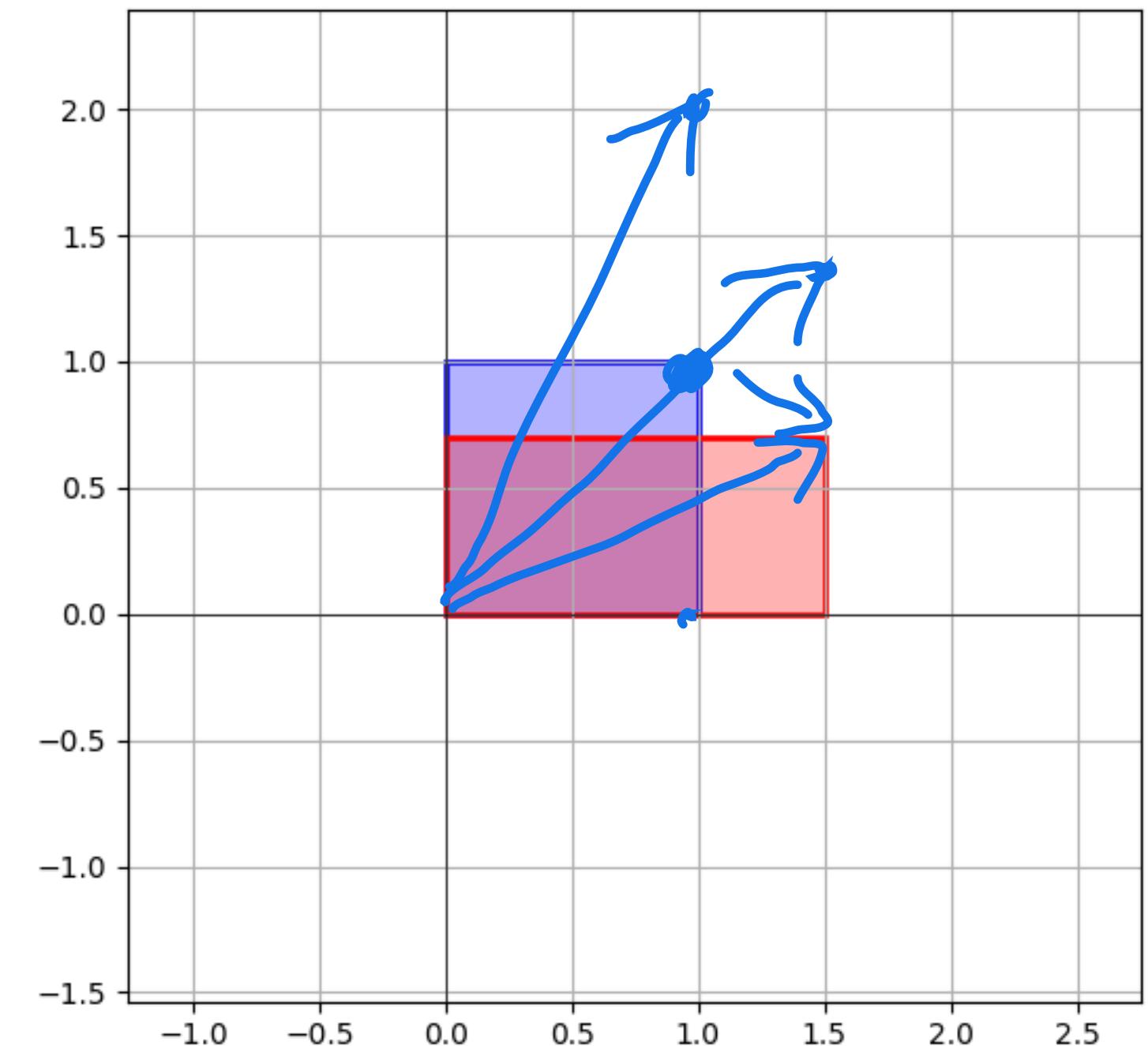
Example: Unequal Scaling

It's "easy to describe" how unequal scaling transforms vectors.

It transforms each entry individually and then combines them.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = (1.5) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Eigenbases (Informal)

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Imagine if $\underline{v = 2\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_2 - 5\mathbf{b}_3}$ and $\underline{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3}$ are eigenvectors of A . Then

$$A\mathbf{v} = 2\lambda_1\mathbf{b}_1 - \lambda_2\mathbf{b}_2 - 5\lambda_3\mathbf{b}_3$$

Eigenbases (Informal)

Imagine if $\underline{v = 2b_1 - b_2 - 5b_3}$ and $\underline{b_1, b_2, b_3}$ are eigenvectors of A . Then

$$Av = 2\lambda_1 \mathbf{b}_1 - \lambda_2 \mathbf{b}_2 - 5\lambda_3 \mathbf{b}_3$$

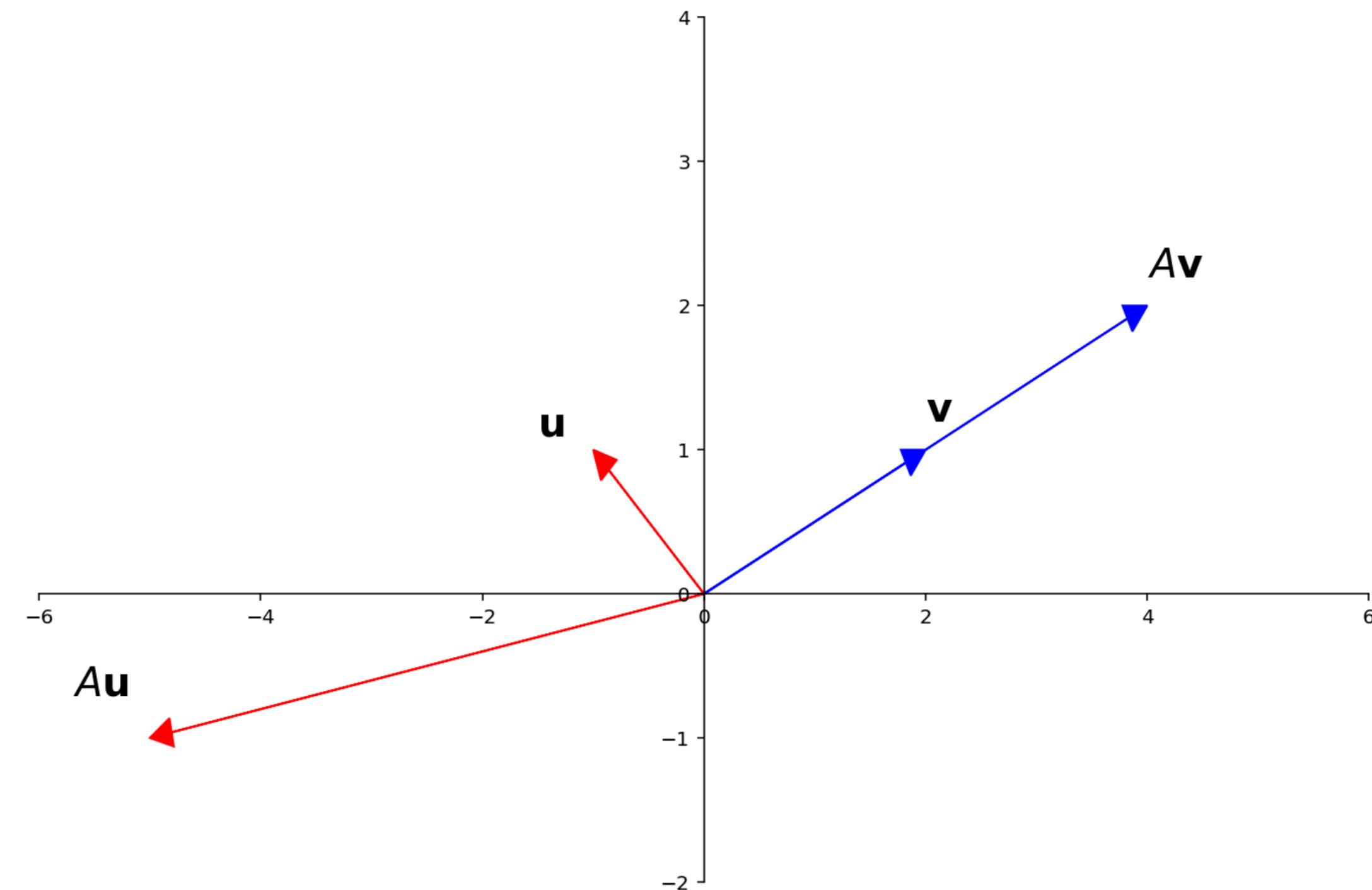
It's "easy to describe" how A transforms v .

It transforms each "component" individually and then combines them.

Verify: $\vec{Av} = A(2\vec{b}_1 - \vec{b}_2 - 5\vec{b}_3) = 2A\vec{b}_1 - A\vec{b}_2 - 5A\vec{b}_3$
 $= 2\lambda_1 \vec{b}_1 - \lambda_2 \vec{b}_2 - 5\lambda_3 \vec{b}_3$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

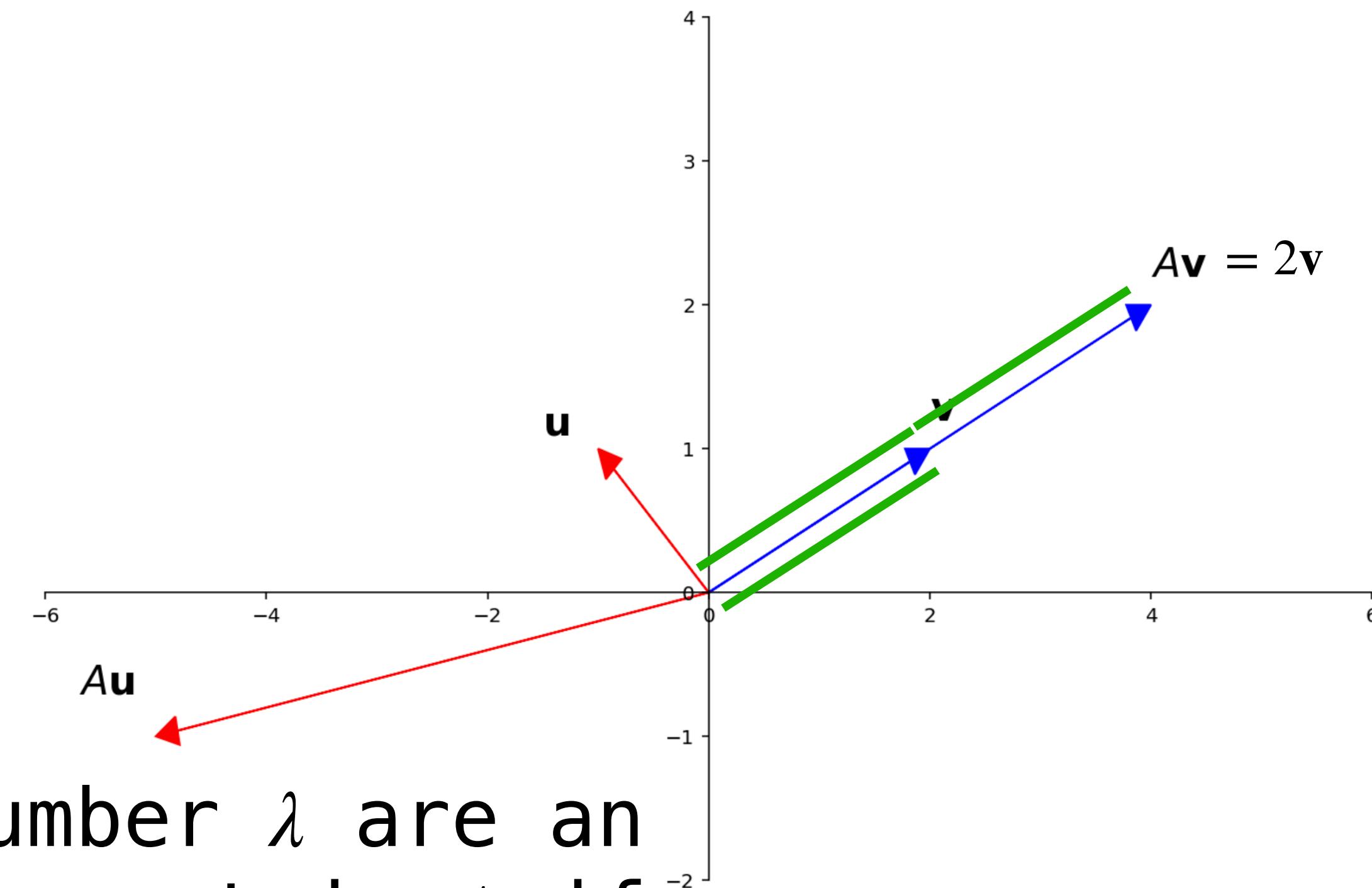
Formal Definition



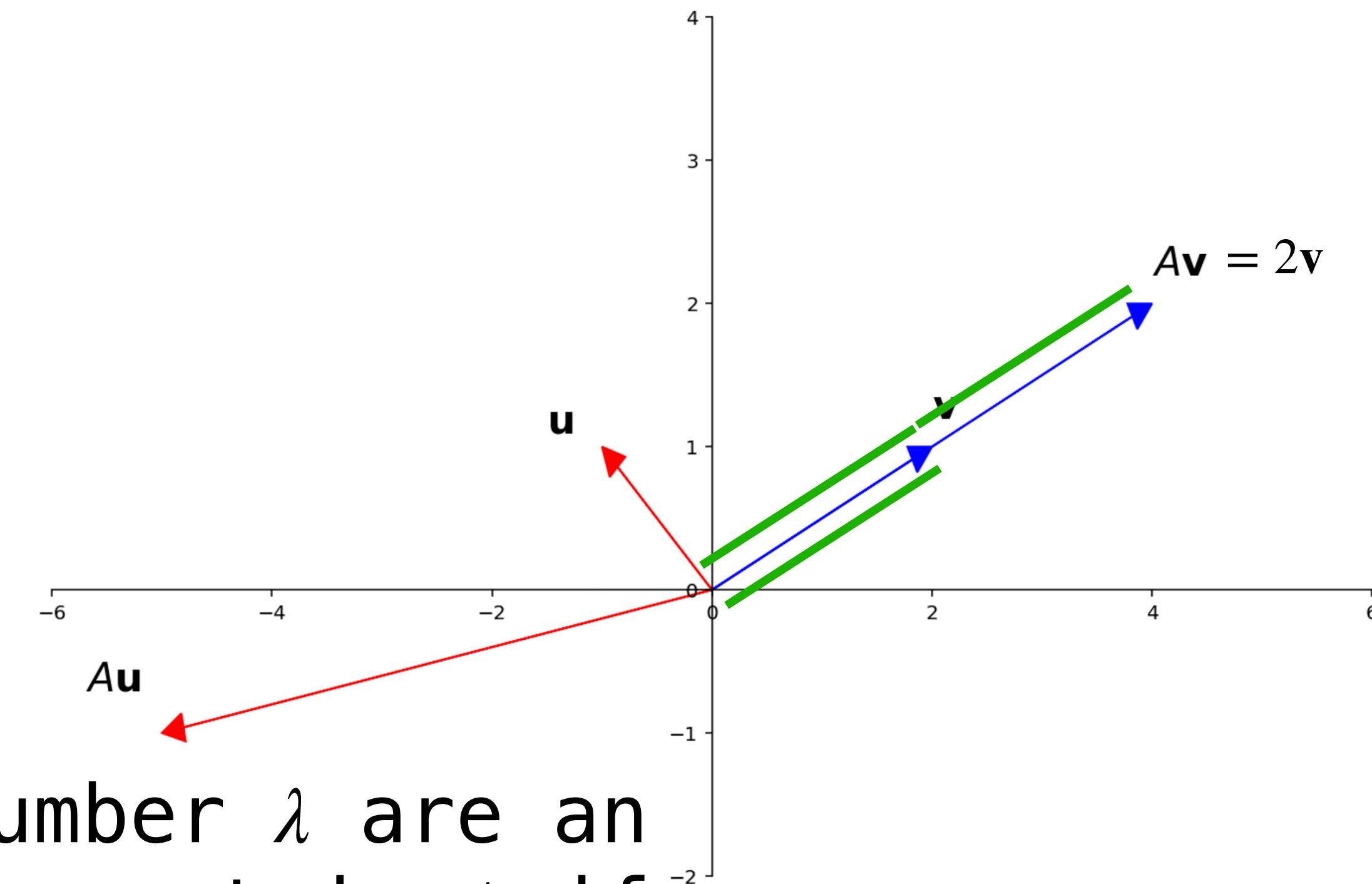
Formal Definition

A *nonzero* vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n and real number λ are an **eigenvector** and **eigenvalue** for a $n \times n$ matrix A if

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



Formal Definition



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$$Av = \lambda v$$

We will say that v is an eigenvector of/for the eigenvalue λ , and that λ is the eigenvalue of/corresponding to v .

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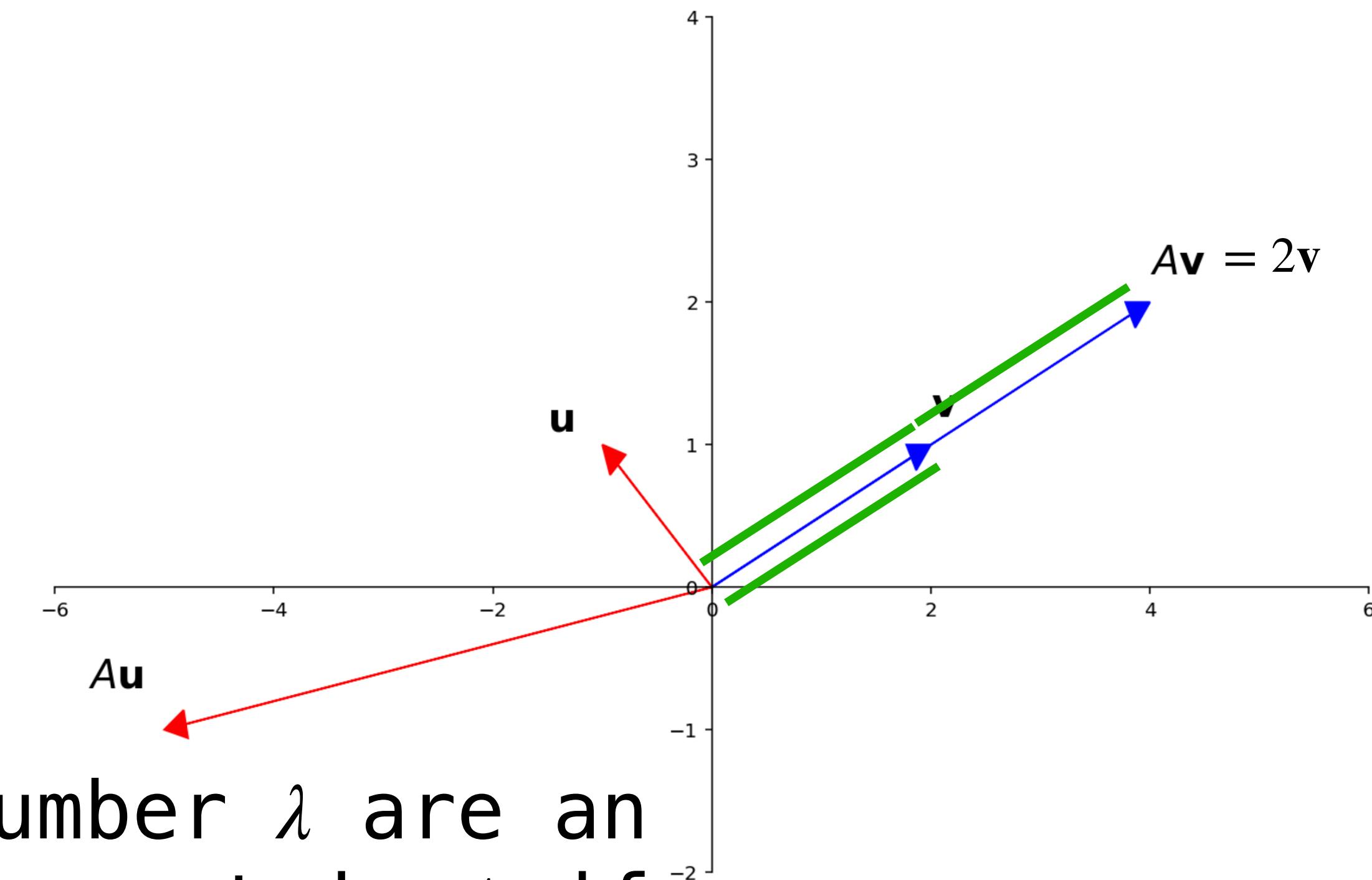
$$\vec{A}\vec{0} = \vec{0} = (0)\vec{0}$$

A nonzero vector v in \mathbb{R}^n and real number λ are an **eigenvector** and **eigenvalue** for a $n \times n$ matrix A if

$$Av = \lambda v$$

We will say that v is an eigenvector of/for the eigenvalue λ , and that λ is the eigenvalue of/corresponding to v .

Note. Eigenvectors must be nonzero, but it is possible for 0 to be an eigenvalue.



What if 0 is an eigenvalue?

What if 0 is an eigenvalue?

If A has the eigenvalue 0 with the eigenvector v , then

there is some $\vec{v} \neq 0$ such that

what is the set
of vectors \vec{v} that satisfy

$$A\vec{v} = 0\vec{v} = 0$$

← same as $\text{Nu}(A)$

What if 0 is an eigenvalue?

If A has the eigenvalue 0 with the eigenvector v , then

$$Av = 0v = 0$$

In other words,

- » $v \in \text{Nul}(A)$
- » v is a nontrivial solution to $Av = 0$

Extending the IMT (Again)

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Theorem. A $n \times n$ matrix is invertible if and only if it does not have 0 as an eigenvalue.

$$\text{Nul}(A) = \{0\}$$

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To reiterate. An eigenvalue 0 is equivalent to

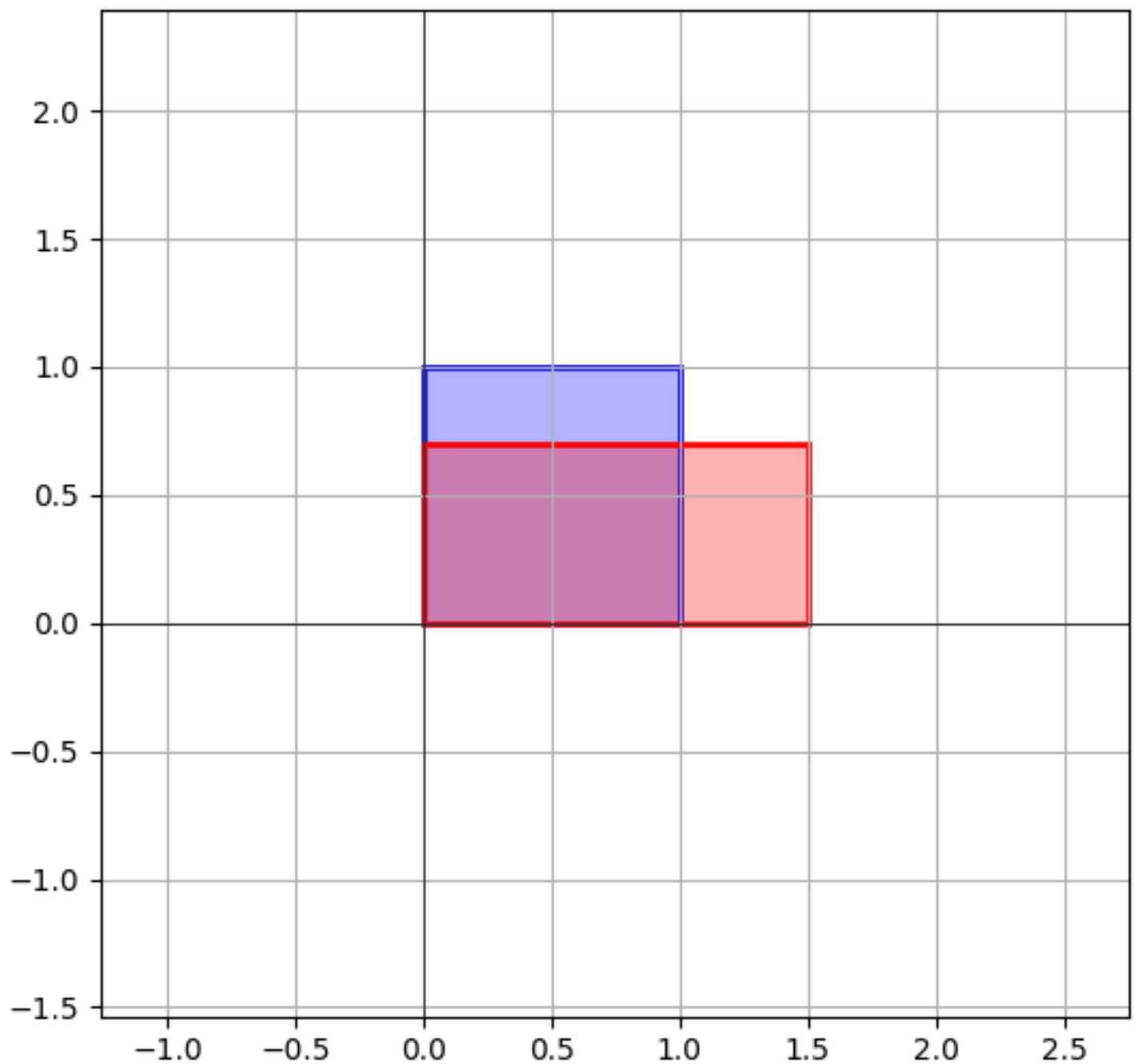
- » $Ax = 0$ has ~~new~~ nontrivial solutions
- » the columns of A are linearly dependent
- » $\text{Col}(A) \neq \mathbb{R}^n$
- » ...

$$\dim(\text{Nul } A) > 0$$

(+ *
* *)
*some free variables
in RREF*

Example: Unequal Scaling

Let's determine it's eigenvalues and eigenvectors:



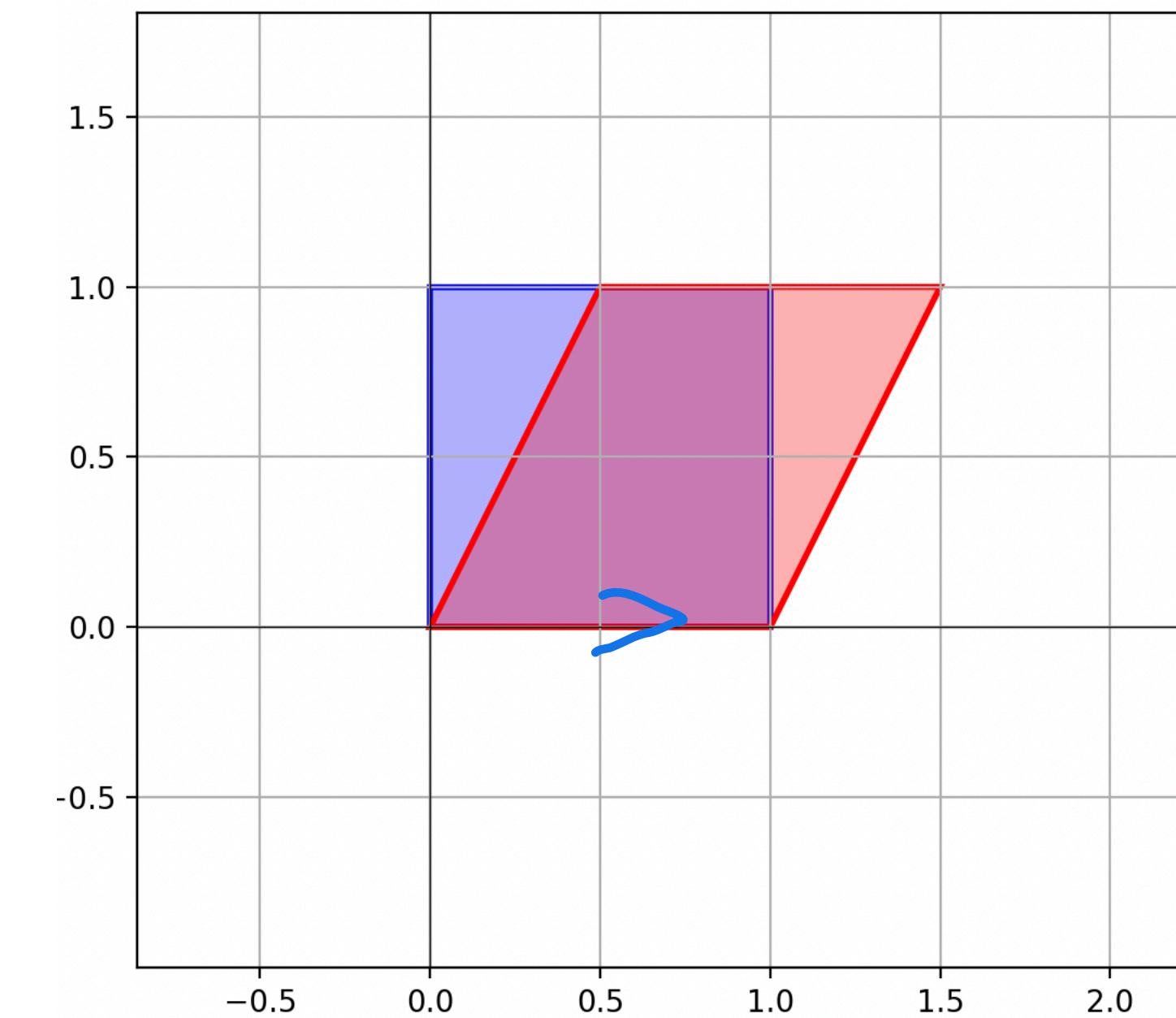
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Shearing

Let's determine it's eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = (1) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A(\vec{v}) = c A \vec{v} = c \lambda \vec{v} = \lambda(c \vec{v})$$



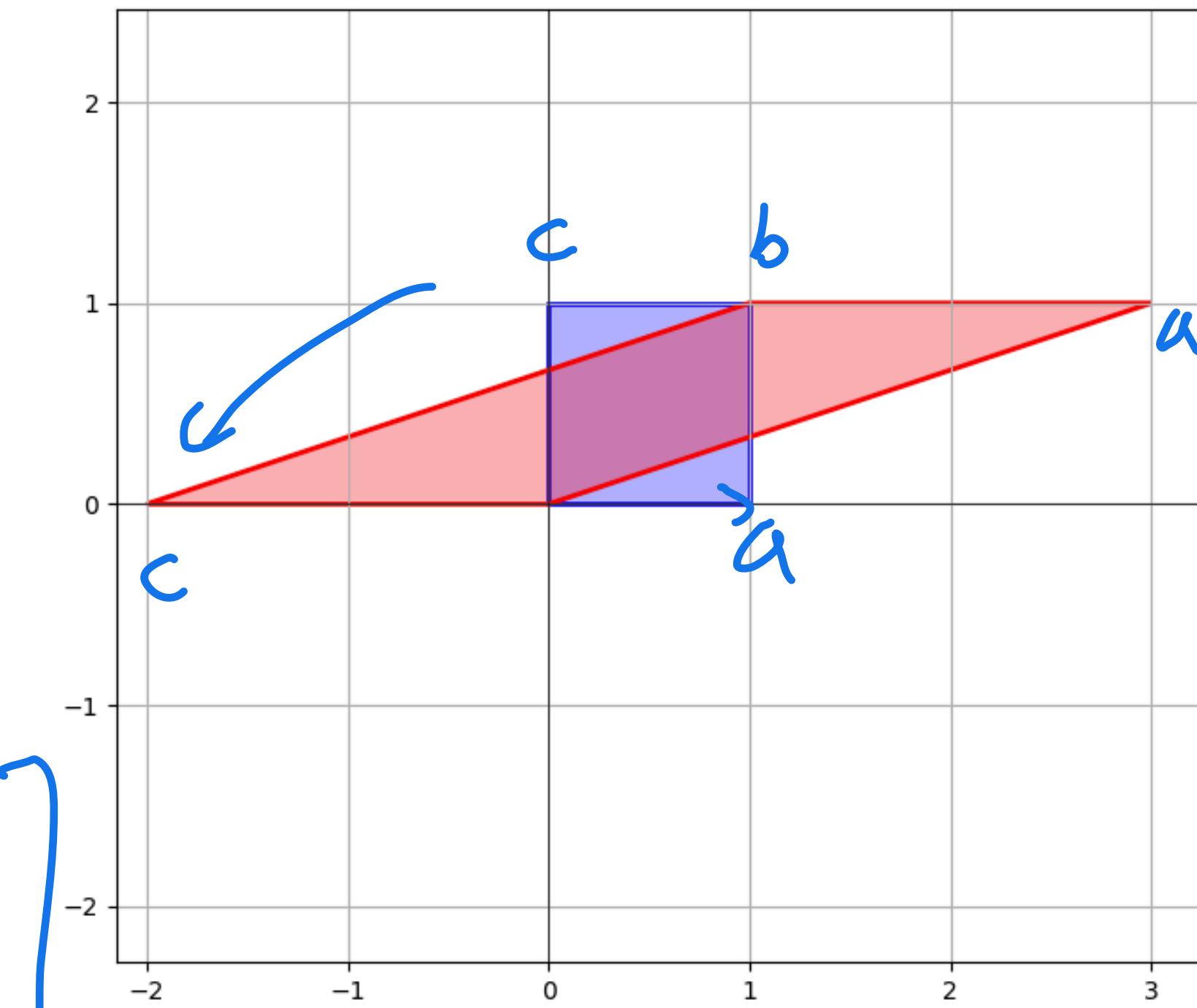
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example (Algebraic)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad u = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \overset{\lambda_u}{(1)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \overset{\lambda_v}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$



How do we verify eigenvalues
and eigenvectors?

Verifying Eigenvectors

Verifying Eigenvectors

Question. Determine if $\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ or $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ are eigenvectors of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and determine the corresponding eigenvalues.

Verifying Eigenvectors

Question. Determine if $\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ or $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ are eigenvectors of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and determine the corresponding eigenvalues.

Ask

Solution. Easy. Work out the matrix–vector multiplication.

Verifying Eigenvectors

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -24 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} = (-4) \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{v}_2 \text{ not an eigenvector}$$

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Question. Show that 7 is an eigenvalue of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

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Before we go over how to do this...

Verifying Eigenvalues (Warm Up)

Question. Verify that 1 is an eigenvalue of

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.7 \\ 0.9 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hint. Recall our discussion of Markov Chains.

Solution: A is regular, stochastic \Rightarrow there is a steady state

$$A\vec{v} = \vec{v}$$

Steady-States and Eigenvectors

Steady-state vectors of stochastic matrices are eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalue 1.

How did we find steady-state vectors?:

$$A\vec{v} = \vec{v}$$

$$A\vec{v} - \vec{v} = 0$$

$$(A - I)\vec{v} = 0$$

Steady-States and Eigenvectors

v is a steady-state vector* \equiv $v \in \text{Nul}(A - I)$

*It must also be a probability vector

Verifying Eigenvalues

This is harder...

Question. Show that λ is an eigenvalue of A .

Solution:

$$A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$$

$$A\vec{v} - \lambda\vec{v} = 0$$

$$(A - \lambda I)\vec{v} = 0$$

is there $\vec{v} \neq 0$ in $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$?

Verifying Eigenvalues

v is an eigenvector for $\lambda \equiv v \in \text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$

Verifying Eigenvalues

This is harder...

$$\xrightarrow{\text{?}} \vec{x} \in \text{Nu}(A - 7I) \quad (A - 7I)\vec{x} = 0$$

Question. Show that 7 is an eigenvalue of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution:

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

? is an eigenvalue
w/ eigenvector $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= x_2 \\ x_2 &\text{ free} \end{aligned}$$

1sK

Problem

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

λ_{11}

Verify that 2 is an eigenvalue of

$$A = 2I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \sim \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \quad A_{11}$$

2-dim'l
space of
eigenvectors
for $\lambda=2$

$$\vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= \frac{1}{2}x_2 - 3x_3 \\ x_2 &\text{ free} \\ x_3 &\text{ free} \end{aligned}$$

Answer

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

How many eigenvectors can
a matrix have?

Linear Independence of Eigenvectors

Theorem.* If v_1, \dots, v_k are eigenvectors for distinct eigenvalues, then they are linearly independent.

So an $n \times n$ matrix can have at most n eigenvalues.

Why?: if A has $>n$ eigenvalues
 $\Rightarrow >n$ lin. dep. eigenvectors

This is not possible in \mathbb{R}^n

*We won't prove this.

Eigenspace

Fact. The set of eigenvectors for a eigenvalue λ of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ form a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Verify: closure under scaling ✓

closure under addn: if \vec{v}, \vec{w}
eigenvectors

$$\begin{aligned} A(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) &= A\vec{v} + A\vec{w} \\ &= \lambda\vec{v} + \lambda\vec{w} = \lambda(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) \end{aligned}$$

Alternate: eigenspace is just a nullspace
 $\text{Null}(A - \lambda I)$

Eigenspace

Definition. The set of eigenvectors for a eigenvalue λ of A is called the **eigenspace** of A corresponding to λ .

It is the same as $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$.

How To: Basis of an Eigenspace

Question. Find a basis for the eigenspace of A corresponding to λ .

Solution. Find a basis for $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$.

We know how to do this.

Example

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -4 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Nul}(A - I)$$

Determine a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue 1:

$$A - I = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -4 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= x_3 \\ x_2 &\text{ free} \\ x_3 &\text{ free} \end{aligned}$$

How do we find
eigenvalues?

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eigenvalues?

We'll cover this next time... .

Eigenvalues of Triangular Matrices

Theorem. The eigenvalues of a triangular matrix are its entries along the diagonal. *upper/lower*

Verify:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & * & * \\ 0 & a_{22} & * \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(A - a_{22}I) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - a_{22} & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} - a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (A - a_{22}I)\vec{x} = 0$$

has nontrivial soln's

free variable

Example

$$\lambda_3 = 2$$

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

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

eigen

$$\lambda_2 = 0 \quad A - 0I = A$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -\frac{8}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= -2x_2 \\ x_2 &\text{ free} \\ x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Determine the eigenvectors and values of the above matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 10 \\ 0 & -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = -10x_3$$

$$x_2 = 3x_3$$

$$x_3 \text{ free}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 10 \\ 6 & 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Verfying

$$A \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -30 + 18 - 8 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -20 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3 \text{ exercise}$$

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear Dynamical Systems

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Given an **initial state vector** \mathbf{v}_0 , we can determine the **state vector** of the system after i time steps:

$$\mathbf{v}_i = A\mathbf{v}_{i-1}$$

Recall: Linear Dynamical Systems

Definition. A (discrete time) linear dynamical system is described by a $n \times n$ matrix A . Its **evolution function** is the matrix transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$.

The evolution function A tells us how our system evolves over time.
Given an **initial state vector** \mathbf{v}_0 , we can determine the state vector of the system after i time steps:

$$\mathbf{v}_i = A\mathbf{v}_{i-1}$$

Recall: State Vectors

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

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = A\mathbf{v}_1 = A(A\mathbf{v}_0)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_3 = A\mathbf{v}_2 = A(AA\mathbf{v}_0)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_4 = A\mathbf{v}_3 = A(AAA\mathbf{v}_0)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_5 = A\mathbf{v}_4 = A(AAA\mathbf{v}_0)$$

⋮

The state vector \mathbf{v}_k tells us what the system looks like after a number k time steps

This is also called a *recurrence relation* or a *linear difference function*

Recall: State Vectors

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

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = A\mathbf{v}_1 = A(A\mathbf{v}_0)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_k = A^k \mathbf{v}_0$$

$$\mathbf{v}_5 = A\mathbf{v}_4 = A(AAA\mathbf{v}_0)$$

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The equation $v_k = A^k v_0$ is *okay* but it doesn't tell us much about the nature of v_k

It's defined in terms of A itself, which doesn't tell us much about how the system behaves

It's also difficult computationally because matrix multiplication is expensive

(Closed-Form) Solutions

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A (**closed-form**) **solution** of a linear dynamical system $v_{i+1} = Av_i$ is an expression for v_k which is does **not** contain A^k or previously defined terms

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In other word, it does not depend on A^k and is not **recursive**

Solutions with Eigenvectors as Initial States

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It's easy to give a closed-form solution if the initial state is an eigenvector:

$$\mathbf{v}_k = A^k \mathbf{v}_0 = \lambda^k \mathbf{v}_0$$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = A\mathbf{v}_0 = \lambda \mathbf{v}_0$$

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = A\mathbf{v}_1 = A(\lambda \mathbf{v}_0) = \lambda A\mathbf{v}_0 = \lambda^2 \mathbf{v}_0$$

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No dependence on A^k or \mathbf{v}_{k-1}

The Key Point. This is still true of sums of eigenvectors.

Solutions in terms of eigenvectors

Let's simplify $A^k \vec{v}$, given we have eigenvectors \vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2 for A which span all of \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$\lambda_1, \lambda_2 > \lambda_2 \geq 0$$

$$\begin{matrix} \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \\ \text{eigenvalues} \end{matrix} \quad \vec{v} = a_1 \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \vec{b}_2$$

$$A^k \vec{v} = a_1 A^k \vec{b}_1 + a_2 A^k \vec{b}_2 = a_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \lambda_2^k \vec{b}_2$$

$$\text{e.g. } 2\lambda_1^k \vec{b}_1 + 3\lambda_2^k \vec{b}_2$$

$$\frac{A^k \vec{v}}{\lambda_1^k} = a_1 \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k \vec{b}_2 \Rightarrow A^k \vec{v} \sim a_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{b}_1$$

Eigenvectors and Growth in the Limit

Theorem. For a linear dynamical system A with initial state \mathbf{v}_0 , if \mathbf{v}_0 can be written in terms of eigenvectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_k$ of A with eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 \dots \geq \lambda_k \geq 0$$

then $\mathbf{v}_k \sim \lambda_1^k c_1 \mathbf{b}_1$ for some constant c_1 (in other words, in the long term, the system grows exponentially in λ_1).

Verify: argued in $k=2$

$$\begin{aligned}\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}_0} &= a_1 \overrightarrow{\mathbf{b}_1} + \dots + a_n \overrightarrow{\mathbf{b}_n} \\ A^k \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}_0} &= a_1 \lambda_1^k \overrightarrow{\mathbf{b}_1} + \dots + a_n \lambda_n^k \overrightarrow{\mathbf{b}_n}\end{aligned}$$

Eigenbases

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We can represent vectors as **unique** linear combinations of eigenvectors.

Not all matrices have eigenbases.

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

$$\lambda = 1 \quad \tilde{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenbases and Growth in the Limit

Theorem. For a linear dynamical system A with initial state \mathbf{v}_0 , if A has an eigenbasis $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_k$, then

$$\mathbf{v}_k \sim \lambda_1^k c_1 \mathbf{b}_1$$

for some constant c_1 , where where λ_1 is the largest eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{b}_1 is its eigenvalue.

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The largest eigenvalue describes the long-term exponential behavior of the system.