

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

**Geometric Algorithms**

**Lecture 18**

# Practice Problem

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

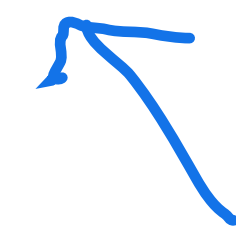
*What is the smallest possible value for  $\text{rank}(A)$ ? What is the largest possible value?*

**Answer**

A is  $234 \times 300$   
<sup>m</sup> <sup>x</sup> <sup>n</sup>

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

"rank"                      "nullity"



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

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

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

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

A is 0 matrix

# 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
- » ...

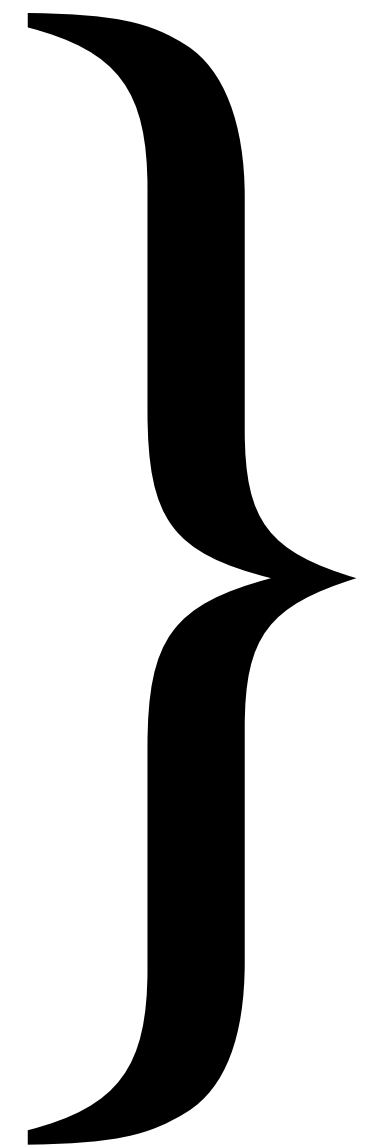
\* square matrices



# How can matrices transform vectors?\*

In 2D and 3D we've seen:

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



All matrices do  
some combination  
of these things

\* square matrices

# 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

\* square matrices

# **What's special about scaling?**

# What's special about scaling?

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

$$\mathbf{X} \mapsto c\mathbf{X}$$

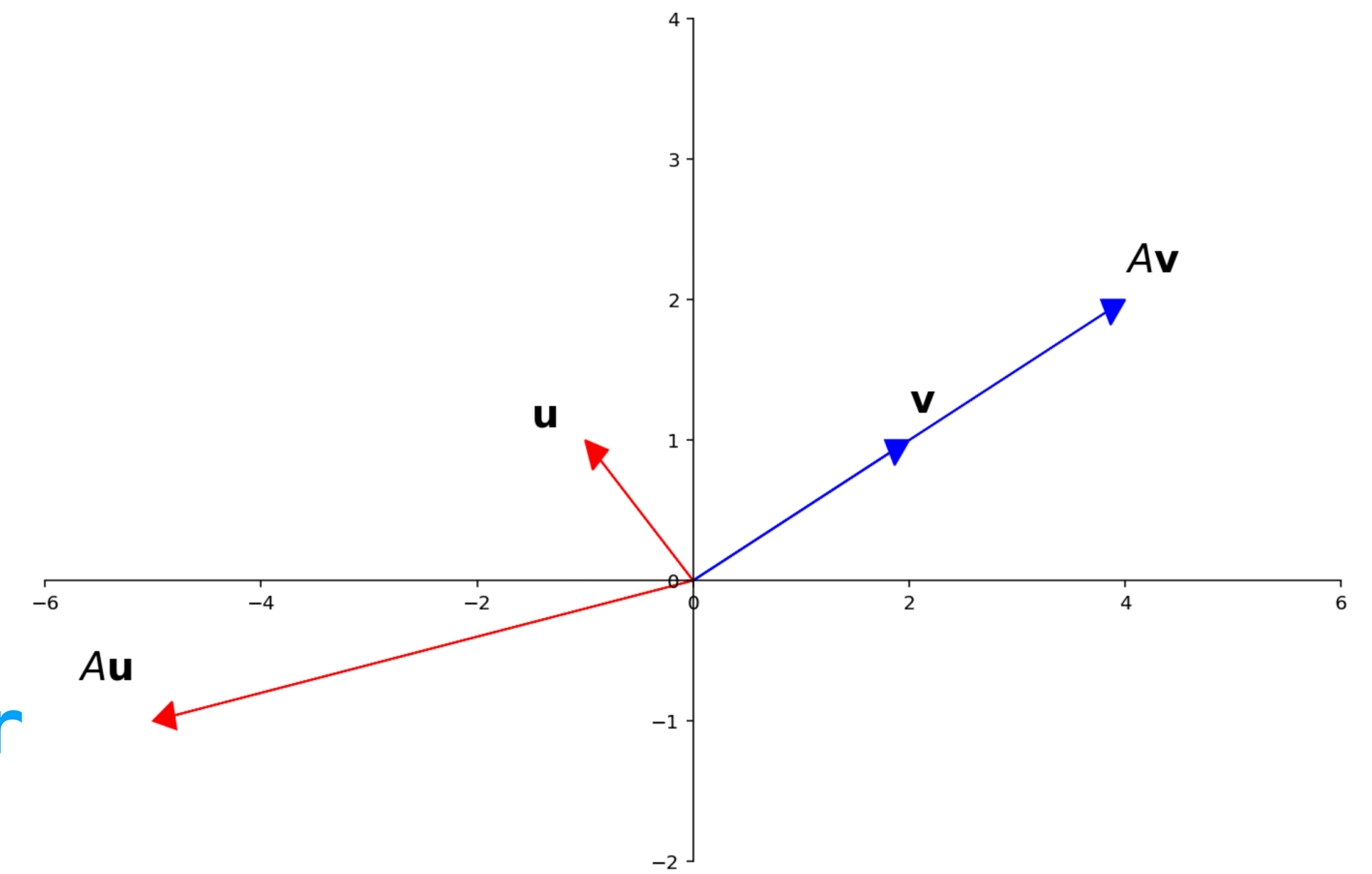
So if  $A\mathbf{v} = c\mathbf{v}$  then it's "easy to describe" what  $A$  does to  $\mathbf{v}$ .

# Eigenvectors (Informal)

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

eigenvalue

eigenvector

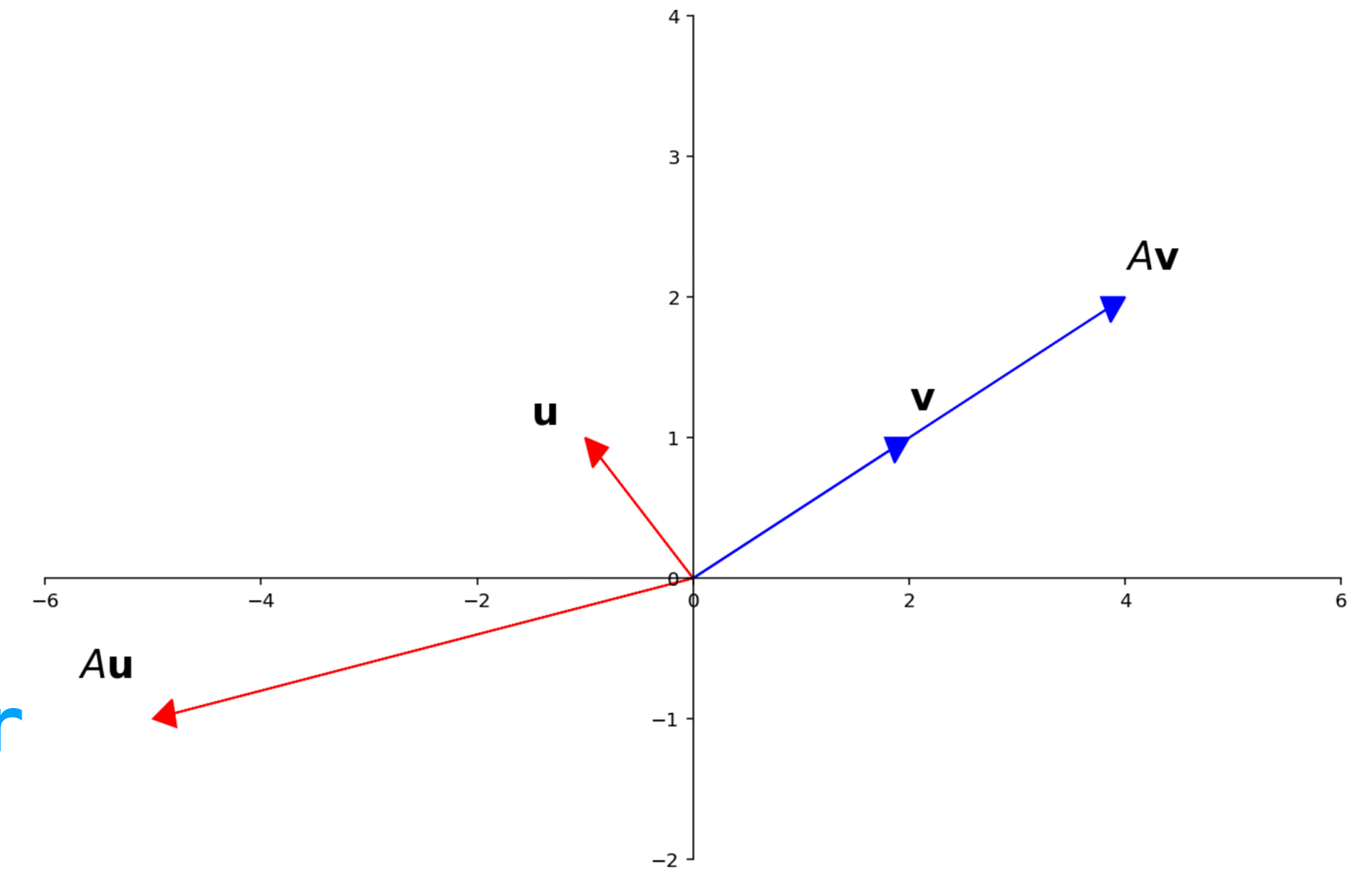


# Eigenvectors (Informal)

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

eigenvalue

eigenvector



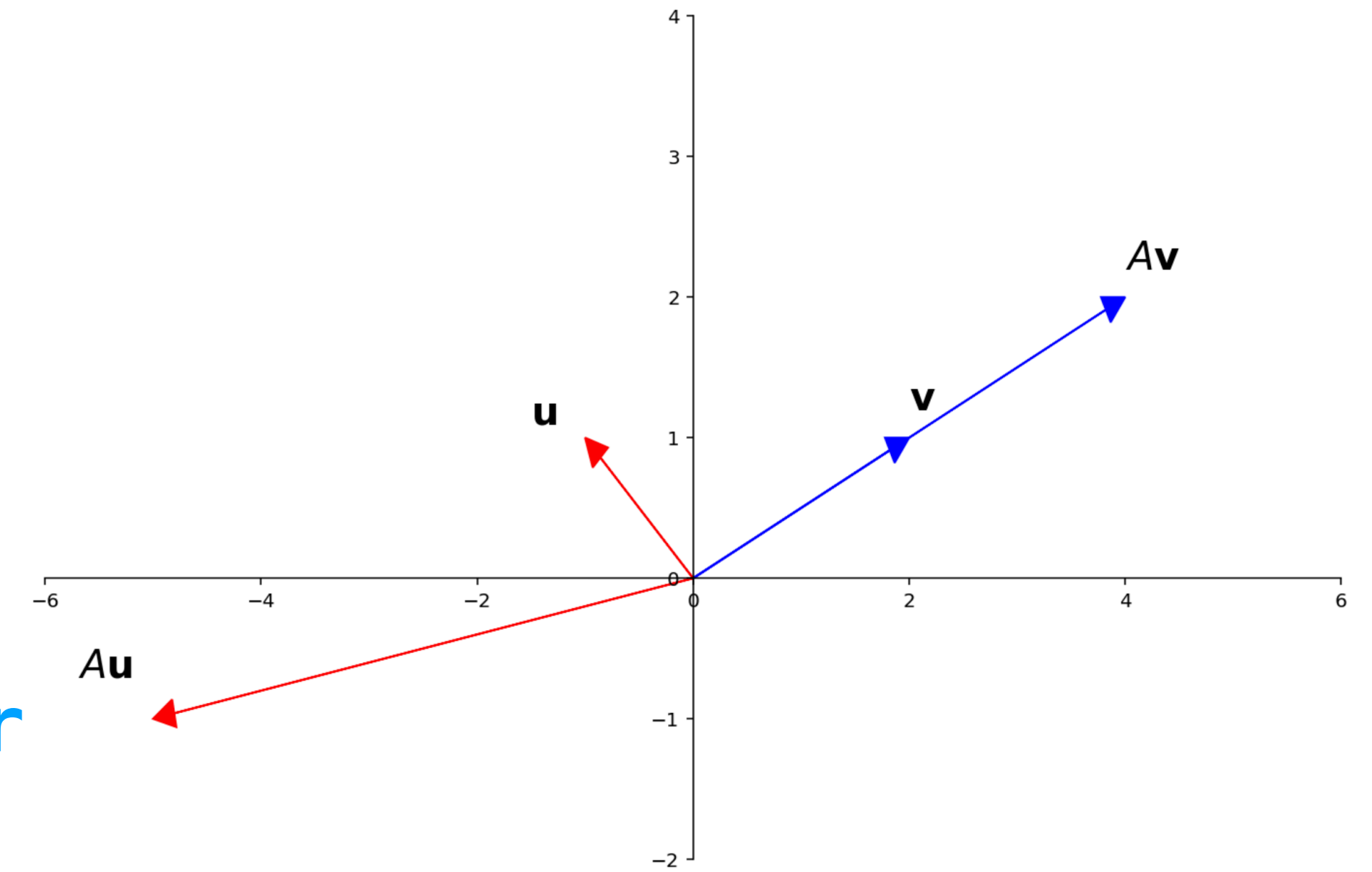
Eigenvectors of  $A$  are stretched by  $A$  without changing their direction.

# 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**.

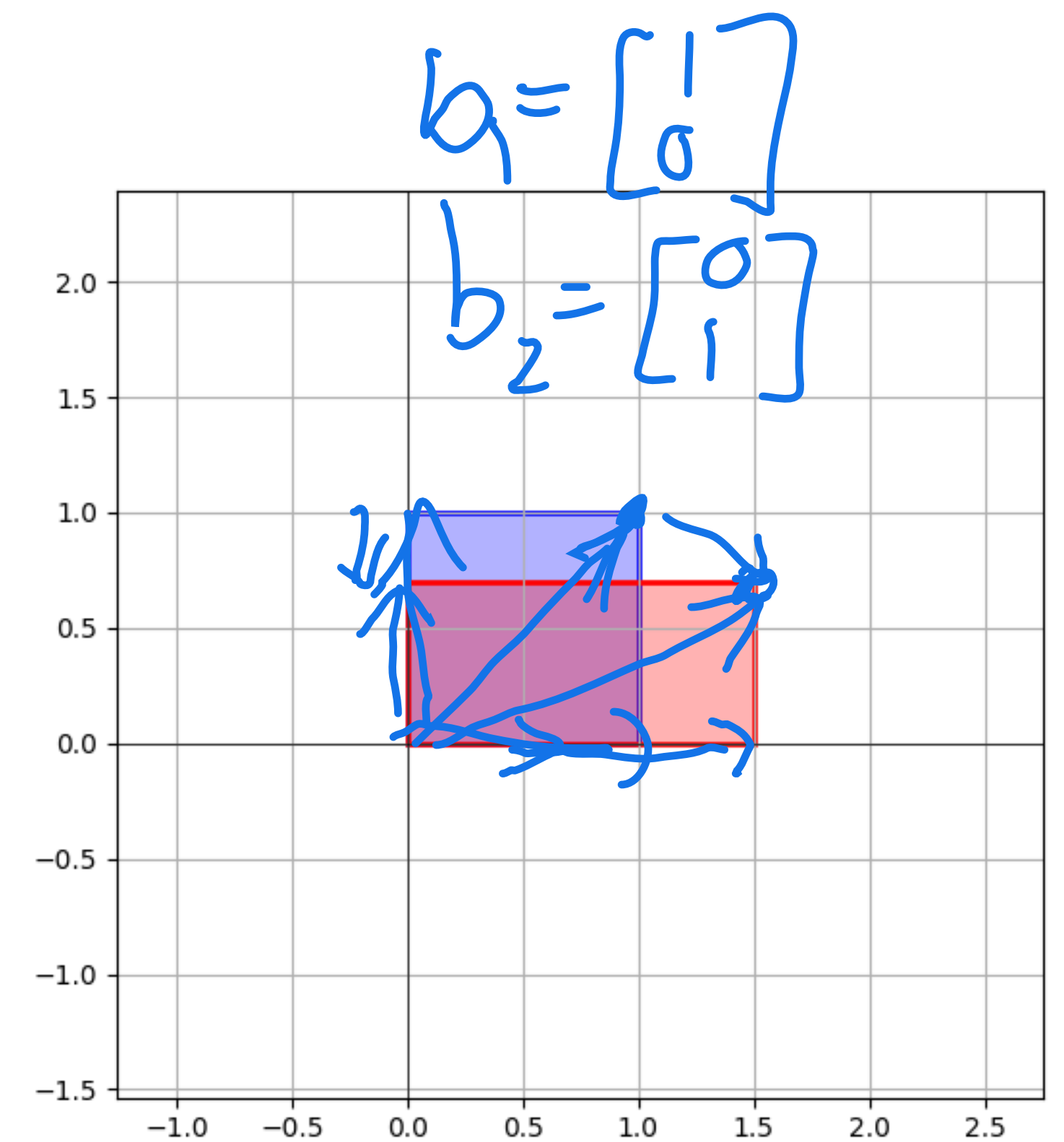


# Example: Unequal Scaling

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

*It transforms each entry individually and then combines them.*

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



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

# Eigenbases (Informal)

# Eigenbases (Informal)

Imagine if  $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_2 - 5\mathbf{b}_3$  and  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3$  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  $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_2 - 5\mathbf{b}_3$  and  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$   $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3$  are *eigenvectors of A*. Then

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

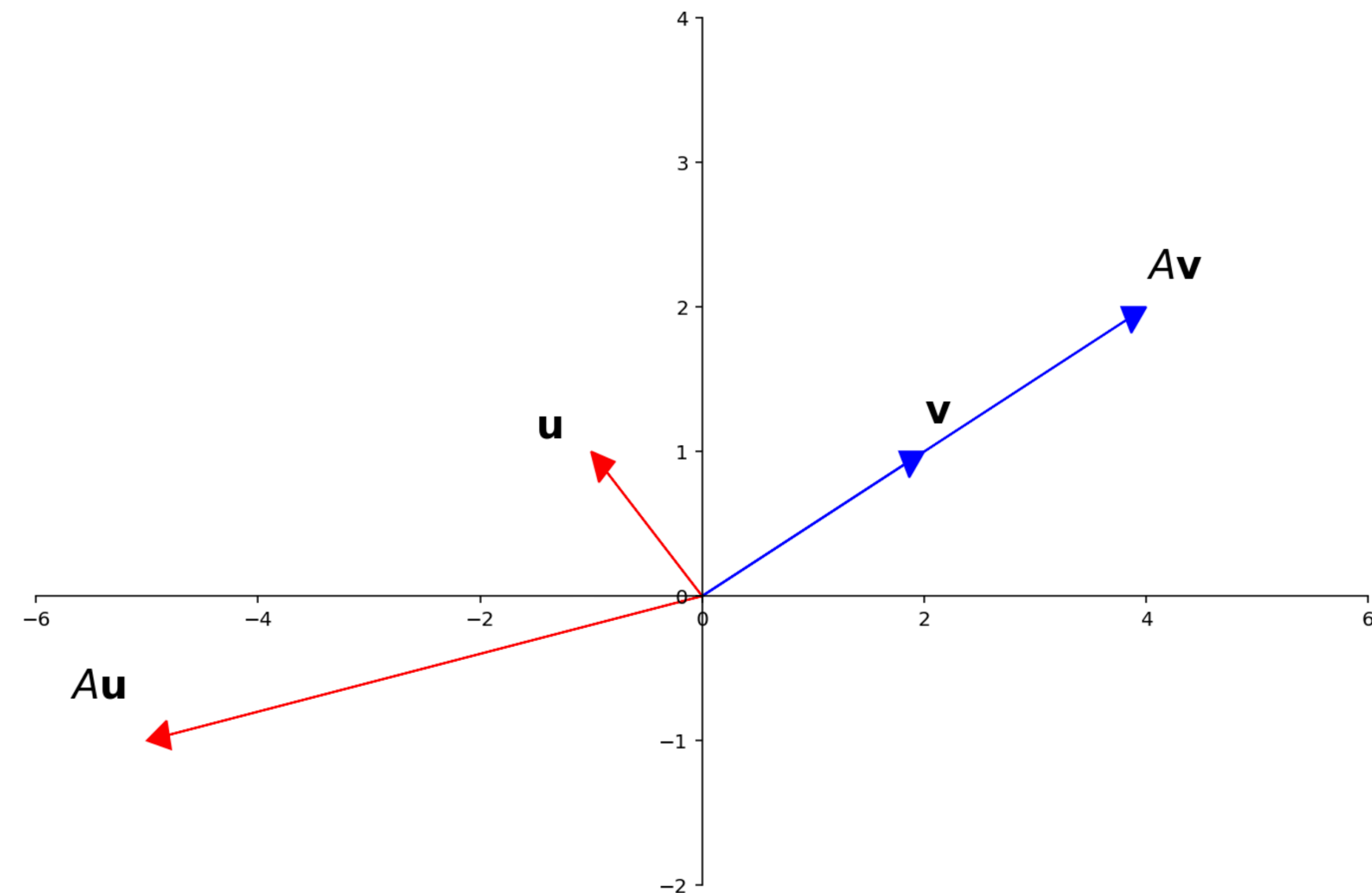
It's "easy to describe" how  $A$  transforms  $\mathbf{v}$ .

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

Verify: 
$$\begin{aligned} A\vec{v} &= A(2\vec{b}_1 - \vec{b}_2 - 5\vec{b}_3) = A(2\vec{b}_1) - A\vec{b}_2 - A(5\vec{b}_3) \\ &= 2A\vec{b}_1 - A\vec{b}_2 - 5A\vec{b}_3 \\ &= 2\lambda_1\vec{b}_1 - \lambda_2\vec{b}_2 - 5\lambda_3\vec{b}_3 \end{aligned}$$

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

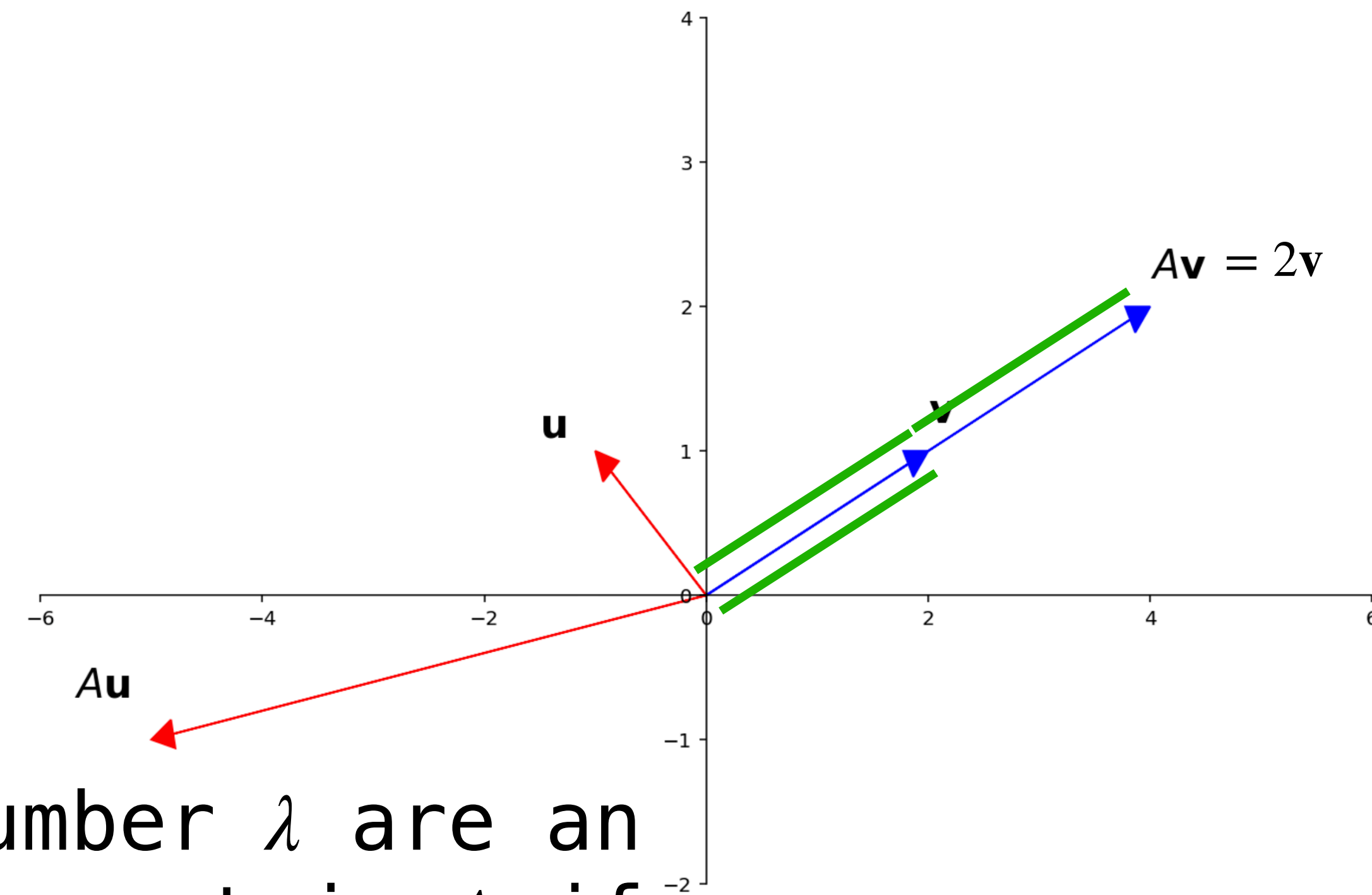
# Formal Definition



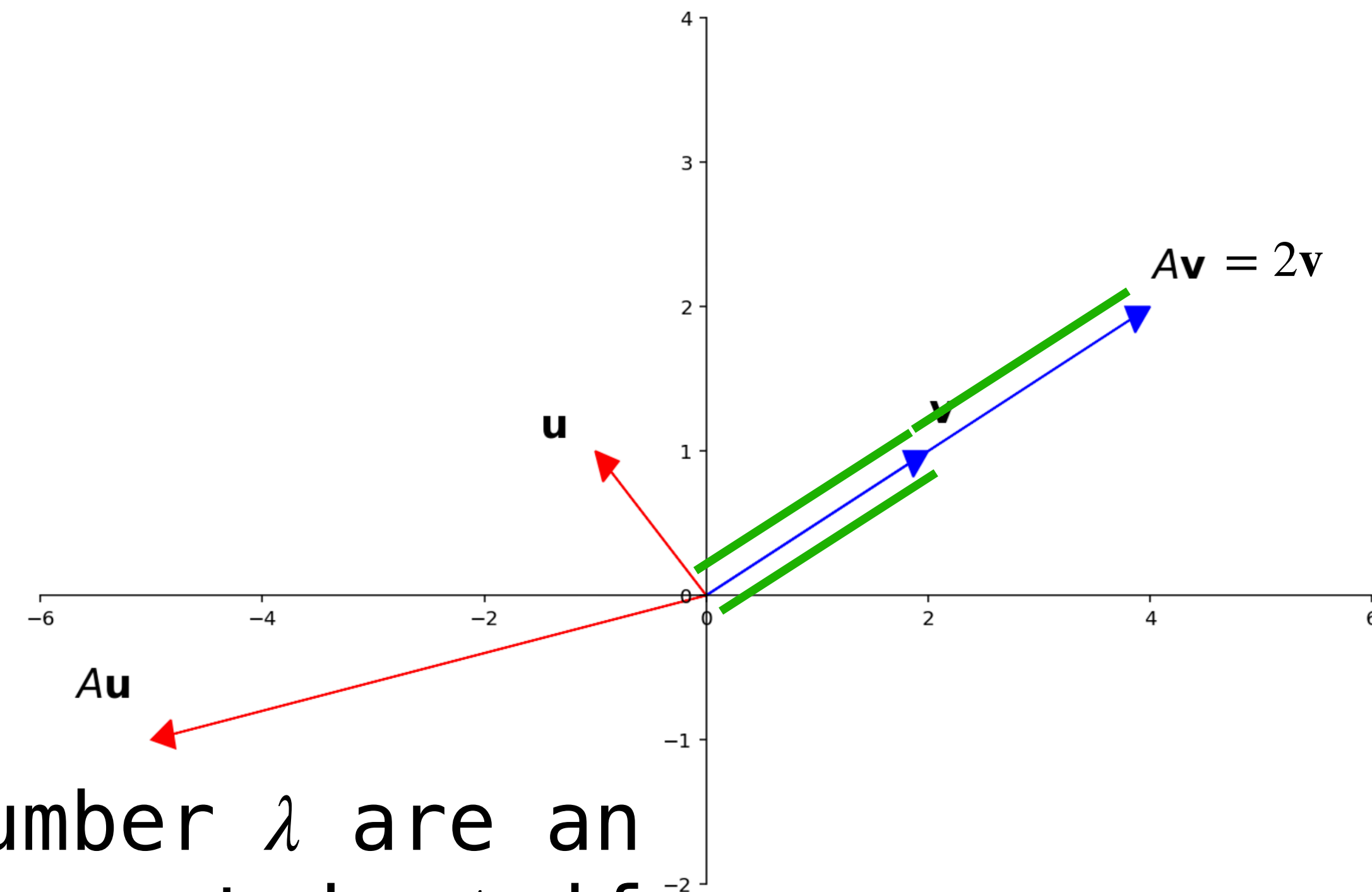
# Formal Definition

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

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



# Formal Definition



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

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

We will say that  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector of/for the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , and that  $\lambda$  is the eigenvalue of/corresponding to  $\mathbf{v}$ .



# Formal Definition

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

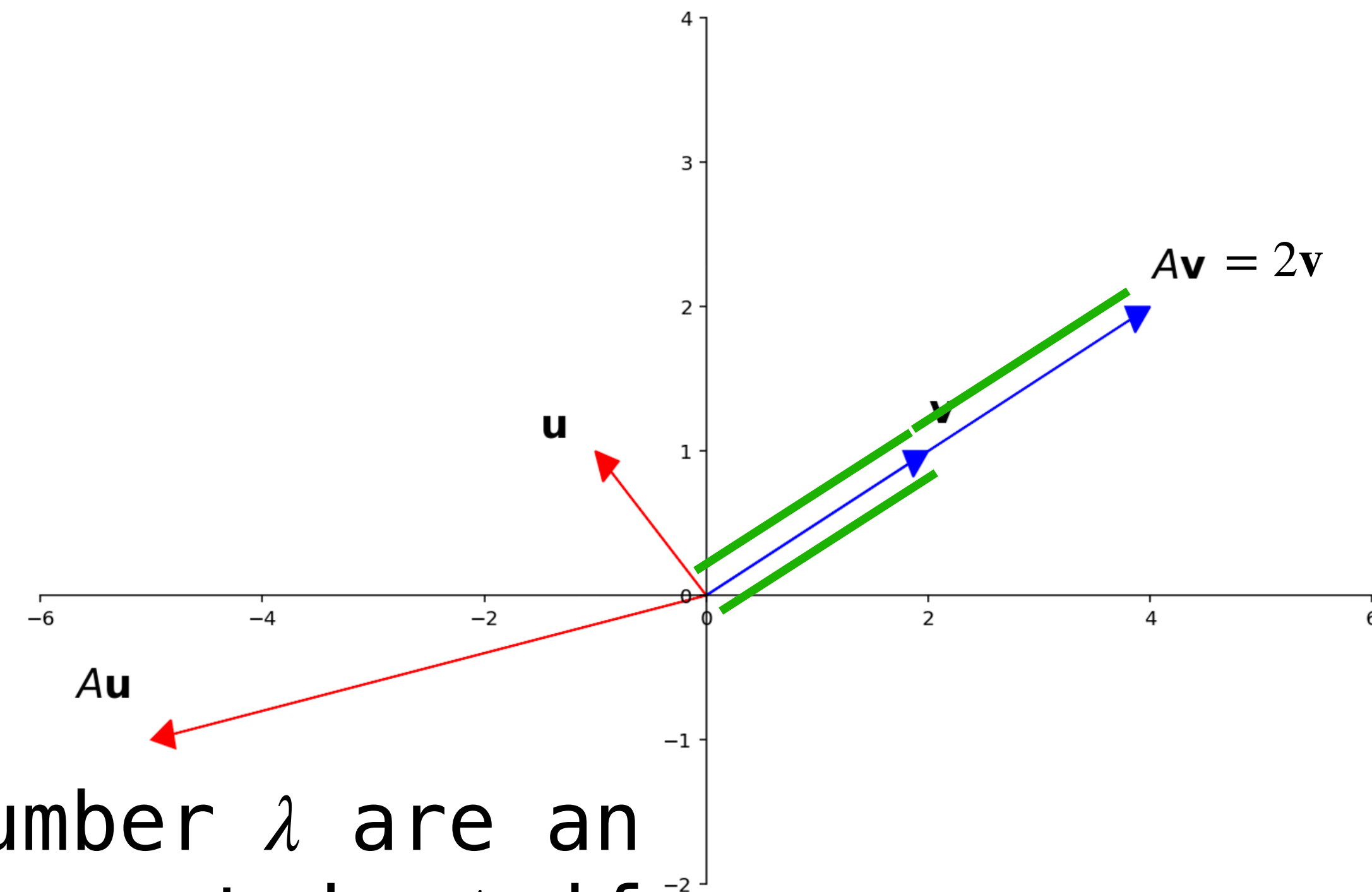


A *nonzero* vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and real number  $\lambda$  are an **eigenvector** and **eigenvalue** for a  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  if

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

We will say that  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector of/for the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , and that  $\lambda$  is the eigenvalue of/corresponding to  $\mathbf{v}$ .

*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  $\mathbf{v}$ , then

$$\{ \mathbf{v} \mid \underline{A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0v} = \mathbf{0}} \} = \text{Nul}(A)$$

# What if 0 is an eigenvalue?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

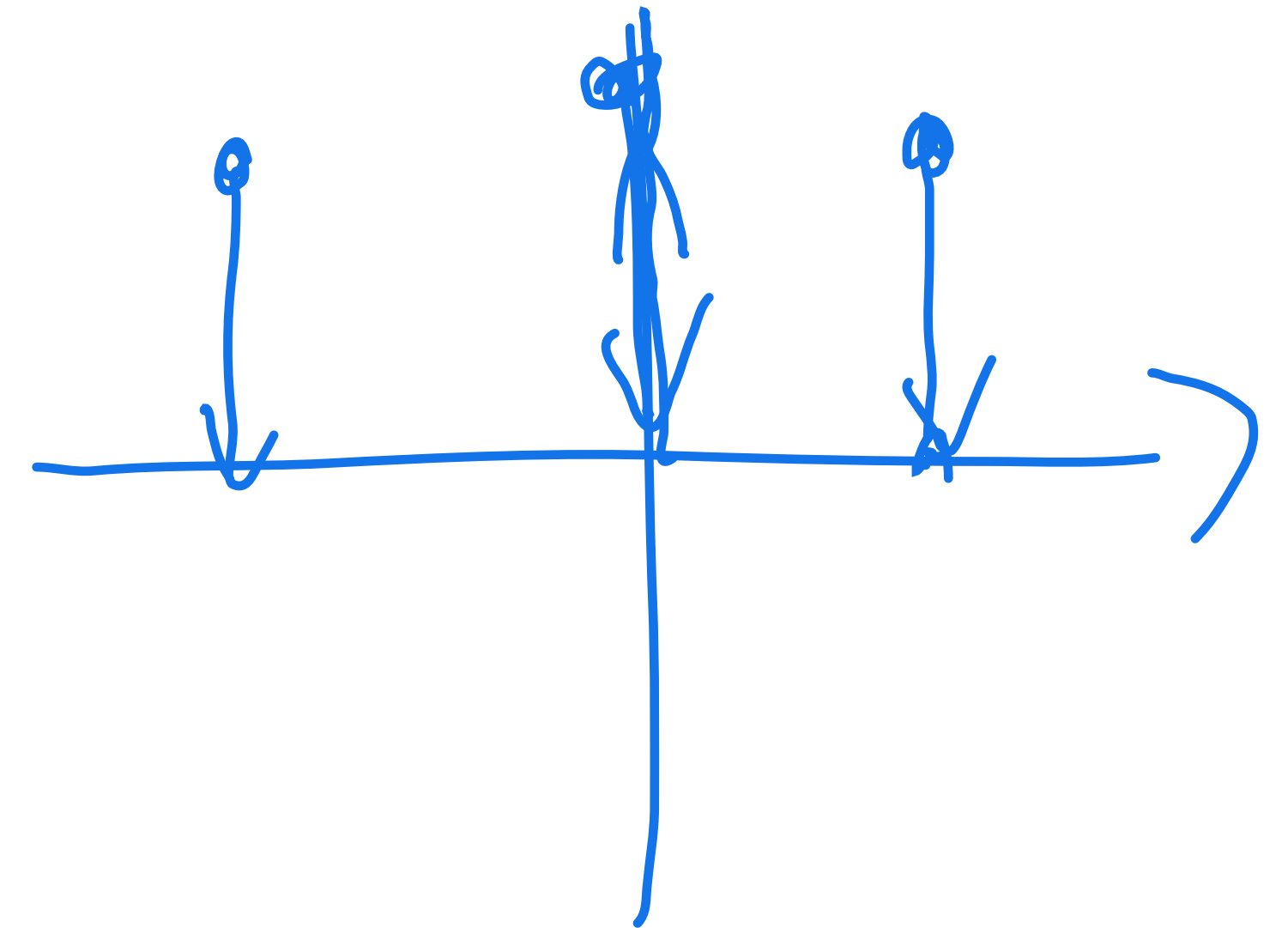
If  $A$  has the eigenvalue 0 with the eigenvector  $\mathbf{v}$ , then

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

In other words,

»  $\mathbf{v} \in \text{Nul}(A)$

»  $\mathbf{v}$  is a nontrivial solution to  $A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$



# Extending the IMT (Again)

# Extending the IMT (Again)

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

# Extending the IMT (Again)

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

*To reiterate.* An eigenvalue 0 is equivalent to

# Extending the IMT (Again)

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

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{Nul } A = \{0\}$$

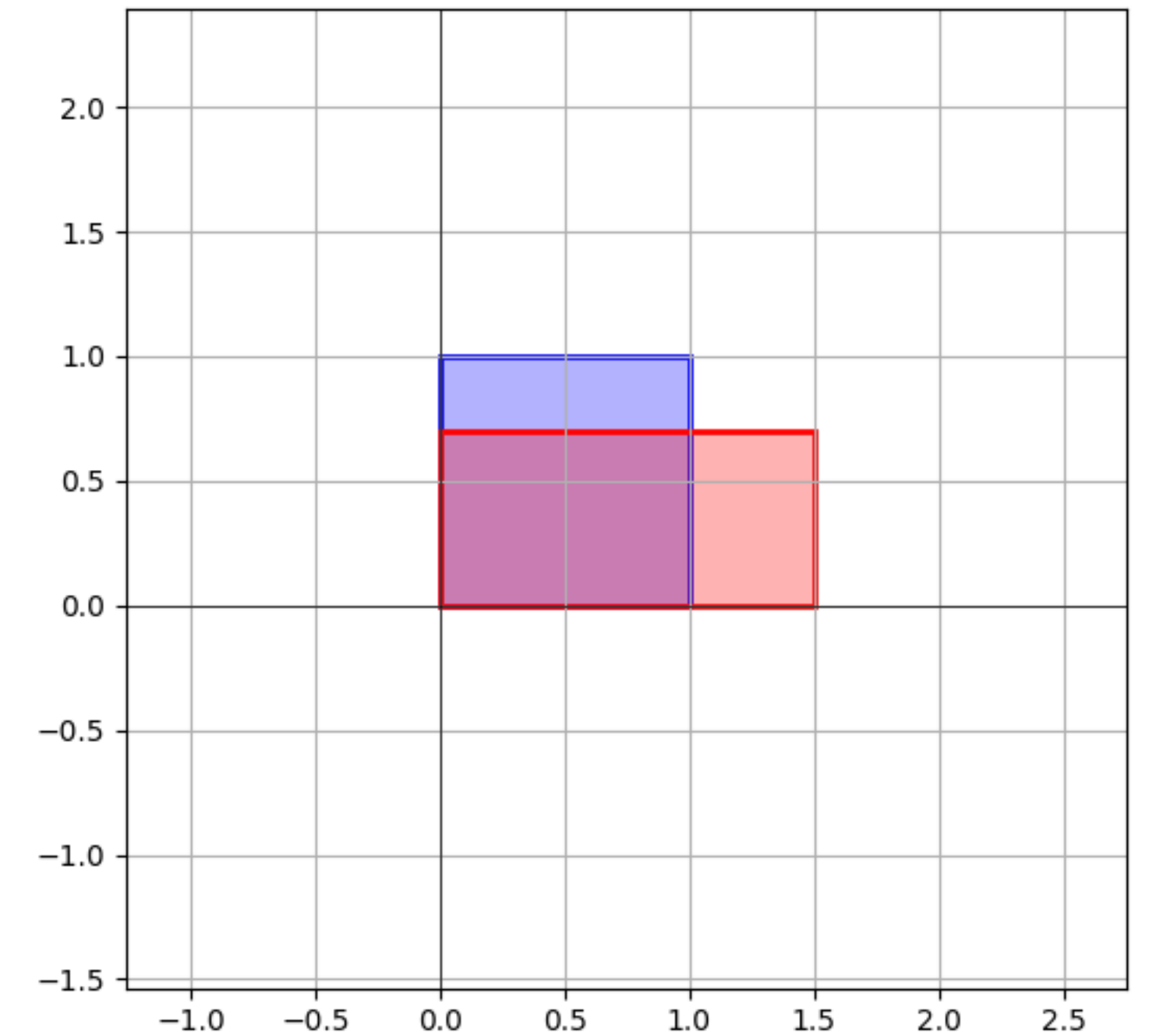
*To reiterate.* An eigenvalue 0 is equivalent to

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



# Example: Unequal Scaling

Let's determine it's eigenvalues and eigenvectors:



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

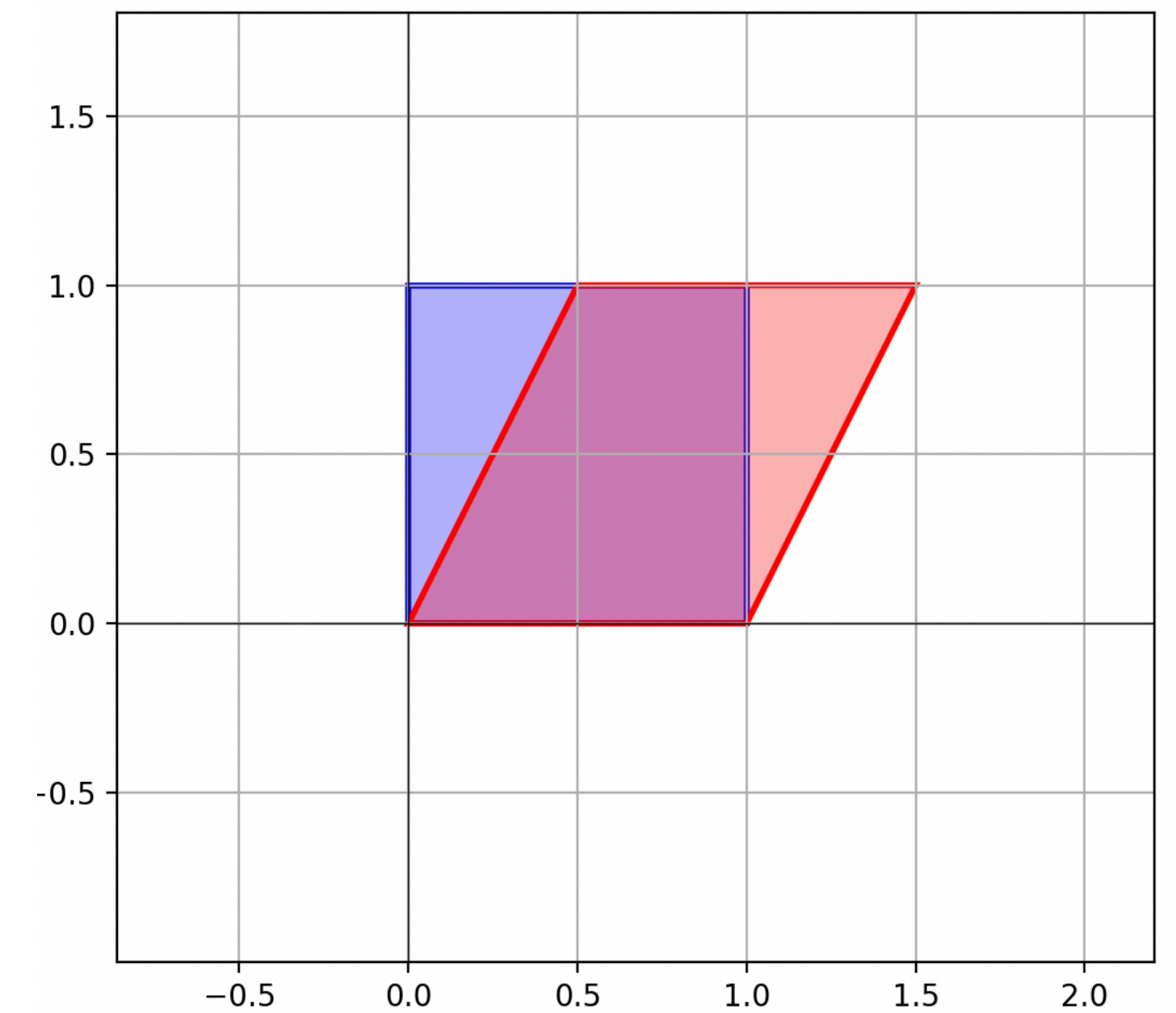
1.5    0.7

# Example: Shearing

Let's determine its eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

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

$\uparrow$   
 $\vec{v}$                        $\lambda$



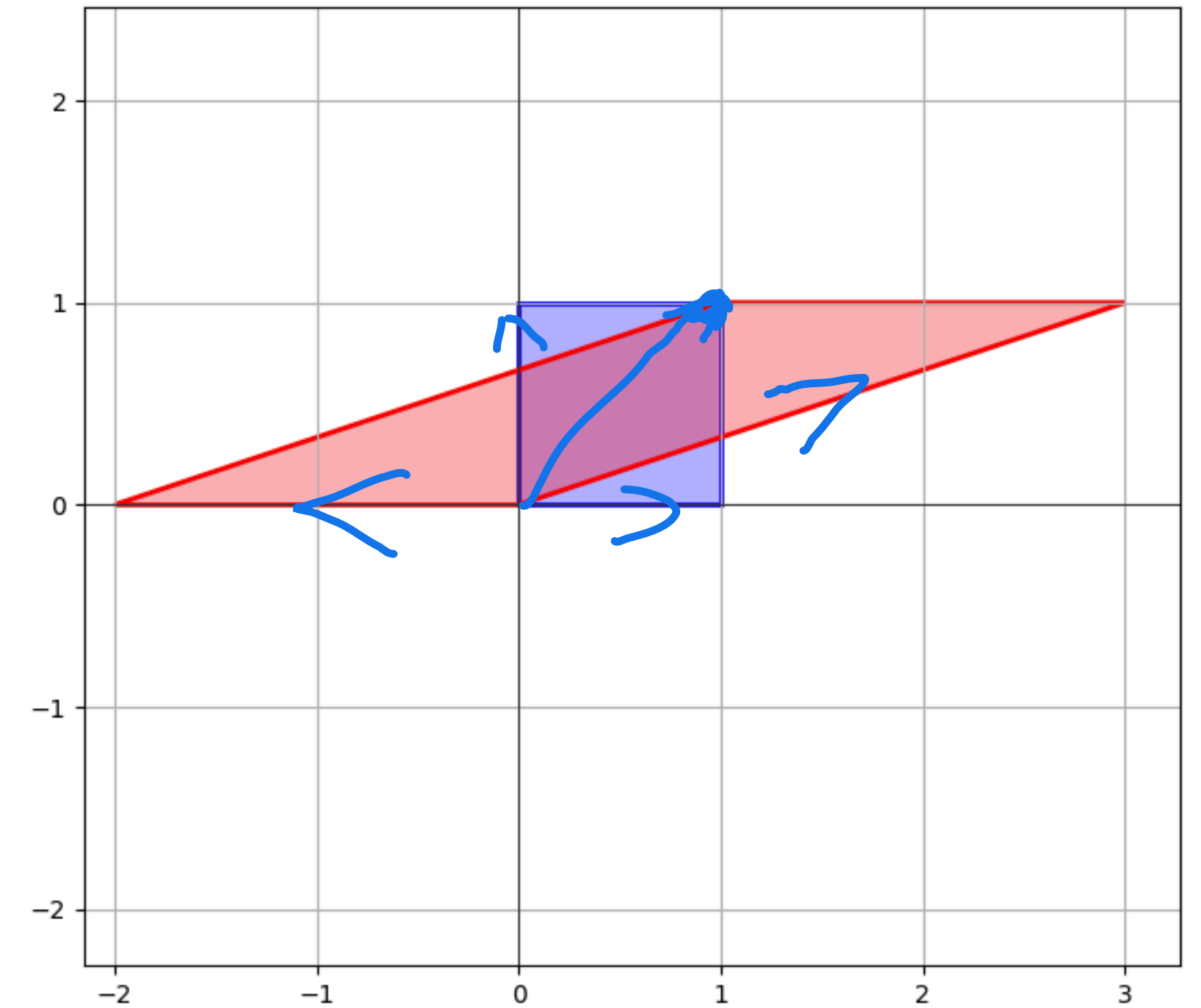
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Example (Algebraic)

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

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

$$A\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \underset{\lambda_v}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$



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

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -24 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} = \overset{\lambda_1}{\downarrow} (-4) \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

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



# Verifying Eigenvalues

# Verifying Eigenvalues

This is harder...

# Verifying Eigenvalues

This is harder...

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

# Verifying Eigenvalues

This is harder...

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

What vector do we check???

# Verifying Eigenvalues

This is harder...

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

What vector do we check???

Before we go over how to do this...

# Verifying Eigenvalues (Warm Up)

**Question.** Verify that 1 is an eigenvalue of ✓

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

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

*Hint. Recall our discussion of Markov Chains.*

**Solution:**  $A$  is regular  $\Rightarrow$  there is a unique steady state

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{x} = (1)\vec{x}$$

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

# Steady-States and Eigenvectors

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

How did we find steady-state vectors?:

look for  
(nontrivial) sol'ns to

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

# Steady-States and Eigenvectors

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

<sup>\*</sup>It must also be a probability vector



# Verifying Eigenvalues

This is harder...

**Question.** Show that  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ .

*(there exists  $\vec{v} \neq 0$ )*  
**Solution:**

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

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

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

$$\vec{v} \in \text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$$

# Verifying Eigenvalues

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

(and  $\tilde{\mathbf{v}} \neq \mathbf{0}$ )

↑  
if just  $\{\mathbf{0}\}$

$\lambda$  not an eigenvalue

# Verifying Eigenvalues

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

This is harder...

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

**Solution:**  $A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 6 \\ 6 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

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

Yes!

Nonzero  
sol'ns

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

# Problem

$$A \leq k$$

$$(A - 2I)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$A\vec{x} = 2\vec{x}$$

$$A =$$

Verify that  $\lambda = 2$  is an eigenvalue of  $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2x_1 - x_2 + 6x_3 = 0$$

$$2x_1 = x_2 - 6x_3$$

$$x_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)x_2 - 3x_3$$

$x_2$  free  
 $x_3$  free

**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?: *more than  $n$  eigenvalues  $\Rightarrow$  more than  $n$  lin ind. eigenvectors  
not possible*

*\*We won't prove this.*

# Eigenspace

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

Verify:  $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$

closure under add'n:

$\vec{v}, \vec{w}$   
eigenvectors

$$A(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = A\vec{v} + A\vec{w} = \lambda\vec{v} + \lambda\vec{w} = \lambda(\vec{v} + \vec{w})$$

closure under scaling:

$\vec{v}$   
eigenvector

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



# Eigenspace

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

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  $\lambda$ .

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

**We know how to do this.**

# Example

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

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

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

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \quad \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

How do we find  
eigenvalues?

# How do we find eigenvalues?

**We'll cover this next time...**

# Eigenvalues of Triangular Matrices

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

Does this  
have nontrivial solns?

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

Verify:

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

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A - a_{22}I = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - a_{22} & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} - a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

free variable! nontrivial solns exist

Still have to do  $\lambda_3 = ?$   
~~(Do just 2)~~  
**Example**

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

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

$$x_1 = 0$$

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

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

Determine the eigenvectors and values of the above matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 6 & -8 \\ 0 & -3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \begin{matrix} x_1 \text{ free} \\ x_2 = 0 \\ x_3 = 0 \end{matrix}$$

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

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & -3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \vec{v}_2 \downarrow$$

$$\begin{matrix} x_1 = -2x_2 \\ x_2 \text{ free} \\ x_3 = 0 \end{matrix} \quad \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_3 = 2$$

$$A - 2I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & -8 \\ 0 & -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 10 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{x} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Linear Dynamical Systems

$$\vec{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Recall: Linear Dynamical Systems

# Recall: Linear Dynamical Systems

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

# Recall: Linear Dynamical Systems

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

The possible states of the system are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Recall: Linear Dynamical Systems

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

The possible states of the system are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

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  $A$ . It's **evolution function** is the matrix transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ .

The possible states of the system are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$A$  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

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

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

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

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

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

$\vdots$

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

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

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

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

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

⋮

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*

# The Issue



# The Issue

The equation  $\mathbf{v}_k = A^k \mathbf{v}_0$  is *okay* but it doesn't tell us much about the nature of  $\mathbf{v}_k$

# The Issue

The equation  $\mathbf{v}_k = A^k \mathbf{v}_0$  is *okay* but it doesn't tell us much about the nature of  $\mathbf{v}_k$

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

# The Issue

The equation  $\mathbf{v}_k = A^k \mathbf{v}_0$  is *okay* but it doesn't tell us much about the nature of  $\mathbf{v}_k$

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**

# (Closed-Form) Solutions

A (closed-form) solution of a linear dynamical system  $\mathbf{v}_{i+1} = A\mathbf{v}_i$  is an expression for  $\mathbf{v}_k$  which is does **not** contain  $A^k$  or previously defined terms

# (Closed-Form) Solutions

A **(closed-form) solution** of a linear dynamical system  $\mathbf{v}_{i+1} = A\mathbf{v}_i$  is an expression for  $\mathbf{v}_k$  which is does **not** contain  $A^k$  or previously defined terms

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

# Solutions with Eigenvectors as Initial States

# Solutions with Eigenvectors as Initial States

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

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

$$v_1 = Av_0 = \lambda_1 \vec{v}_0$$

$$v_2 = Av_1 = A\lambda_1 \vec{v}_0 = \lambda_1 \lambda_1 \vec{v}_0 = \lambda_1^2 \vec{v}_0$$



# Solutions with Eigenvectors as Initial States

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

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

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

# Solutions with Eigenvectors as Initial States

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

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

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

$$A^k \vec{v} \sim a_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{b}_1$$

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

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

$$\vec{v} = a_1 \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \vec{b}_2$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} A^2 \vec{v} &= A(a_1 \lambda_1 \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \lambda_2 \vec{b}_2) \\ &= a_1 \lambda_1 A \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \lambda_2 A \vec{b}_2 = a_1 \lambda_1^2 \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \lambda_2^2 \vec{b}_2 \end{aligned}$$

# 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  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$  of  $A$  with eigenvalues

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$$

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  $\lambda_1$ ).

Verify:

argued in case  $k=2$

$$A^k \vec{v} = a_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{v}_1 + \dots + a_n \lambda_n^k \vec{v}_n$$

If eigenbasis exists, this is closed-form

# Eigenbases

# Eigenbases

**Definition.** An **eigenbasis** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for a  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  made up entirely of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

# Eigenbases

**Definition.** An **eigenbasis** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for a  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  made up entirely of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

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

# Eigenbases

**Definition.** An **eigenbasis** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for a  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  made up entirely of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

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

**Not all matrices have eigenbases.**

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

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



# 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  $\lambda_1$  is the **largest eigenvalue** of  $A$  and  $\mathbf{b}_1$  is its **eigenvector**.

# 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  $\lambda_1$  is the **largest eigenvalue of  $A$**  and  $\mathbf{b}_1$  **is its eigenvector**.

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