Basic Maths for Non-mathematicians

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$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{N} f(x_{k}) \Delta x$$

$$(AB)^{\top} = B^{\top} A^{\top} \qquad \mathbb{R}^{n} \xrightarrow{T} \mathbb{R}^{m}$$

$$\vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \hat{e}_{i}$$

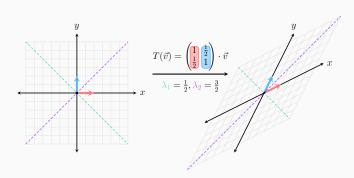
$$\frac{df}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \qquad A = Q^{\Lambda} Q^{-1}$$

$$\operatorname{Rot}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

$$T(\alpha \vec{u} + \beta \vec{v}) = \alpha T(\vec{u}) + \beta T(\vec{v}) \quad \langle \hat{e}_{i}, \hat{e}_{j} \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$



Chapter 6: Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues



An **eigenvector** of a transformation $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is a vector that doesn't change its direction under the transformation.

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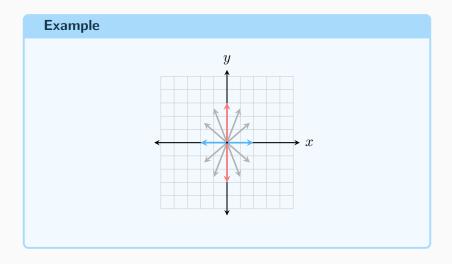
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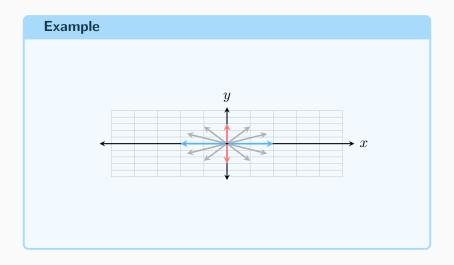
Example

The transformation represented by the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1.75 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

scales each vector by 1.75 in the x-direction and by 0.5 in the y-direction. After aplication of the transformation, any vector on the x-axis remains on the x-axis (and is scaled by 1.75), and any vector on the y-axis remains on the y-axis (and is scaled by 0.5).





In matrix form, the general eigenvalue equation looks as follows:

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

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is the scalar by which \vec{v} is streched after the application of A.

We call λ the **eigenvalue** corresponding to the eigenvector \vec{v} .

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Example

In the previous example, the vectors lying on the x-axis have the corresponding eigenvalue $\lambda_1=1.75$, while the vectors lying on the y-axis have the corresponding eigenvalue $\lambda_2=0.5$.

Due to linearity, any scale of an eigenvector of a transformation ${\cal T}$ is also an eigenvector of the transformation, with the same eigenvalue.

Proof

Let A be a matrix with an eigenvector \vec{v} . Then for any scale $\alpha \vec{v}$ ($\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$):

$$A\left(\alpha\vec{v}\right) = \alpha A\vec{v} = \alpha\left(\lambda\vec{v}\right) = \lambda\left(\alpha\vec{v}\right).$$

All the linearly independent eigenvectors of a transformation $T:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^n$ form a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Linearly independent eigenvectors can have the same eigenvalues.

Example

The matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

has three linearly independent eigenvectors:

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \ \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix},$$

with respective eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 2, \ \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 3.$

Definition

The number of linearly independent vectors with the same eigenvalue is called the **geometric multiplicity** of the eigenvalue

Example

In the previous matrix, the eigenvalue $\lambda=2$ has a geometric multiplicity of 1, and the eigenvalue $\lambda=3$ has a geometric multiplicity of 2.

We can rearrange the eigenvalue equation

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

to the form

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

and group \vec{v} together, yielding

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

We get that \vec{v} is the null space of the matrix $A - \lambda I$.

Since we assume that $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$ (otherwise the eigenvalue equation is somewhat pointless), this means that $|A - \lambda I| = 0$, since the null space of $A - \lambda I$ has more than just the zero vector.

The expression $P(\lambda) = |A - \lambda I|$ is actually a polynomial equation, due to way determinants are calculated. We therefore call $P(\lambda)$ the **characteristic polynomial** of the matrix A.

Solving for $P(\lambda) = 0$ yields all the eigenvalues of A.

Example

The characteristic polynomial of the matrix

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

is

$$P(\lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 0 \\ -1 & 3 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1 - \lambda)(3 - \lambda) - 0 \cdot (-1).$$

Thus, the solutions for $P(\lambda) = 0$ are $\lambda_1 = 1, \ \lambda_2 = 3$.

Example

We therefore know that the matrix A has some eigenvector with eigenvalue $\lambda=1$. Let's find it: we want to multiply A by a generic vector, and equate the solution to the generic vector (meaning that it has an eigenvalue $\lambda=1$).

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ -x + 3y \end{pmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix},$$

this will happen when x=1,y=0.5, i.e. the vector $\vec{v}_1=\begin{pmatrix}1\\0.5\end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector of A. Let's verify this by applying A to \vec{v}_1 .

Example

This yields

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+0 \\ -1+1.5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix},$$

i.e. \vec{v}_1 is indeed an eigenvector of A with $\lambda = 1$.

Example

Now for $\lambda = 3$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 3 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ -x + 3y \end{pmatrix}.$$

The solution in this case is $x=0,\ y=1$, i.e. the vector $\vec{v}_2=\begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix}$. Verifying:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 \\ -1 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This means that \vec{v}_2 is indeed an eigenvector of A with $\lambda_2=3$.

Some matrices can represent complicated looking transformations but actually perform a simple scaling if we change our perspective.

Example

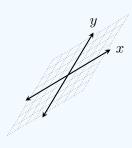
The matrix
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1.25 & 0.75 \\ 0.75 & 1.25 \end{pmatrix}$$
 performs the following transformation:



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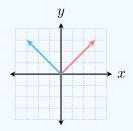
Example

The matrix
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 performs the following transformation:



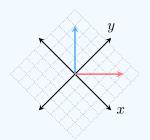
Example

We can rotate space such that its eigenvectors, $\vec{v}_1=\begin{pmatrix}1\\1\end{pmatrix}(\lambda_1=2)$ and $\vec{v}_2=\begin{pmatrix}-1\\1\end{pmatrix}(\lambda_2)=0.5$, are aligned with the axes:



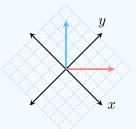
Example

We can rotate space such that its eigenvectors, $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (\lambda_1 = 2)$ and $\vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (\lambda_2) = 0.5$, are aligned with the axes:



Example

In this perspective, applying A is simply a scaling by 2 in the x-direction and by 0.5 in the y-direction:



Example

In this perspective, applying A is simply a scaling by 2 in the x-direction and by 0.5 in the y-direction:



Example

This unisotropic scaling is expressed as a diagonal matrix:

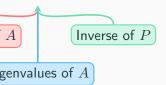
$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To bring the diagonal matrix D "back" to be the original matrix A, we need to multiply it from both sides:

D, Eigenvalues of
$$A_{.5}$$
 0.75 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0.75 & 1.25 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.5 \\ -0.5 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}.$

A matrix A that can be brought to a diagonal form is called a **diagonalizable matrix** . It can be **decomposed** as following:

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



A matrix which can't be diagonalized is called a **defective matrix** .