

Last week: Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

$$A \vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x} \leftarrow \text{non-zero eigenvector}$$

\uparrow $n \times n$ matrix \uparrow eigenvalue \leftarrow Solutions of $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$
 characteristic polynomial of A

General comment: When you find eigenvectors for a matrix in the homework problems, your answers might be different from the answer key's.

Why? Probably because your ~~answer~~ eigenvectors are multiples or linear combinations of the answer key's.

This is okay! General fact: Suppose λ is an eigenvalue of A . Then the set of all eigenvectors + zero vector is a subspace.

called the eigenspace for λ .

Closed under addition: $A(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = A\vec{x} + A\vec{y}$
 $= \lambda\vec{x} + \lambda\vec{y} = \lambda(\vec{x} + \vec{y})$

Scalar multiplication: $A(c\vec{x}) = c(A\vec{x})$
 $= c(\lambda\vec{x}) = \lambda(c\vec{x})$

Linear combinations of eigenvectors are still eigenvectors (if they are non-zero)

Note: Eigenspace for λ is just null space of $A - \lambda I$.

So if your homework answer is " \vec{x} " and answer key's is " $c\vec{x}$ ", both are correct!

Today: Solving differential equations with linear algebra.

1x1 system of ordinary differential equations

$\begin{cases} \frac{du}{dt} = \lambda u \\ u(0) = u_0 \end{cases} \leftarrow$ General solution is $u(t) = Ce^{\lambda t}$, C a scalar,
 because $\frac{d}{dt} Ce^{\lambda t} = C\lambda e^{\lambda t} = \lambda(Ce^{\lambda t})$

Section 6.2 Diagonalizing a matrix

Idea: If you want to understand $n \times n$ A , it is best to use a basis of \mathbb{R}^n that is well-suited to A .

Maybe the best basis would be: a basis of eigenvectors for A .

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ -8 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$ Eigenvalues/vectors satisfy:

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

\uparrow eigenvector, non-zero \nwarrow eigenvalue

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

has non-zero null space

\rightarrow not invertible

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

$$\begin{vmatrix} 7-\lambda & 6 \\ -8 & -7-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (7-\lambda)(-7-\lambda) + 48 = \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 7\lambda - 49 + 48 = \lambda^2 - 1 = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = \pm 1$$

Eigenvectors for $\lambda = 1$: Solve $(A - I)\vec{x} = \vec{0} \rightarrow$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 6 \\ -8 & -8 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow x_1 = -x_2 \rightarrow \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

every eigenvector for $\lambda = 1$ is a non-zero multiple of this one

For $\lambda = -1$: Solve $(A + I)\vec{x} = \vec{0} \rightarrow$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 8 & 6 \\ -8 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow 4x_1 = -3x_2 \rightarrow \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -3/4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

What can you do with this?

Put two special eigenvectors into a matrix: $X = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3/4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Columns are eigenvectors, so AX is nice:

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$$AX = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ -8 & -7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3/4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3/4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3/4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A X Λ

diagonal
eigenvalue
matrix

Multiply on right by X^{-1} : $(AX)X^{-1} = (X\Lambda)X^{-1} \rightarrow$

$$A = X \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{diagonal}}}{\Lambda} X^{-1} \quad \text{We have "diagonalized" } A.$$

One thing we can do with this = Find all matrix powers A^n .

$$A^n = \underbrace{(X\Lambda X^{-1})(X\Lambda X^{-1}) \cdots (X\Lambda X^{-1})}_{\substack{\uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow \\ \text{cancel} \quad n \text{ times} \quad \text{cancel}}} = X\Lambda^n X^{-1}$$

This is easy: $\begin{bmatrix} 1^n & 0 \\ 0 & (-1)^n \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3/4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & (-1)^n \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{-1/4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3/4 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -\frac{3}{4}(-1)^n \\ 1 & (-1)^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -4 & -3 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

X Λ^n X^{-1}

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 4 - 3(-1)^n & 3 - 3(-1)^n \\ -4 + 4(-1)^n & -3 + 4(-1)^n \end{bmatrix}$$

If n is odd, $(-1)^n = -1$ $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ -8 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$

If n is even, $(-1)^n = 1$ $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{So } A^n = \begin{cases} A & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ I & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

In general: A $n \times n$ matrix is "diagonalizable" if we can write $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$ with Λ diagonal.

This works if \mathbb{R}^n has a basis of eigenvectors for A .

Eigenvalues: $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$

Eigenvectors: $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_n$

Then we create Δ with the eigenvalues: $\Delta = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$

X comes from the eigenvectors: $X = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\|\vec{x}_1\|} & \frac{1}{\|\vec{x}_2\|} & \dots & \frac{1}{\|\vec{x}_n\|} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$ ← Invertible because $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_n$ are a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

Let's check that indeed $A = X\Delta X^{-1}$, or $AX = X\Delta$:

$$\begin{aligned} A\cancel{X} &= A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 & \dots & \vec{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A\vec{x}_1 & A\vec{x}_2 & \dots & A\vec{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \vec{x}_1 & \lambda_2 \vec{x}_2 & \dots & \lambda_n \vec{x}_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 & \dots & \vec{x}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = X\Delta \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying a diagonal matrix on the right multiplies the columns of X by the scalar diagonal entries.

Notice: $A = X\Delta X^{-1}$ does not mean $A = \Delta$, because $X\Delta \neq \Delta X$

Also: to create X and Δ , you need to order the columns of X and entries of Δ consistently:

\vec{x}_1 is an eigenvector for λ_1 , \vec{x}_2 is an eigenvector for λ_2 , etc.

So you can choose a different order for the \vec{x} 's, but then you should adjust the order of λ 's.

When does \mathbb{R}^n have a basis of eigenvectors for A .

① What if all n eigenvalues are real and different? Then each of $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ has an eigenvector: $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_n$. Eigenvectors for different eigenvalues are independent, so $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_n$ is a basis $\rightarrow A$ is diagonalizable.

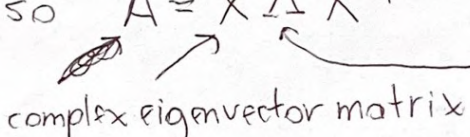
② What if A has complex number eigenvalues? Then eigenvectors ① will also be complex, so \mathbb{R}^n won't have a basis of eigenvectors. But A might still be diagonalizable if you don't mind working with complex numbers.

③ What if A has a repeated eigenvalue? Each distinct eigenvalue will give you at least one eigenvector, but this might not be enough for a basis $\rightarrow A$ might or might not be diagonalizable.

Example of Case ② $A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 13 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ Eigenvalues: Solve $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\begin{vmatrix} -5-\lambda & 13 \\ -2 & 5-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (-5-\lambda)(5-\lambda) - 13(-2) = \lambda^2 + 5\lambda - 5\lambda - 25 + 26 = \lambda^2 + 1 = 0$$

Eigenvalues are complex numbers: $\lambda = \pm\sqrt{-1}$ (or, $\pm i$)

But since they are different, there are two independent complex eigenvectors, so $A = X \Delta X^{-1}$
 $\Delta = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}$

This still gives us information about A^n . For example, A^4 .

$$A^4 = (X \Delta X^{-1})(X \Delta X^{-1})(X \Delta X^{-1})(X \Delta X^{-1}) = X \Delta^4 X^{-1} = X I X^{-1} = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} i^4 & 0 \\ 0 & (-i)^4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So $A^4 = I$ (or $A^{-1} = A^3$), not obvious from A itself, but we can check:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 13 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 13 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}}_{\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 13 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 13 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}}_{\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \checkmark$$

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$\varphi =$

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So $A = X \Delta X^{-1}$:

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

Δ is a projection matrix, so $\Delta^2 = \Delta$ (also $\Delta^n = \Delta$). This means $\Delta^n = \Delta$ for any n as well. But A is not an orthogonal projection matrix because A isn't symmetric.

Fun application of diagonalizing to Fibonacci numbers

$F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_2 = 1, F_3 = 2, F_4 = 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, \dots$

In general, $F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2}$ (recursion formula)

Use eigenvalues to find a "closed-form" formula for F_k :

Idea: $\begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} F_2 \\ F_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F_1 + F_0 \\ F_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{bmatrix}$

In general: $\begin{bmatrix} F_{k+1} \\ F_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F_k + F_{k-1} \\ F_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_k \\ F_{k-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} \\ F_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^2 \begin{bmatrix} F_{k-1} \\ F_{k-2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^3 \begin{bmatrix} F_{k-2} \\ F_{k-3} \end{bmatrix} = \dots = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^k \begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{bmatrix}$
 $F_{k-2} + F_{k-3}$ same $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

We can use eigenvalues to compute matrix powers: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^k \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

F_k is the second component of this vector.

Eigenvalues: $\begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \lambda^2 - \lambda - 1 = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 4(1)(1)}}{2(1)} = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$