

Methods of Mathematics

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Math 10B

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There is a new version of the online “textbook” file `Matrix_Algebra.pdf`.

There’s a “pop-up” lunch tomorrow at the Faculty Club at 12:30PM. All are welcome.

Course evaluations for this class are open.

“Although students received an invitation email and reminders along the way, previous research demonstrates that a personal reminder from the instructor and an explanation of how evaluations are used to inform your teaching can make a positive impact on response rate and quality.”

Three remaining lectures:

- Today: Eigenvalues and eigenvectors
- Next Tuesday: Least squares, linear regression
- Next Thursday: Dynamic programming

RRR week and exam week follow.

Our exam: Monday, May 9, 11:30AM–2:30PM.



This morning's breakfast group

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

I can tell you what eigenvalues and eigenvectors are.

I can tell you how to compute them.

We can do some examples.

Today I will *not* tell you why eigenvalues are important or give examples of applications. To get some background, you can read the Wikipedia pages on **eigenvalues and eigenvectors** and on **the characteristic polynomial**.

Section 4 of `Matrix_Algebra.pdf` has some material on this subject—about 11 pages (presented as slides).

You can do a google search on something like `brain imaging eigenvalues`. You'll find statements like

The eigenvalue magnitudes may be affected by changes in local tissue microstructure with many types of tissue injury, disease or normal physiological changes (i.e., aging).

The [Wikipedia article on Fractional anisotropy](#) pops up as well. Oh, and see [the Diffusion MRI article](#) as well.

Suppose that A is an $n \times n$ square matrix. If v is a column vector of length n , Av is (“another”) column vector of length n . If $v = 0$ then, $Av = 0$. However, for v non-zero, it is unlikely that Av will be proportional to v (i.e., a multiple of v).

For a first example, let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. If $v = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^2$, then

$Av = \begin{pmatrix} -b \\ a \end{pmatrix}$. You can convince yourself that Av is gotten from v by a 90-degree counterclockwise rotation. (Use polar coordinates if you like.) Hence there is no non-zero v in \mathbf{R}^2 such that Av is proportional to v .

If you're allowed to use complex numbers, you can take $v = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$. Then $Av = iv$ is (complex) proportional to v .

For the second example, we take $A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Then you can check by computation that

$$A \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 6 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The two vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ are called *eigenvectors*, and the proportionality constants 6 and 1 (respectively) are the corresponding *eigenvalues*. To each eigenvector, we can associate a *unique* eigenvalue.

By definition, eigenvectors are *non-zero*, though eigenvalues can be 0. For example, if A is a matrix with all 0s, then every non-zero vector is an eigenvector with eigenvalue equal to 0.

Notice that if v is an eigenvector, every non-zero multiple of v is an eigenvector with the same eigenvalue.

In the first example, we had a 2×2 matrix that had no eigenvectors (with real coordinates). In the second, the 2×2 matrix had two eigenvectors $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ that were not proportional to each other. We also mentioned the example of the 0-matrix, where all non-zero vectors are eigenvectors.

Now consider

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

For this matrix, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 0, and thus $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector (with the same eigenvalue) for all non-zero real numbers x . However, this eigenvector is “unique” in the sense that all eigenvectors are multiples of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

The question becomes approximately this one: if A is a square matrix, how do we find its eigenvectors and eigenvalues?

The key to the solution is to focus on the *eigenvalues*. If v is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ , then, by definition, $Av = \lambda v$. We can rewrite this:

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

Thus λ is an eigenvalue precisely when there is a non-zero vector v such that $(A - \lambda I)v = 0$.

Now if B is a square matrix, there is a non-zero v such that $Bv = 0$ if and only if $\det B = 0$.

Aside: this is not obvious but is the sort of thing that's proved in Math 54 and Math 110. That's one of the reasons that people love their determinants.

Hence λ is an eigenvalue of A if and only if

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

Now what sort of condition is $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$?

Take the example $A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 5 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix},$$

so that

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = (5 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) - 4 = \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 6.$$

Thus the eigenvalues of A are the roots of

$$\lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 6 = (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 6).$$

These roots are 1 and 6.

Once we know the eigenvalues, it's a simple matter to find out the corresponding eigenvectors. Let's keep the A in the last example and focus on $\lambda = 6$. The corresponding eigenvectors $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ are those vectors that satisfy $(A - 6I) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 0$. This equation amounts to a pair of equations in the two unknowns x and y :

$$\begin{aligned} 5x + 2y - 6x &= 0, \\ 2x + 2y - 6y &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

In general, we might want to use Gaussian elimination to solve a system like this. In this situation, however, both equations state that $x = 2y$, so we can write down the solution by hand: the eigenvectors are the multiples of $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Summary:

- We find the eigenvalues by solving a polynomial equation;
- for each eigenvalue, we find the corresponding eigenvectors by Gaussian elimination.

The polynomial equation that's satisfied by the eigenvalues of A is

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

Usually we say that $p(\lambda) = 0$ where p is the polynomial

$$\det(A - t \cdot I);$$

this is a polynomial in the variable t , the *characteristic polynomial* of A .

Caution:

Some authors prefer to define the characteristic polynomial as $\det(t \cdot I - A)$ instead of $\det(A - t \cdot I)$. The two differ by multiplication by $(-1)^n$. In other words, they're the same if n is even and negatives of each other if n is odd.

We should obviously have at least one example of a 3×3 matrix. There is one on page 73 of the `Matrix_Algebra` “textbook” and one on the [Wikipedia page](#) about finding eigenvalues. Let’s do the Wikipedia example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 2 & 5 \\ -2 & -1 & -4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If p is the characteristic polynomial of A , then Sage gives

$$p(x) = x^3 - x^2 - x + 1.$$

(They’re apparently using the convention $p(x) = \det(x \cdot I - A)$.)

We could obviously compute this polynomial in real time (on the document camera), but I won't do it unless you egg me on.

Obviously, if someone gives you a random cubic polynomial, you have no prayer of finding the roots of the polynomial. However, it's 99% obvious that $p(1) = 0$, so 1 is a root. In fact, $p(x) = (x - 1)^2(x + 1)$, as we can check on the doc camera. Hence there are two eigenvalues: 1 and -1 . Because 1 "occurs twice" as a root of $p(x)$, people say that the *algebraic multiplicity* of 1 as an eigenvalue is 2.

What about the *eigenvectors*? There are eigenvectors for the eigenvalue 1 and eigenvectors for the eigenvalue -1 . We can find them by Gauss (or whatever). For $+1$, we need to find the vectors v such that $(A - I)v = 0$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \\ -2 & -1 & -5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

There are actually only two equations in three unknowns because the bottom of the three equations is just -1 times the middle equation!

The solution is that z can be anything; then $y = -z$, $x = -2z$. The eigenvectors for the eigenvalue 1 are thus the non-zero

multiples of $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

There's one more topic that we need to touch on: it's the relationship between what we've been discussing and systems of first-order equations like those in the section "Linear systems of differential equations" in `Matrix_Algebra.pdf` (pp. 119–). As an example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}' = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -2 \\ 15 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix},$$

which appears in next week's homework.

Here, y_1 and y_2 are two functions that are linked together through their derivatives: $y_1' = 7y_1 - 2y_2$, $y_2' = 15y_1 - 4y_2$.

In our past lives, we considered DEs like

$$y'' - 3y' + 2y = 0.$$

If we put $y_1 = y$, $y_2 = y'$, then we can rewrite this as

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}' = \begin{pmatrix} y_2 \\ -2y_1 + 3y_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If the 2×2 matrix in the 7, -2 problem were the diagonal matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -5 \end{pmatrix}$, then the system would say $y_1' = 3y_1$, $y_2' = -5y_2$ and the solution would be $y_1 = C_1 e^{3t}$, $y_2 = C_2 e^{-5t}$. We could write

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = C_1 e^{3t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + C_2 e^{-5t} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This is sort of pedantic, but 3 and -5 are the eigenvalues in this diagonal problem; also $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ are the eigenvectors.

In the non-diagonal example that began the discussion, the solution is going to be

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = C_1 e^{2t} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} + C_2 e^t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The characteristic polynomial here is $t^2 - 3t + 2$; the roots of the polynomial are 2 and 1. The vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ are the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalues 2 and 1. (We need to check this on the document camera.)

Thus we have a recipe, and we need only see why it works: (See also slide 120 of `Matrix_Algebra`.) If $Av = \lambda v$ and $\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = e^{\lambda t} v$, then $\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}' = \lambda e^{\lambda t} v = e^{\lambda t} Av = A \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

This is kind of formal—it goes by fast—but it's actually quite brilliant.