

# ENGI 7825: Linear Algebra Review

## Finding Eigenvalues and Diagonalization

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## Eigenvalues for Triangular Matrices

The eigenvalues for a **triangular matrix** are the entries of the diagonal.

**Reason:** Suppose  $A$  is an upper triangular matrix and  $a_{kk}$  is one of the diagonal entries. Then  $B = A - a_{kk}I$  is an upper triangular matrix with a 0 in the  $k^{\text{th}}$  diagonal spot.

So  $B$  is in echelon form with (at least)  $x_k$  as a free variable. The existence of a free variable means the null space is not empty. The null space of  $B$  is exactly the eigenspace for the eigenvalue  $a_{kk}$ .

## Defining Equation for Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

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

How do you find the eigenvalues for a matrix in general?

Recall: Let  $B = A - \lambda I$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then

$$\text{Nul } B = \vec{0} \iff B \text{ invertible} \iff \det B \neq 0.$$

Translation: let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $B = A - \lambda I$ .

$$\lambda \text{ is eigenvalue for } A \iff \text{Nul } B \neq \vec{0} \iff \det B = 0.$$

In other words, the **eigenvalues** of  $A$  are exactly the values  $\lambda$  for which  **$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$** !

Since  $\det(A - \lambda I)$  is a polynomial, this is a familiar problem.

**Example:** Find all eigenvalues for the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Answer:** Find values of  $\lambda$  for which

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 3 - \lambda & 1 \\ 2 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

In other words, find roots of the quadratic equation  $\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 4 = 0$ .

We've known since high school how to do this!

$$\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 4 = (\lambda - 4)(\lambda - 1) = 0 \implies \lambda = 1 \text{ or } 4.$$

**Check:** Both  $A - 4I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $A - I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  clearly have non-empty null spaces.

**Example:** Find all eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors for the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Solution:**

**Step 1:** Find the eigenvalues. That is, find all the solutions to the **characteristic equation** for  $A$ :

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 5 - \lambda & 6 \\ 3 & -2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Calculate:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 5 - \lambda & 6 \\ 3 & -2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = (5 - \lambda)(-2 - \lambda) - 18 = \lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 28$$

Note that  $\lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 28$  is called the **characteristic polynomial** of  $A$ .

$$\lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 28 = (\lambda - 7)(\lambda + 4) = 0 \iff \lambda = 7 \text{ or } \lambda = -4$$

Hence eigenvalues are  $\lambda = 7$  and  $\lambda = -4$ .

**Step 2:** Calculate eigenvectors for eigenvalue  $\lambda = 7$ :

This is the null space of

$$A - 7 \cdot I = \begin{bmatrix} 5-7 & 6 \\ 3 & -2-7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 6 \\ 3 & -9 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{reduce}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Solution:** Eigenspace is all multiples of vector  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

**Check:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 21 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = 7 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



**Step 3:** Calculate eigenvectors for eigenvalue  $\lambda = -4$ :

This is the null space of

$$A - (-4) \cdot I = \begin{bmatrix} 5 + 4 & 6 \\ 3 & -2 + 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{reduce}} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Solution:** Eigenspace is all multiples of vector  $\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

**Check:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{8}{3} \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} = -4 \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



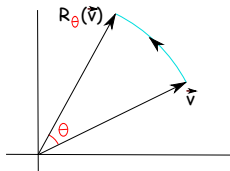
**Example:** Find the eigenvalues for the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3/2 & -13 \\ 1/4 & -3/2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 + 1.$$

There are two complex eigenvalues  $\pm i$ . We solve for the eigenspace in the usual way, although the matrices  $A - iI$  and  $A + iI$  will now be complex.



**Final Example:** Rotation: matrix  $R_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$ .



Here is what we said before:

*"In general, a rotated vector is moved to a new direction, so for most values of  $\theta$  there will be no eigenvectors! (Hence no eigenvalues either)."*

However, this is not exactly true! The question is whether the eigenvalues are complex. Lets go ahead and determine them...

$$\begin{aligned}R_{\theta} - \lambda I &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta - \lambda & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ \det(R_{\theta} - \lambda I) &= (\cos \theta - \lambda)^2 + \sin^2 \theta \\ &= \cos^2 \theta - 2 \cos \theta \lambda + \lambda^2 + \sin^2 \theta \\ &= \lambda^2 - 2 \cos \theta \lambda + 1\end{aligned}$$

Setting this to 0 and solving for  $\lambda$  we get,

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda &= \frac{2 \cos \theta \pm \sqrt{4 \cos^2 \theta - 4}}{2} \\ \lambda &= \cos \theta \pm \sqrt{\cos^2 \theta - 1}\end{aligned}$$

Try some particular values of  $\theta$ . In general, the eigenvalues will be complex whenever  $\cos^2 \theta < 1$ . So we only get real eigenvalues when  $\theta$  is an integer multiple of  $\pi$ .

Why should we care about eigenvalues and eigenvectors?

One reason:

Suppose you plan to apply a matrix linear transformation  $A$  to a vector  $\vec{v}$  lots of times:  $AAAAA\dots A\vec{v} = A^{\text{bazillion}}\vec{v}$ .

If  $\vec{v}$  is an eigenvector and  $\lambda$  is its eigenvalue, then  $A^{\text{bazillion}}\vec{v} = \lambda^{\text{bazillion}}\vec{v}$ . So it's easy to calculate.

**Example** (from above): Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ . What is  $A^{10} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ?

**Solution:** Since  $A \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 7 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,

$$AAAAAAAAAA \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 7 \cdot 7 \cdot \dots \cdot 7 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \cdot 7^{10} \\ 7^{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

Pushing further - can often get complete formula for  $A^{\text{bazillion}}$ .

**Example:** Have shown  $A \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 7 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $A \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = -4 \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Combining these vector equations into a matrix equation:

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \cdot 3 & -4 \cdot -\frac{2}{3} \\ 7 \cdot 1 & -4 \cdot 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Diagonalization

We can generalize the left and right sides of the above equation:

$$AV = VD$$

where  $V$  is composed of the eigenvectors of  $A$  arranged as columns and  $D$  is a diagonal matrix with the corresponding eigenvalues along the diagonal. Its often useful to rewrite this equation as the following diagonalization of  $A$ :

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

Returning to our example, we can compute  $A^{1000}$  using the relation  $A = VDV^{-1}$ .

If we denote  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = V$  we have

$$AV = V \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \implies A = V \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix} V^{-1} \implies$$

$$A^{1000} = V \begin{bmatrix} 7^{1000} & 0 \\ 0 & (-4)^{1000} \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$$

But why would anyone ever need to calculate  $A^{1000}$ ?

**Example** Suppose  $w_0$  is the number of wolves in the forest at time  $t = 0$ ,

$r_0$  is the number of rabbits. Consider the following simple biological model:

- Wolves make more wolves. If there are rabbits to eat, they make even more wolves!
- Similarly rabbits make (lots) more rabbits. But rabbits also get eaten by wolves.

So, if in year zero there are  $w_0$  wolves &  $r_0$  rabbits, then **next year**, the number of wolves  $w_1$  and rabbits  $r_1$  might be given by:

$$w_1 = \frac{w_0}{2} + \frac{2r_0}{5} \quad (1)$$

$$r_1 = -\frac{w_0}{10} + \frac{3r_0}{2} \quad (2)$$

The constants  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{2}{5}$ ,  $\frac{-1}{10}$ , and  $\frac{3}{2}$  would come from biological experiments.

In other words, 
$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ r_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{5} \\ -\frac{1}{10} & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ r_0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If the same model applies the following year, then after that second year there are  $w_2$  wolves &  $r_2$  rabbits where

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_2 \\ r_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{5} \\ -\frac{1}{10} & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ r_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{5} \\ -\frac{1}{10} & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{5} \\ -\frac{1}{10} & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ r_0 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

In other words,

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_2 \\ r_2 \end{bmatrix} = A^2 \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ r_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

In general, after  $k$  years we have  $w_k$  wolves &  $r_k$  rabbits:

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_k \\ r_k \end{bmatrix} = A^k \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ r_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic equation of  $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{5} \\ -\frac{1}{10} & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}$  is  $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + \frac{79}{100}$ .

Roots of  $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + \frac{79}{100} = 0$  can be found via the quadratic formula:

$$\lambda = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - \frac{79}{25}}}{2} = 1 \pm \sqrt{\frac{21}{100}}$$

Now find eigenvectors for each, and assemble into the matrix  $V$ .

$$A^{1000} = V \begin{bmatrix} (1 + \sqrt{\frac{21}{100}})^{1000} & 0 \\ 0 & (1 - \sqrt{\frac{21}{100}})^{1000} \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$$

Multiply by the initial condition vector to get the number of wolves and rabbits after 1000 years!



## Definition

If  $A$  is a square matrix and there is an invertible matrix  $P$  so that  $A = PBP^{-1}$  then  $A$  and  $B$  are **similar**.

Two matrices,  $A$  and  $B$ , which are similar will share the same eigenvalues.

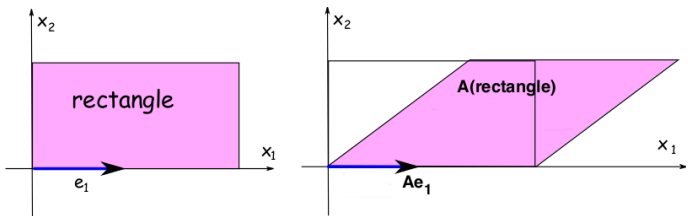
In the diagonalization  $A = VDV^{-1}$  the matrices  $A$  and  $D$  are similar by design.

**Question:** When can you **diagonalize**  $A$ ?

## Theorem

**Answer:** Can diagonalize  $A$  if and only if  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors.

**non-Example:** Recall the shear matrix which yielded the following transformation:



$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  has repeated eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$  which both have the same eigenspace (multiples of  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ).

This matrix is not diagonalizable because diagonalizability requires  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors, which is equivalent to having  $n$  distinct eigenvalues.