

Abstract vector spaces

Why do we care about abstract definitions?

Example

The *set of polynomials of degree at most 2* is:

- ▶ $V = \{ax^2 + bx + c : a, b, c \in \mathbf{R}\}$
- ▶ V is a vector space of dimension 3
- ▶ A basis for V is $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$, with $v_1 = x^2$, $v_2 = x$, $v_3 = 1$

Recall: elements in a vector space do not multiply each other.

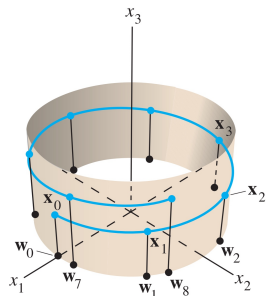
Define $T : V \rightarrow V$ by $T(ax^2 + bx + c) = 2ax + b$.

- ▶ This is the differential *operator* and *it is linear!*
- ▶ **Onto?** No. There is no polynomial in V with derivative x^2 .
- ▶ **One-to-one?** No. Both $ax^2 + bx$ and $ax^2 + bx + 1$ have same derivative.

Section 5.1

Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

Motivation: Dynamical systems



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} .8 & -.6 & 0 \\ .6 & .8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.07 \end{pmatrix}$$

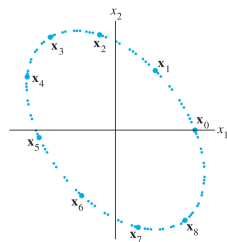
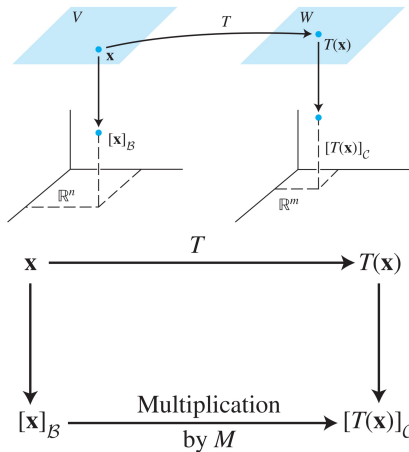


FIGURE 1 Iterates of a point \mathbf{x}_0 under the action of a matrix with a complex eigenvalue.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} .5 & -.6 \\ .75 & 1.1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Recall: Rotations correspond to $\begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix}$

Background: Change of basis



\mathcal{B} -matrix for T

When $V = W = \mathbf{R}^n$ and $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{C}$ (vectors in the same order), then the matrix M is called the \mathcal{B} -matrix for T denoted by $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

Background: A matrix for a given basis

Let $V = \{ax^2 + bx + c : a, b, c \in \mathbf{R}\}$ and $T(ax^2 + bx + c) = 2ax + b$.

- ▶ A basis of V is $\mathcal{B} = \{x^2, x, 1\}$.

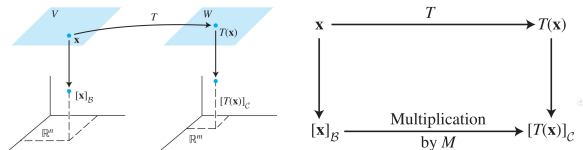
Let $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, if $v = ax^2 + bx + c$ then

- ▶ $[v]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$

- ▶ $[T(v)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = M \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$

M is called the **\mathcal{B} -matrix for T** and denoted by $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

Background: Change of basis



If $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ then

$$M = ([T(b_1)]_C [T(b_2)]_C \dots [T(b_n)]_C)$$

Compare: Use this formula for the case $T : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ and $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{C} = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$.

Change of basis

Suppose $A = PDP^{-1}$. If \mathcal{B} is the basis for \mathbf{R}^n formed from the columns of P , then D is the **\mathcal{B} -matrix** for the transformation $T(x) = Ax$.

Motivation 2: Difference equations

A Biology Question

How to predict a population of rabbits with given **dynamics**:

1. half of the newborn rabbits *survive* their first year;
2. of those, half *survive* their second year;
3. their maximum *life span* is three years;
4. Each rabbit gets 0, 6, 8 *baby rabbits* in their three years, respectively.

Approach: Each year, count the population **by age**:

$$v_n = \begin{pmatrix} f_n \\ s_n \\ t_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } \begin{cases} f_n & = \text{first-year rabbits in year } n \\ s_n & = \text{second-year rabbits in year } n \\ t_n & = \text{third-year rabbits in year } n \end{cases}$$

The *dynamics* say:

$$\overbrace{\begin{pmatrix} f_{n+1} \\ s_{n+1} \\ t_{n+1} \end{pmatrix}}^{v_{n+1}} = \begin{pmatrix} 6s_n + 8t_n \\ f_n/2 \\ s_n/2 \end{pmatrix} = \overbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 6 & 8 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}}^{Av_n} \begin{pmatrix} f_n \\ s_n \\ t_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Motivation: Difference equations

Continued

This is a **difference equation**: $Av_n = v_{n+1}$

If you know *initial population* v_0 , what happens *in 10 years* v_{10} ?

Plug in a computer:

v_0	v_{10}	v_{11}
$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 9459 \\ 2434 \\ 577 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 19222 \\ 4729 \\ 1217 \end{pmatrix}$
$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 30189 \\ 7761 \\ 1844 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 61316 \\ 15095 \\ 3881 \end{pmatrix}$
$\begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 16384 \\ 4096 \\ 1024 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 32768 \\ 8192 \\ 2048 \end{pmatrix}$

Notice any patterns?

1. Each segment of the population *essentially doubles* every year: $Av_{11} \approx 2v_{10}$.
2. The ratios get close to (16 : 4 : 1):

$$v_{11} \approx (\text{big\#}) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

New terms coming: *eigenvalue*, and *eigenvector*

Motivation: Difference equations

Continued (2)

If v_0 satisfies $Av_0 = \lambda v_0$ then

$$v_n = A^{n-1}(Av_0) = \lambda A^{n-1}v_0 = \lambda^2 A^{n-2}v_0 \quad \dots = \lambda^n v_0.$$

It is **much easier** to compute $v_n = \lambda^{10}v_0$.

Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 6 & 8 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad Av_0 = 2v_0.$$

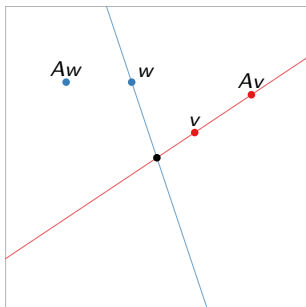
Starting with 16 baby rabbits, 4 first-year rabbits, and 1 second-year rabbit:

- ▶ The population will exactly double every year,
- ▶ In 10 years, you will have $2^{10} \cdot 16$ baby rabbits, $2^{10} \cdot 4$ first-year rabbits, and 2^{10} second-year rabbits.

Eigenvectors

An eigenvector of a matrix A is a *nonzero vector* v such that:

- ▶ Av is a multiple of v , which means
- ▶ Av is on the same line as v .



v is an eigenvector

w is not an eigenvector

Poll

Which of the vectors

A. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ B. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ C. $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ D. $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ E. $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

are eigenvectors of the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$?

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

eigenvector with **eigenvalue 2**

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

eigenvector with **eigenvalue 0**

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

eigenvector with **eigenvalue 0**

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

not an eigenvector

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

is **never** an eigenvector

Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

Definitions

If v is **not zero** and $Av = \lambda v$ then v is *an eigenvector* and λ is *its eigenvalue*.

- ▶ Eigenvalues and eigenvectors are only for square matrices.
- ▶ Eigenvectors are by definition nonzero. *Eigenvalues may be equal to zero.*

Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ -4 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiply:

$$Av = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ -4 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = 4v$$

Hence v is an *eigenvector* of A , with *eigenvalue* $\lambda = 4$.

Verifying Eigenvalues

Question: Is $\lambda = 3$ an eigenvalue of $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$?

In other words, does

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} Av = 3v \\ Av - 3v = 0 \\ (A - 3I)v = 0 \end{array} \right\} \text{ have a nontrivial solution?}$$

We know how to answer that: Row reduction!

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

Parametric vector form: $\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = v_2 \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Bottom-line: Any nonzero multiple of $\begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is an *eigenvector with eigenvalue* $\lambda = 3$ Check one of them.

Eigenspaces

The λ -eigenspace is a *subspace* of \mathbf{R}^n containing all *eigenvectors of A with eigenvalue λ , plus the zero vector*:

$$\lambda\text{-eigenspace} = \text{Nul}(A - \lambda I).$$

Find a basis for the 2-eigenspace of

λ

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$A - 2I = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{row reduce}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{parametric vector form}} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = v_2 \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + v_3 \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

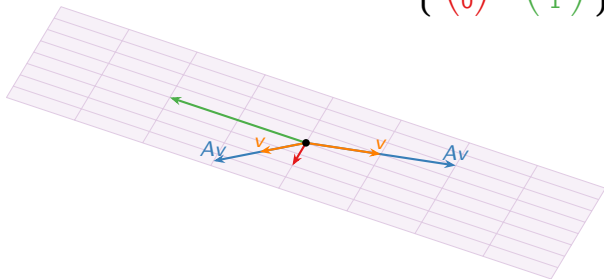
$$\xrightarrow{\text{basis}} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Eigenspaces

Picture

This is how eigenvalues and eigenvectors make matrices easier to understand.

What does this 2-eigenspace look like? A basis is $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.



For any v in the 2-eigenspace, $Av = 2v$ by definition.
This means, on its 2-eigenspace, A acts by *scaling by 2*.

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix and let λ be a number.

1. λ is an **eigenvalue of A**

if and only if $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$ has a *nontrivial solution*.

2. Finding a basis for the **λ -eigenspace of A**

means finding a basis for $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$,

3. The **eigenvectors** with eigenvalue λ are
the nonzero elements of $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$

- ▶ If we *know λ is eigenvalue*: easy to find eigenvectors (row reduction).
- ▶ And to **find all eigenvalues**? Will need to *compute a determinant*.

Finding λ that has a non-trivial solution to $(A - \lambda I)v = 0$ boils down to finding λ that makes $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

Some facts you can work out yourself

Fact 1

A is **invertible** if and only if 0 is *not an eigenvalue* of A .

Fact 2

If v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k are eigenvectors of A with **distinct eigenvalues** $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$, then $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ is *linearly independent*.

Consequence of Fact 2

An $n \times n$ matrix has **at most n** distinct eigenvalues.

Fact 3

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

Extra: Some proofs

Why Fact 1?

0 is an eigenvalue of $A \iff Ax = 0$ has a nontrivial solution
 $\iff A$ is not invertible.

Why Fact 2 (for two vectors)?

If v_2 is a multiple of v_1 , then v_2 is contained in the λ_1 -eigenspace. This is not true as v_2 does not have the same eigenvalue as v_1 .

Example

Find all eigenvalues of $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} - \lambda I_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 - \lambda & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 - \lambda & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 - \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

Since $\det(A - \lambda I) = (3 - \lambda)^2(-1 - \lambda)$, eigenvalues are $\lambda = 3$ and -1 .