

---

Professor Jennifer Balakrishnan, *jbala@bu.edu*

## What is on today

1	Eigenvectors and eigenvalues	1
2	The characteristic equation	3

---

## 1 Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

Lay–Lay–McDonald §5.1 pp. 268 – 273

Although a transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$  may transform vectors in a number of directions, it often happens that there are special vectors on which the action of  $A$  is simple. Our discussion in this chapter will be about square matrices.

**Example 1.** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Compute  $A\mathbf{u}$  and  $A\mathbf{v}$ .

Today we will study equations of the form  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  where special vectors are transformed by  $A$  into scalar multiples of themselves.

**Definition 2.** An *eigenvector* of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  for some scalar  $\lambda$ . A scalar  $\lambda$  is called an *eigenvalue* of  $A$  if there is a nontrivial solution  $\mathbf{x}$  of  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ . Such a  $\mathbf{x}$  is called an *eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$* .

**Example 3.** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ . Are  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  eigenvectors of  $A$ ?

**Example 4.** Show that 7 is an eigenvalue of the matrix  $A$  in the previous example, and find the corresponding eigenvectors.

**Remark 5.** Note that while row reduction can be used to find eigenvectors, it cannot be used to find eigenvalues. An echelon form of a matrix  $A$  usually does not display the eigenvalues of  $A$ .

Note that  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  if and only if the equation

$$(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \tag{1}$$

has a nontrivial solution. The set of all solutions of (1) is just the null space of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$ . So this is a *subspace* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and is called the *eigenspace of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$* .

**Example 6.** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ . An eigenvalue of  $A$  is 2. Find a basis for the corresponding eigenspace.

Here is one situation where it's easy to compute eigenvalues:

**Theorem 7.** The eigenvalues of a triangular matrix are the entries on its main diagonal.

*Proof.* For simplicity, consider the  $3 \times 3$  case. If  $A$  is upper-triangular, then  $A - \lambda I$  has the form

$$\begin{aligned} A - \lambda I &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22} - \lambda & a_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} - \lambda \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

We have that  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if and only if the equation  $(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has a nontrivial solution, i.e., if and only if the equation has a free variable. We see that  $(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has a free variable if and only if at least one of the entries on the diagonal of  $A - \lambda I$  is zero. This happens if and only if  $\lambda$  is one of the entries  $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}$  in  $A$ .

We leave the case of lower-triangular matrices as an exercise. □

**Example 8.** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ . What are the eigenvalues of  $A$ ?  
What are the eigenvalues of  $B$ ?

What does it mean for a matrix  $A$  to have an eigenvalue of 0? This happens if and only if the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = 0\mathbf{x}$  has a nontrivial solution. But this is equivalent to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , which has a nontrivial solution if and only if  $A$  is not invertible. *Thus 0 is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if and only if  $A$  is not invertible.*

Here is an important result about eigenvectors that we will record for later use:

**Theorem 9.** *If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$  are eigenvectors that correspond to distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$  of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , then the set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$  is linearly independent.*

## 2 The characteristic equation

Lay–Lay–McDonald §5.2 pp. 276 – 278

Now we practice finding eigenvalues:

**Example 10.** *Find the eigenvalues of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$ .*

We have the following important result: *a scalar  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  if and only if  $\lambda$  satisfies the characteristic equation*

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

**Example 11.** *Find the characteristic equation of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 6 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .*

It can be shown that if  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\det(A - \lambda I)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$  called the *characteristic polynomial* of  $A$ .

**Example 12.** *The characteristic polynomial of a  $6 \times 6$  matrix is  $\lambda^6 - 4\lambda^5 - 12\lambda^4$ . Find the eigenvalues and their multiplicities.*

The next theorem presents one use of the characteristic polynomial and is helpful for iterative methods that approximate eigenvalues. We begin with some terminology. If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then we say that  $A$  is *similar to*  $B$  if there is an invertible matrix  $P$  such that

$$P^{-1}AP = B.$$

Writing  $Q := P^{-1}$ , we also have

$$Q^{-1}BQ = A.$$

So  $B$  is also similar to  $A$ , and we say that  $A$  and  $B$  are *similar*.

**Theorem 13.** *If  $n \times n$  matrices  $A$  and  $B$  are similar, then they have the same characteristic polynomial and hence the same eigenvalues with the same multiplicities.*

*Proof.* If  $B = P^{-1}AP$  then

$$B - \lambda I = P^{-1}AP - \lambda P^{-1}P = P^{-1}(AP - \lambda P) = P^{-1}(A - \lambda I)P.$$

We compute

$$\begin{aligned} \det(B - \lambda I) &= \det(P^{-1}(A - \lambda I)P) \\ &= \det(P^{-1}) \det(A - \lambda I) \det(P). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\det(P^{-1}) \det(P) = \det(P^{-1}P) = \det(I) = 1$ , we see that  $\det(B - \lambda I) = \det(A - \lambda I)$ .  $\square$

**Remark 14.** *Note that matrices that have the same eigenvalues might not be similar: for instance, the matrices  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  have the same eigenvalues but are not similar.*

**Remark 15.** *Similarity is not the same as row equivalence. (If  $A$  is row equivalent to  $B$ , then  $B = EA$  for some invertible matrix  $E$ .) Row operations on a matrix usually change its eigenvalues.*

We can use eigenvalues and eigenvectors to analyze the evolution of a dynamical system.

**Example 16.** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} .95 & .03 \\ .05 & .97 \end{bmatrix}$ . Analyze the long-term behavior of the dynamical system defined by  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = A\mathbf{x}_k$  ( $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ) with  $\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} .6 \\ .4 \end{bmatrix}$ .