

Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

Definition. Let $f: V \rightarrow V$ be a linear transformation of a vector space V over F . A *nonzero* vector $v \in V$ is an *eigenvector* for f with *eigenvalue* $\lambda \in F$ if

$$f(v) = \lambda v.$$

If $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$, a *nonzero* vector $v \in F^n$ is an *eigenvector* for A with *eigenvalue* $\lambda \in F$ if

$$Av = \lambda v.$$

Thus, eigenvectors and eigenvalues for A are the same as eigenvectors and eigenvalues for the associated linear function $f_A: F^n \rightarrow F^n$ (defined by $f_A(v) = Av$).

Here is why we like eigenvectors: Suppose that $\alpha = \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle$ is an ordered basis of eigenvectors for $f: V \rightarrow V$ with corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, i.e., $f(v_i) = \lambda_i v_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then the matrix $[f]_{\alpha}^{\alpha}$ representing f with respect to the basis α for the domain and codomain is the diagonal matrix $\text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$.

Example. Let

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

with corresponding linear function

$$\begin{aligned} f_A: \mathbb{R}^2 &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \\ (x, y) &\mapsto (-x + 2y, -6x + 6y). \end{aligned}$$

It turns out that $(2, 3)$ and $(1, 2)$ are eigenvectors for f_A with eigenvalues 2 and 3, respectively:

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

Find the matrix representing f_A with respect to the ordered basis

$$\alpha = \langle (2, 3), (1, 2) \rangle.$$

To do this we write the image of each vector in α as a linear combination of the vectors in α and pull off the coefficients to create columns:

$$\begin{aligned} f_A(2, 3) &= 2(2, 3) = 2 \cdot (2, 3) + 0 \cdot (1, 2) \\ f_A(1, 2) &= 3(1, 2) = 0 \cdot (2, 3) + 3 \cdot (1, 2). \end{aligned}$$

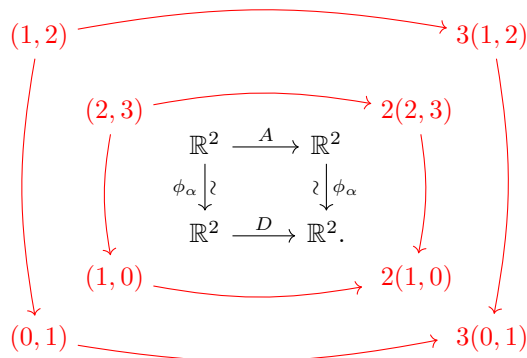
Hence,

$$[f_A]_{\alpha}^{\alpha} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \text{diag}(2, 3).$$

That is the point: a basis of eigenvectors gives a matrix representative that is diagonal, which is the simplest type of matrix to think about. Let's think abstractly about what just happened. The matrix A is the matrix representing f_A with respect to the standard basis, and the matrix

$$D = \text{diag}(2, 3) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

represents f_A with respect to the basis α . Let ϕ_α be the mapping that takes coordinates with respect to α . We get the commutative diagram:



Reviewing something we talked about earlier in the semester: The matrix for ϕ_α would be a bit of a chore to write down. It's j -column would be the image of e_j . So we would have to write each e_j as a linear combination of the basis vectors in α . However, the inverse of ϕ_α is *easy* to write down. Take a look at the commutative diagram. By construction of ϕ_α , we have

$$\phi_\alpha^{-1}(1, 0) = (2, 3) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_\alpha^{-1}(0, 1) = (1, 2).$$

So the matrix for ϕ_α^{-1} is

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

So the matrix for ϕ_α is P^{-1} . Therefore, another way to write the commutative diagram is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^2 & \xrightarrow{A} & \mathbb{R}^2 \\ P^{-1} \downarrow \wr & & \wr \downarrow P^{-1} \\ \mathbb{R}^2 & \xrightarrow{D} & \mathbb{R}^2. \end{array}$$

From contemplating this diagram, we see that

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

Summary: having found eigenvectors $(2, 3)$ and $(1, 2)$, we place those eigenvectors as columns in a matrix P , and then $P^{-1}AP$ is a diagonal matrix with the corresponding eigenvalues on the diagonal.

To generalize:

Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ with corresponding linear function $f_A: F^n \rightarrow F^n$. Suppose $\alpha = \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle$ is an ordered basis of eigenvectors with corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, i.e., $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Let P be the matrix whose columns are v_1, \dots, v_n . Then

$$P^{-1}AP = D,$$

where $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$, and we have a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F^n & \xrightarrow{A} & F^n \\ P^{-1} \downarrow \wr & & \wr \downarrow P^{-1} \\ F^n & \xrightarrow{D} & F^n. \end{array}$$

How does one find eigenvectors and eigenvalues? Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ with corresponding function $f_A: F^n \rightarrow F^n$ (so $f_A(v) := Av$). We are looking for a nonzero vector $v \in F^n$ and a scalar λ such that $Av = \lambda v$. To achieve that, the following argument is of **central importance**:

$$Av = \lambda v \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (A - \lambda I_n)v = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad v \in \ker(A - \lambda I_n).$$

This says that:

$\lambda \in F$ is an eigenvalue for A if and only if $\ker(A - \lambda I_n) \neq \{0\}$.

So we would like to determine those λ for which the kernel of $A - \lambda I_n$ is nontrivial, for which the following is key:

$$\ker(A - \lambda I_n) \neq \{0\} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \text{rank}(A - \lambda I_n) < n \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0.$$

Let's apply this to the matrix A in our example:

$$\begin{aligned} \det \left(\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} - \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) &= \det \left(\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \right) \\ &= \det \begin{pmatrix} -1 - \lambda & 2 \\ -6 & 6 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (-1 - \lambda)(6 - \lambda) - 2(-6) \\ &= \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 6 \\ &= (\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\ker(A - \lambda I_n) \neq \{0\}$ if and only if $\lambda = 2, 3$. So the eigenvalues for A are 2 and 3.

Having found the eigenvalues, **how do we go about finding corresponding eigenvalues?** For each eigenvalue λ , there are nonzero elements $\ker(A - \lambda I_n)$. So we just apply our algorithm for finding the kernel of a matrix:

$$\boxed{\lambda = 2}$$

$$A - 2I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -6 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So we need to find $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ satisfying

$$\begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -6 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore, we perform Gaussian elimination:

$$\begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -6 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence,

$$\ker(A - 2I_2) = \left\{ \left(\frac{2}{3}y, y \right) : y \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

For a basis we could take $(\frac{2}{3}, 1)$, or easier, $(2, 3)$.

Similarly for the other eigenvalue:

$$\boxed{\lambda = 3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A - 3I_2 &= \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ -6 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &\rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\ker(A - 3I_2) = \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2}y, y \right) : y \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

For a basis we could take $(\frac{1}{2}, 1)$, or easier, $(1, 2)$.

Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. The eigenvalues for A are exactly the solutions λ to

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

If $\lambda \in F$ is an eigenvalue, its corresponding eigenvectors are the nonzero vectors in

$$\ker(A - \lambda I_n).$$

Use our algorithm to find a basis for the matrix $A - \lambda I_n$.