

Lecture Outline for Friday, Sept. 13

1. Introduction to eigenvalues, eigenvectors, and eigensystems. Start with example:

$$\text{a. } \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \rightarrow A \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{x}_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{b}_i \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N A a_i \mathbf{x}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{b}_i ,$$

where $\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{x}_i$ and $A a_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{b}_i$. The basis vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$ can often be arbitrarily chosen

- b. What if, for example, $\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i$, where $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i = [0 \cdots 0 \ 1 \ 0 \cdots 0]^T$ (a 1 in the i th location)?
- c. \mathbf{b}_i might not be in the same direction as $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i$ (rotation and maybe elongation/contraction)
- d. If \mathbf{b}_i and $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i$ have the same direction, then $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i$ is an eigenvector.
- e. In general, if \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{b}_i have the same direction, then \mathbf{x}_i is an eigenvector.

2. Eigensystem insights and expectations

- a. Simple eigensystem has N distinct eigenvalues, N linearly independent eigenvectors
- b. $A \mathbf{x}_i = \lambda \mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow AX = X\Lambda$
- c. Eigenvalues of upper and lower-triangular matrices are the diagonal values
- d. Eigenvalues of diagonal matrices are the diagonal values
- e. $A \mathbf{x}_i = \lambda \mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$ can be used to find eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

3. Example: Compute eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

4. Some basic theorems

- a. If A is square with real entries, then any complex eigenvalues/eigenvectors come in conjugate pairs.
- b. If A is square, then 0 is an eigenvalue only iff A is singular.
- c. $\det(A) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 \cdots \lambda_N$
- d. If A is nonsingular and λ is an eigenvalue, then $1/\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of A^{-1} ; both eigenvalues have the same corresponding eigenvectors.
- e. Eigenvalues of upper/lower-triangular and diagonal matrices are the diagonal values.

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5. Important special cases

- a. Symmetric matrices ($A^T = A$) behave well
 - i. Eigenvalues are real; all eigenvectors are linearly independent (LI)
 - ii. Distinct eigenvalues \rightarrow orthogonal eigenvectors (also LI)
 - iii. Repeated eigenvalues \rightarrow LI eigenvectors but might not be orthogonal
 - iv. Linearly independent \neq orthogonal
 - v. Symmetric matrices can be singular and therefore have at least one zero eigenvalue; even so, all eigenvectors are LI.
- b. Orthogonal matrices ($A^{-1} = A^T$, which implies that $A^T A = I$)
 - i. A is orthogonal iff its columns form an orthonormal set (orthonormal is orthogonal with each vector having a length of 1; i.e., $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = 1$)
 - ii. Orthogonal matrices are not usually symmetric (The only orthogonal *and* symmetric matrix is I because a matrix that is both satisfies $A^{-1} = A^T = A$.)
 - iii. Example: Check that $A^{-1} = A^T$ and that each column is normalized

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

6. Where we are heading: LU and QR factorizations and the SVD