

## Quiz

- ▶ Give the SVD-based algorithm for solving least squares, and
- ▶ justify the algorithm by that showing it outputs the correct answer.
- ▶ Under what circumstances would this algorithm be preferred over the QR-based algorithm?

The Eigenvector

**[12] The Eigenvector**

## Two interest-bearing accounts

Suppose Account 1 yields 5% interest and Account 2 yields 3% interest.

Represent balances in the two accounts by a 2-vector  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{amount in Account 1} \\ \text{amount in Account 2} \end{bmatrix}$ .

$$\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.05 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}^{(t)}$$

Let  $A$  denote the matrix. It is diagonal.

To find out how, say,  $\mathbf{x}^{(100)}$  compares to  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ , we can use Equation repeatedly:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}^{(100)} &= A\mathbf{x}^{(99)} \\ &= A(A\mathbf{x}^{(98)}) \\ &\vdots \\ &= \underbrace{A \cdot A \cdots A}_{100 \text{ times}} \mathbf{x}^{(0)} \\ &= A^{100} \mathbf{x}^{(0)} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.05 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.05 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.05^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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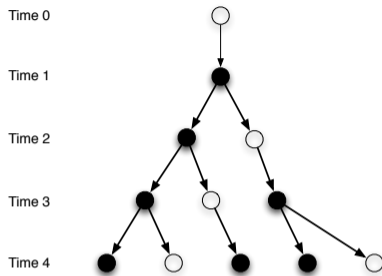
$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1.05 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03 \end{bmatrix} \cdots \begin{bmatrix} 1.05 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03 \end{bmatrix}}_{100 \text{ times}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.05^{100} & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03^{100} \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 131.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 19.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

**The takeaway:**  $\begin{bmatrix} \text{Account 1 balance after } t \text{ years} \\ \text{Account 2 balance after } t \text{ years} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.05^t \cdot (\text{initial Account 1 balance}) \\ 1.03^t \cdot (\text{initial Account 2 balance}) \end{bmatrix}$

## Rabbit reproduction

To avoid getting into trouble, I'll pretend sex doesn't exist.

- ▶ Each month, each adult rabbit gives birth to one baby.
- ▶ A rabbit takes one month to become an adult.
- ▶ Rabbits never die.



$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{adults at time } t + 1 \\ \text{juveniles at time } t + 1 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} \text{adults at time } t \\ \text{juveniles at time } t \end{bmatrix}$$

Use  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{number of adults after } t \text{ months} \\ \text{number of juveniles after } t \text{ months} \end{bmatrix}$

Then  $\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = A\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$  where  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

$[1, 0], [1, 1], [2, 1], [3, 2], [5, 3], [8, 3], \dots$

## Analyzing rabbit reproduction

$$\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = A\mathbf{x}^{(t)} \text{ where } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

As in bank-account example,  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)} = A^t \mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ .

Calculate how the entries of  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$  grow as a function of  $t$ ? With bank accounts,  $A$  was diagonal.

Not this time! However, there is a workaround:

$$\text{Let } S = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Then } S^{-1}AS = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^t &= \underbrace{A A \cdots A}_{t \text{ times}} \\ &= (S\Lambda S^{-1})(S\Lambda S^{-1}) \cdots (S\Lambda S^{-1}) \\ &= S\Lambda^t S^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix  $\Rightarrow$  easy to compute  $\Lambda^t$ .

$$\text{If } \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \\ & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } \Lambda^t = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^t & \\ & \lambda_2^t \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Here } \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & \\ & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$



## Interpretation using change of basis

**Interpretation:** To make the analysis easier, we will use a change of basis

Basis consists of the two columns of the matrix  $S$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Let  $\mathbf{u}^{(t)}$  = coordinate representation of  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$  in terms of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$ .

- ▶ (rep2vec) To go from repres.  $\mathbf{u}^{(t)}$  to vector  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$  itself, we multiply  $\mathbf{u}^{(t)}$  by  $S$ .
- ▶ (Move forward one month) To go from  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$  to  $\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)}$ , we multiply  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$  by  $A$ .
- ▶ (vec2rep) To go to coord. repres., we multiply by  $S^{-1}$ .

Multiplying by the matrix  $S^{-1}AS$  carries out the three steps above.

But  $S^{-1}AS = \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$  so  $\mathbf{u}^{(t+1)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}^{(t)}$

so

$$\mathbf{u}^{(t)} = \begin{bmatrix} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^t & 0 \\ 0 & \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^t \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}^{(0)}$$

## Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

For this topic, consider only matrices  $A$  such that row-label set = col-label set (*endomorphlic*).

**Definition:** If  $\lambda$  is a scalar and  $\mathbf{v}$  is a nonzero vector such that  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ , we say that  $\lambda$  is an *eigenvalue* of  $A$ , and  $\mathbf{v}$  is a corresponding *eigenvector*.

Convenient to require eigenvector has norm one.

**Example:**  $\begin{bmatrix} 1.05 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.03 \end{bmatrix}$  has eigenvalues 1.05 and 1.03, and corresponding eigenvectors  $[1, 0]$  and  $[0, 1]$ .

**Example:**  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  has eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$  and  $\lambda_2 = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$ , and corresponding eigenvectors  $[\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}, 1]$  and  $[\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}, 1]$ .

**Example:** What does it mean when  $A$  has 0 as an eigenvalue? There is a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{v}$  such that  $A\mathbf{v} = 0\mathbf{v}$ . That is,  $A$ 's null space is nontrivial.

Find an eigenvector corresp. to eigenvalue 0? Find nonzero vector in the null space.

What about other eigenvalues?

## Eigenvector corresponding to an eigenvalue

Suppose  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ , with corresponding eigenvector  $\mathbf{v}$ .

$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ .  $\Rightarrow A\mathbf{v} - \lambda\mathbf{v}$  is the zero vector.

$A\mathbf{v} - \lambda\mathbf{v} = (A - \lambda\mathbb{1})\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\Rightarrow (A - \lambda\mathbb{1})\mathbf{v}$  is the zero vector.

That means that  $\mathbf{v}$  is a nonzero vector in the null space of  $A - \lambda\mathbb{1}$ .

That means that  $A - \lambda\mathbb{1}$  is not invertible.

Conversely, suppose  $A - \lambda\mathbb{1}$  is not invertible

It is square, so it must have a nontrivial null space.

Let  $\mathbf{v}$  be a nonzero vector in the null space.

Then  $(A - \lambda\mathbb{1})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ , so  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ .

We have proved the following:

**Lemma:** Let  $A$  be a square matrix.

- ▶ The number  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if and only if  $A - \lambda\mathbb{1}$  is not invertible.
- ▶ If  $\lambda$  is in fact an eigenvalue of  $A$  then the corresponding eigenspace is the null space of  $A - \lambda\mathbb{1}$ .

## Corollary

*If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  then it is an eigenvalue of  $A^T$ .*

## Similarity

**Definition:** Two matrices  $A$  and  $B$  are *similar* if there is an invertible matrix  $S$  such that  $S^{-1}AS = B$ .

**Proposition:** Similar matrices have the same eigenvalues.

**Proof:** Suppose  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is a corresponding eigenvector. By definition,  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ . Suppose  $S^{-1}AS = B$ , and let  $\mathbf{w} = S^{-1}\mathbf{v}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} B\mathbf{w} &= S^{-1}AS\mathbf{w} \\ &= S^{-1}ASS^{-1}\mathbf{v} \\ &= S^{-1}A\mathbf{v} \\ &= S^{-1}\lambda\mathbf{v} \\ &= \lambda S^{-1}\mathbf{v} \\ &= \lambda\mathbf{w} \end{aligned}$$

which shows that  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $B$ .

## Example of similarity

**Example:** It is not hard to show that the eigenvalues of the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 3 & -9 \\ 0 & 9 & 15 \\ 0 & 0 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$  are its diagonal elements (6, 9, and 15) because  $A$  is upper triangular. The matrix  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 92 & -32 & -15 \\ -64 & 34 & 39 \\ 176 & -68 & -99 \end{bmatrix}$  has the property that  $B = S^{-1}AS$  where  $S = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ -4 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ . Therefore the eigenvalues of  $B$  are also 6, 9, and 15.

## Diagonalizability

**Definition:** If  $A$  is similar to a diagonal matrix, we say  $A$  is *diagonalizable*.

(if there is an invertible matrix  $S$  such that  $S^{-1}AS = \Lambda$  where  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix)

Equation  $S^{-1}AS = \Lambda$  is equivalent to equation  $A = SAS^{-1}$ , which is the form used in the analysis of rabbit population. How is diagonalizability related to eigenvalues?

- ▶ Eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix  $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$  are its diagonal entries.
- ▶ If matrix  $A$  is similar to  $\Lambda$  then the eigenvalues of  $A$  are the eigenvalues of  $\Lambda$
- ▶ Equation  $S^{-1}AS = \Lambda$  is equivalent to  $AS = S\Lambda$ . Write  $S$  in terms of columns:

$$\begin{bmatrix} & A & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & | & \cdots & | & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & | & \cdots & | & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c} A\mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & A\mathbf{v}_n \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c} \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c} A\mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & A\mathbf{v}_n \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c} \lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n \end{array} \right]$$

Columns  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  of  $S$  are eigenvectors.  $S$  is invertible  $\Rightarrow$  eigenvectors lin. indep.

- ▶ The argument goes both ways: if  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors then  $A$  is diagonalizable.



## Diagonalizability Theorem

**Diagonalizability Theorem:** An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable iff it has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors.

**Example:** Consider the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Its null space is trivial so zero is not an eigenvalue.

For any 2-vector  $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ , we have  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + y \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ .

Suppose  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue. Then for some vector  $[x, y]$ ,

$$\lambda [x, y] = [x + y, y]$$

Therefore  $\lambda y = y$ . Therefore  $y = 0$ . Therefore every eigenvector is in  $\text{Span} \{[1, 0]\}$ . Thus the matrix does not have two linearly independent eigenvectors, so it is not diagonalizable.

## Interpretation using change of basis, re-revisited

Suppose  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable, so it has linearly independent e-vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  with e-values are  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$ . Any vector  $\mathbf{x}$  can be written as a linear combination:

$$\mathbf{x} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

Left-multiply by  $A$  on both sides of the equation:

$$\begin{aligned} A\mathbf{x} &= A(\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1) + A(\alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2) + \dots + A(\alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n) \\ &= \alpha_1 A\mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 A\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n A\mathbf{v}_n \\ &= \alpha_1 \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n \end{aligned}$$

Applying the same reasoning to  $A(A\mathbf{x})$ , we get

$$A^2 \mathbf{x} = \alpha_1 \lambda_1^2 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2^2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \lambda_n^2 \mathbf{v}_n$$

More generally, for any nonnegative integer  $t$ ,

$$A^t \mathbf{x} = \alpha_1 \lambda_1^t \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2^t \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \lambda_n^t \mathbf{v}_n$$

If  $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2|$  then eventually  $\lambda_1^t$  will be *much* bigger than  $\lambda_2^t, \dots, \lambda_n^t$ , so first term will dominate. For a large enough value of  $t$ ,  $A^t \mathbf{x}$  will be approximately  $\alpha_1 \lambda_1^t \mathbf{v}_1$ .