

Math 223, Lecture 22

Last time: square matrices $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ are **similar** if there is $S \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, invertible, s.t.

$$B = S^{-1}AS.$$

more generally,

Linear maps $\Sigma, \Upsilon \in \text{End}(V)$ are **similar** if there is $S \in \text{End}(V)$ s.t.

$$\Upsilon = S^{-1}\Sigma S$$

Similar matrices represent **same** linear map in **different** bases. (S = "change of basis" matrix,

cols of S = coeffs of new basis wrt old basis

Ex: This is an equivalence relation:

(1) ~~A~~ A is similar to A

(2) if A is similar to B , B is similar to A ,

(3) if A is similar to B and B " " " C ,
then A is " " C .

A particularly good basis to change to is one where the matrix is diagonal

Key def: Let $T \in \text{End}(V)$. Call a number λ an eigenvalue of T if there is a ~~non~~ non-zero vector \underline{v} ("eigenvector") st.

$$\& T\underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v}.$$

warning: this is a nonlinear equation!

(but, it is linear in \underline{v} for fixed λ)

Observe: λ is an eigenvalue iff the linear equation $T\underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v}$ has a non-zero solution, i.e. iff $\text{Ker}(T - \lambda \text{Id}) \neq \{0\}$.

Why care: Much easier to calculate in a basis of eigenvectors

Eg: Easy to compute T^2, T^{1000} in that basis:

(Ex) If $T\underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v}$ then $T^{1000}\underline{v} = \lambda^{1000} \underline{v}$

so if $T\underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i$, then

$$T\left(\sum_{i=1}^r a_i v_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^r (a_i \cdot \lambda_i) v_i.$$

Examples: (1) $\{\cos(2\pi kx)\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \cup \{\sin(2\pi kx)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$

are a "basis" of the space of periodic functions: $\{f \mid f(x+1) = f(x)\}$

(checked that they are indep)

so can solve differential equations

by expanding in the basis

(~~Fourier~~ ("Fourier analysis"))

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} (\underbrace{\cos(2\pi kx)}_{\text{"vector"}}) = -4\pi^2 k^2 \underbrace{\cos(2\pi kx)}_{\text{same vector}}$$

↑ number

$$(2) \frac{d}{dx} (e^{sx}) = s e^x \quad (\text{"Laplace transform"})$$

can also represent functions as (integrals)
linear combos of exponentials

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} f + 7 \frac{d}{dx} f + 8f = x^2 \log x$$

write $x^2 \log x = \int \tilde{h}(s) e^{sx} ds$

then write $f = \int \tilde{f}(s) e^{sx} ds$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{get } \int \tilde{f}(s) (s^2 + 7s + 8) e^{sx} ds \\ = \int \tilde{h}(s) \cdot e^{sx} ds \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{f}(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 7s + 8} \tilde{h}(s)$$

(3) Difference equations: $L: \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ is the left shift.

F_n = Fibonacci sequence $0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, \dots$

$$F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (L^2 - L - 1) \underline{F} = \underline{0}$$

$\dim \text{Ker} (L^2 - L - 1) = 2$. (If we know F_0, F_1

Let r_1, r_2 be roots of $\lambda^2 - \lambda - 1 = 0$ (know \mathbb{F})
 ("characteristic equation")

$$r_1, r_2 = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

then $\mathcal{L}((r_i^n)_{n \geq 0}) = (r_1, r_2^2, r_1^3, \dots)$
 $= r_i (1, r_2, r_2^2, \dots) = r_i (r_i^n)_{n \geq 0}$

so $(\mathcal{L}^2 - \mathcal{L} - 1) \mathcal{L}((r_i^n)_{n \geq 0}) = \underbrace{(r_i^2 - r_i - 1)}_{=0} \cdot (r_i^n)_{n \geq 0}$

so have two elements in $\ker \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow$ basis.

Thm: If $\mathcal{F}_0 = 0, \mathcal{F}_1 = 1$, then

$$\mathcal{F}_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (r_1^n - r_2^n) = (r_2^n)_{n \geq 0}$$

ie $\mathcal{F}_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right)$

Cor: $\left| \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right| < 1$ so \mathcal{F}_n is exponentially

close to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n$.

$$\text{So } \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n t_i}{n} \rightarrow \frac{1 + \dots + n}{2}, \quad \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2}{n}} \rightarrow \frac{1 + \dots + n^2}{2}$$

Ex: Have population, measure characteristics t_1, \dots, t_n

\Rightarrow correlation matrix $C_{ij} = \mathbb{E}(t_i t_j)$

(really, should use $\mathbb{E}(t_i - \mu_i)(t_j - \mu_j)$)

$$\mu_i = \text{mean of } t_i = \mathbb{E} t_i.$$

clearly $C_{ij} = C_{ji}$. later \Rightarrow basis of eigenvectors.

say $C \cdot \underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v}$ \underline{v} corresponds to

a "compound characteristic":

$$t_{\underline{v}} = \sum_i t_i v_i$$

$\lambda \sim$ effect of $t_{\underline{v}}$ on variance.

Numerical example

let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Want to solve $\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$

that is
$$\begin{cases} 4x + 3y = \lambda x \\ x + 2y = \lambda y \end{cases}$$

$$= \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} (4-\lambda)x + 3y = 0 \\ x + (2-\lambda)y = 0 \end{cases}$$

suppose $(x, y; \lambda)$ is a solution

then $x = (\lambda - 2)y$ so

$$(4-\lambda)(\lambda-2)y + 3y = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 5)y = 0$$

Two possibilities: (1) $y = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$
 λ arbitrary

(2) $(\lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 5) = 0$ then y is arbitrary,
 $x = (\lambda - 2)y$.

\Leftrightarrow if $\lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 5 = 0$, then $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = y \begin{pmatrix} \lambda - 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 5)$

So either $\lambda = 1$, $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \in \text{Span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$
or $\lambda = 5$, $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \in \text{Span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$

Def: The eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue λ is $\ker(A - \lambda I)$.

Recap: Found λ as the root of the "characteristic polynomial" of the map [non-linear].

Then for each λ , finding eigenspace is purely linear.

Fix $x \in V$, $T \in \text{End}(V)$. Then λ is an eigenvalue
iff $\ker(T - \lambda \text{Id}) \neq \{0\} \Leftrightarrow \ker(\lambda \text{Id} - T) \neq \{0\}$

If $\dim V = n < \infty$ then non-zero kernel
 \Leftrightarrow not invertible ("singular")
 $\Leftrightarrow \det(\lambda I - T) = 0$

Def: Let V be f.d. The characteristic polynomial of T is the polynomial

$$p_T(x) = \det(x \text{Id}_V - T)$$

$$|xI - T|$$

E.g. $P_{\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}}(\lambda) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \lambda - 4 & -3 \\ 1 & \lambda - 2 \end{pmatrix} = (\lambda - 4)(\lambda - 2) - (-1)(3)$
 $= \lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 8 - 3 = \lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 5 = (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 5)$

Then λ is an eigenvalue iff $P_T(\lambda) = 0$
 iff λ is a root of P_T .

Q: What if P_T has no real roots?

Fact: (Fundamental theorem of algebra)

Every ^{real} polynomial splits completely over the complex numbers: $\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$
 $i^2 = -1$.

Next time: Another proof of existence of eigenvalues, now on complex eigenvalues, ...

Ex: Matrix $N = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ has $P_N(x) = x^2$
 only eigenvalue is 0

$\dim \text{Ker } N = 1 \leftarrow$ only one lin. indep. eigenvector

0 is a double root ("alg. mult 2")

(^ugeom muut. 1ⁿ)