Linear Algebra

MATH 323

Lecture 23: Diagonalization. Review for Test 2.

Basis of eigenvectors

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space and $L:V\to V$ be a linear operator. Let $\mathbf{v}_1,\mathbf{v}_2,\ldots,\mathbf{v}_n$ be a basis for V and A be the matrix of the operator L with respect to this basis.

Theorem The matrix A is diagonal if and only if vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are eigenvectors of L. If this is the case, then the diagonal entries of the matrix A are the corresponding eigenvalues of L.

$$L(\mathbf{v}_i) = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i \iff A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & O \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ O & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

How to find a basis of eigenvectors

Theorem If $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are eigenvectors of a linear operator L associated with distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$, then $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are linearly independent.

Corollary 1 Suppose $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_k$ are all eigenvalues of a linear operator $L: V \to V$. For any $1 \le i \le k$, let S_i be a basis for the eigenspace associated to the eigenvalue λ_i . Then these bases are disjoint and the union $S = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_k$ is a linearly independent set.

Moreover, if the vector space V admits a basis consisting of eigenvectors of L, then S is such a basis.

Corollary 2 Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix such that the characteristic equation $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ has n distinct roots. Then (i) there is a basis for \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A; (ii) all eigenspaces of A are one-dimensional.

Diagonalization

Theorem 1 Let L be a linear operator on a finite-dimensional vector space V. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- the matrix of L with respect to some basis is diagonal;
- there exists a basis for *V* formed by eigenvectors of *L*.

The operator *L* is **diagonalizable** if it satisfies these conditions.

Theorem 2 Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- A is the matrix of a diagonalizable operator;
- A is similar to a diagonal matrix, i.e., it is represented as

 $A = UBU^{-1}$, where the matrix B is diagonal;

• there exists a basis for \mathbb{R}^n formed by eigenvectors of A.

The matrix A is **diagonalizable** if it satisfies these conditions.

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

- The matrix A has two eigenvalues: 1 and 3.
- The eigenspace of A associated with the eigenvalue 1 is the line spanned by $\mathbf{v}_1 = (-1, 1)$.
- The eigenspace of A associated with the eigenvalue 3 is the line spanned by $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 1)$.
 - Eigenvectors \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 form a basis for \mathbb{R}^2 .

Thus the matrix A is diagonalizable. Namely, $A = UBU^{-1}$, where

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Notice that U is the transition matrix from the basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ to the standard basis.

Example.
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

- The matrix A has two eigenvalues: 0 and 2.
- The eigenspace for 0 is one-dimensional; it has a basis $S_1 = \{ \mathbf{v}_1 \}$, where $\mathbf{v}_1 = (-1, 1, 0)$.
- The eigenspace for 2 is two-dimensional; it has a basis $S_2 = \{\mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$, where $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 1, 0)$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = (-1, 0, 1)$.
- The union $S_1 \cup S_2 = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is a linearly independent set, hence it is a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

Thus the matrix A is diagonalizable. Namely, $A = UBU^{-1}$, where

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To diagonalize an $n \times n$ matrix A is to find a diagonal matrix B and an invertible matrix U such that $A = UBU^{-1}$.

Suppose there exists a basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ for \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A. That is, $A\mathbf{v}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k$, where $\lambda_k \in \mathbb{R}$.

Then $A = UBU^{-1}$, where $B = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$ and U is a transition matrix whose columns are vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$.

Example.
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
. $det(A - \lambda I) = (4 - \lambda)(1 - \lambda)$.

Eigenvalues: $\lambda_1 = 4$, $\lambda_2 = 1$.

Associated eigenvectors:
$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Thus $A = UBU^{-1}$, where

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Suppose we have a problem that involves a square matrix A in the context of matrix multiplication.

Also, suppose that the case when A is a diagonal matrix is simple. Then the diagonalization may help in solving this problem (or may not). Namely, it may reduce the case of a diagonalizable matrix to that of a diagonal one.

An example of such a problem is, given a square matrix A, to find its power A^k :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} s_1 & & & O \\ & s_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ O & & & s_n \end{pmatrix} \implies A^k = \begin{pmatrix} s_1^k & & & O \\ & s_2^k & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ O & & & s_n^k \end{pmatrix}$$

Problem. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find A^5 .

We know that $A = UBU^{-1}$. where

We know that
$$A = UBU^{-1}$$
, where

 $B = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$

Then
$$A^5 = UBU^{-1}UBU^{-1}UBU^{-1}UBU^{-1}UBU^{-1}UBU^{-1}$$

$$= UB^5U^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1024 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $=\begin{pmatrix}1024 & -1\\0 & 1\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}1 & 1\\0 & 1\end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix}1024 & 1023\\0 & 1\end{pmatrix}.$

Problem. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find A^k $(k \ge 1)$.

We know that $A = UBU^{-1}$, where

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then
$$A^k = UB^kU^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4^k & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 4^k & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4^k & 4^k - 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $B = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$

Problem. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find a matrix C such that $C^2 = A$.

We know that $A = UBU^{-1}$, where

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Suppose that $D^2 = B$ for some matrix D. Let $C = UDU^{-1}$. Then $C^2 = UDU^{-1}UDU^{-1} = UD^2U^{-1} = UBU^{-1} = A$.

We can take
$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{4} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

Then
$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

There are **two obstructions** to existence of a basis consisting of eigenvectors. They are illustrated by the following examples.

Example 1.
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

 $\det(A - \lambda I) = (\lambda - 1)^2$. Hence $\lambda = 1$ is the only eigenvalue. The associated eigenspace is the line t(1,0).

Example 2.
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

 $\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 + 1.$

⇒ no real eigenvalues or eigenvectors

(However there are *complex* eigenvalues/eigenvectors.)

Topics for Test 2

Coordinates and linear transformations (Leon 3.5, 4.1–4.3)

- Coordinates relative to a basis
- Change of basis, transition matrix
- Matrix transformations
- Matrix of a linear transformation
- Similarity of matrices

Orthogonality (Leon 5.1–5.6)

- Inner products and norms
- Orthogonal complement, orthogonal projection
- Least squares problems
- The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors (Leon 6.1, 6.3)

- Eigenvalues, eigenvectors, eigenspaces
- Characteristic polynomial
- Diagonalization

Proofs to know

Theorem 1 Any linear mapping $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is a matrix transformation.

Theorem 2 The orthogonal complement of the row space of a matrix A is the nullspace of A.

Theorem 3 If nonzero vectors in an inner product space are orthogonal to each other, then they are linearly independent.

Theorem 4 $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is an eigenvalue of a matrix A if and only if $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

Theorem 5 Similar matrices have the same characteristic polynomial.

Theorem 6 If $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are eigenvectors of the same linear operator L associated with distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$, then $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are linearly independent.

Sample problems for Test 2

Problem 1 (15 pts.) Let $\mathcal{M}_{2,2}(\mathbb{R})$ denote the vector space of 2×2 matrices with real entries. Consider a linear operator $L: \mathcal{M}_{2,2}(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathcal{M}_{2,2}(\mathbb{R})$ given by

$$L\begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Find the matrix of the operator L with respect to the basis

$$E_1=\begin{pmatrix}1&0\\0&0\end{pmatrix},\ E_2=\begin{pmatrix}0&1\\0&0\end{pmatrix},\ E_3=\begin{pmatrix}0&0\\1&0\end{pmatrix},\ E_4=\begin{pmatrix}0&0\\0&1\end{pmatrix}.$$

Problem 2 (20 pts.) Find a linear polynomial which is the best least squares fit to the following data:

Problem 3 (25 pts.) Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 spanned by the vectors $\mathbf{x}_1 = (1, 1, 1, 1)$ and $\mathbf{x}_2 = (1, 0, 3, 0)$.

- (i) Find an orthonormal basis for V.
- (ii) Find an orthonormal basis for the orthogonal complement V^{\perp} .

Problem 4 (30 pts.) Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

- (i) Find all eigenvalues of the matrix A.
- (ii) For each eigenvalue of A, find an associated eigenvector.
- (iii) Is the matrix A diagonalizable? Explain. (iv) Find all eigenvalues of the matrix A^2 .
- **Bonus Problem 5 (15 pts.)** Let $L:V \to W$ be a linear

mapping of a finite-dimensional vector space V to a vector space W. Show that

 $\dim \operatorname{Range}(L) + \dim \ker(L) = \dim V.$

Problem 1. Let $\mathcal{M}_{2,2}(\mathbb{R})$ denote the vector space of 2×2 matrices with real entries. Consider a linear operator $L: \mathcal{M}_{2,2}(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathcal{M}_{2,2}(\mathbb{R})$ given by

$$L\begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Find the matrix of the operator L with respect to the basis

$$E_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ E_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ E_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ E_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let M_l denote the desired matrix.

By definition, M_L is a 4×4 matrix whose columns are coordinates of the matrices $L(E_1), L(E_2), L(E_3), L(E_4)$ with respect to the basis E_1, E_2, E_3, E_4 .

$$L(E_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1E_1 + 2E_2 + 0E_3 + 0E_4,$$

$$L(E_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 3E_1 + 4E_2 + 0E_3 + 0E_4,$$

$$L(E_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = 0E_1 + 0E_2 + 1E_3 + 2E_4,$$

 $L(E_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = 0E_1 + 0E_2 + 3E_3 + 4E_4.$ It follows that

It 1

 $M_L = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 \ 2 & 4 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \ 0 & 0 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$

Thus the relation

 $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & y_1 \\ z_1 & w_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$

is equivalent to the relation

 $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \\ z_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}.$

Problem 2. Find a linear polynomial which is the best least squares fit to the following data:

We are looking for a function $f(x) = c_1 + c_2 x$, where c_1, c_2 are unknown coefficients. The data of the problem give rise to an overdetermined system of linear equations in variables c_1 and c_2 :

$$\begin{cases} c_1 - 2c_2 = -3, \\ c_1 - c_2 = -2, \\ c_1 = 1, \\ c_1 + c_2 = 2, \\ c_1 + 2c_2 = 5. \end{cases}$$

This system is inconsistent.

We can represent the system as a matrix equation $A\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{y}$, where

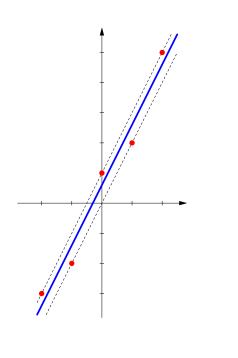
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The least squares solution \mathbf{c} of the above system is a solution of the normal system $A^T A \mathbf{c} = A^T \mathbf{v}$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\iff \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix} \iff \begin{cases} c_1 = 3/5 \\ c_2 = 2 \end{cases}$$

Thus the function $f(x) = \frac{3}{5} + 2x$ is the best least squares fit to the above data among linear polynomials.



Problem 3. Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 spanned by the vectors $\mathbf{x}_1 = (1, 1, 1, 1)$ and $\mathbf{x}_2 = (1, 0, 3, 0)$.

(i) Find an orthonormal basis for V.

First we apply the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process to vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$ and obtain an orthogonal basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ for the subspace V:

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1 = (1, 1, 1, 1),$$

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 - \frac{\mathbf{x}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1} \mathbf{v}_1 = (1, 0, 3, 0) - \frac{4}{4} (1, 1, 1, 1) = (0, -1, 2, -1).$$

Then we normalize vectors \mathbf{v}_1 , \mathbf{v}_2 to obtain an orthonormal basis \mathbf{w}_1 , \mathbf{w}_2 for V:

$$\|\mathbf{v}_1\| = 2 \implies \mathbf{w}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|} = \frac{1}{2}(1, 1, 1, 1)$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}_2\| = \sqrt{6} \implies \mathbf{w}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_2}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(0, -1, 2, -1)$$

Problem 3. Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 spanned by the vectors $\mathbf{x}_1 = (1, 1, 1, 1)$ and $\mathbf{x}_2 = (1, 0, 3, 0)$.

(ii) Find an orthonormal basis for the orthogonal complement V^{\perp} .

Since the subspace V is spanned by vectors (1,1,1,1) and (1,0,3,0), it is the row space of the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then the orthogonal complement V^{\perp} is the nullspace of A. To find the nullspace, we convert the matrix A to reduced row echelon form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence a vector $(x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4)\in\mathbb{R}^4$ belongs to V^\perp if and only if

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\iff \begin{cases} x_1 + 3x_3 = 0 \\ x_2 - 2x_3 + x_4 = 0 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} x_1 = -3x_3 \\ x_2 = 2x_3 - x_4 \end{cases}$$

The general solution of the system is $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (-3t, 2t - s, t, s) = t(-3, 2, 1, 0) + s(0, -1, 0, 1)$, where $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$.

It follows that V^{\perp} is spanned by vectors $\mathbf{x}_3 = (0, -1, 0, 1)$ and $\mathbf{x}_4 = (-3, 2, 1, 0)$.

The vectors $\mathbf{x}_3 = (0, -1, 0, 1)$ and $\mathbf{x}_4 = (-3, 2, 1, 0)$ form a basis for the subspace V^{\perp} .

It remains to orthogonalize and normalize this basis:

$$\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{x}_3 = (0, -1, 0, 1),$$
 $\mathbf{v}_4 = \mathbf{x}_4 - \frac{\mathbf{x}_4 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3}{\mathbf{v}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3} \mathbf{v}_3 = (-3, 2, 1, 0) - \frac{-2}{2} (0, -1, 0, 1)$
 $= (-3, 1, 1, 1),$

$$\|\mathbf{v}_3\| = \sqrt{2} \implies \mathbf{w}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_3}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0, -1, 0, 1),$$

 $\|\mathbf{v}_4\| = \sqrt{12} = 2\sqrt{3} \implies \mathbf{w}_4 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_4}{\|\mathbf{v}_4\|} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}(-3, 1, 1, 1).$

Thus the vectors $\mathbf{w}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0, -1, 0, 1)$ and

 $\mathbf{w}_4 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}(-3,1,1,1)$ form an orthonormal basis for V^{\perp} .

Problem 4. Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

(i) Find all eigenvalues of the matrix A.

The eigenvalues of A are roots of the characteristic equation $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$. We obtain that

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 - \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (1 - \lambda)^3 - 2(1 - \lambda) - 2(1 - \lambda) = (1 - \lambda)((1 - \lambda)^2 - 4)$$

$$=(1-\lambda)\big((1-\lambda)-2\big)\big((1-\lambda)+2\big)=-(\lambda-1)(\lambda+1)(\lambda-3).$$

Hence the matrix A has three eigenvalues: -1, 1, and 3.

Problem 4. Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

(ii) For each eigenvalue of A, find an associated eigenvector.

An eigenvector $\mathbf{v} = (x, y, z)$ of the matrix A associated with an eigenvalue λ is a nonzero solution of the vector equation

$$(A-\lambda I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \iff \begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To solve the equation, we convert the matrix $A - \lambda I$ to reduced row echelon form.

First consider the case $\lambda = -1$. The row reduction yields

$$A+I = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$ightarrow egin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 1 \ 0 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}
ightarrow egin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}
ightarrow egin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \ 0 & 1 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$(A+I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \iff \begin{cases} x-z=0, \\ y+z=0. \end{cases}$$

The general solution is x=t, y=-t, z=t, where $t\in\mathbb{R}$. In particular, $\mathbf{v}_1=(1,-1,1)$ is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue -1.

Secondly, consider the case $\lambda = 1$. The row reduction yields

$$A - I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$(A-I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \begin{cases} x+z=0, \\ y=0. \end{cases}$$

The general solution is x=-t, y=0, z=t, where $t\in\mathbb{R}$. In particular, $\mathbf{v}_2=(-1,0,1)$ is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue 1.

Finally, consider the case $\lambda = 3$. The row reduction yields

$$A-3I = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$(A-3I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \begin{cases} x-z=0, \\ y-z=0. \end{cases}$$

The general solution is x = t, y = t, z = t, where $t \in \mathbb{R}$. In particular, $\mathbf{v}_3 = (1, 1, 1)$ is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue 3.

Problem 4. Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

(iii) Is the matrix A diagonalizable? Explain.

The matrix A is diagonalizable, i.e., there exists a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 formed by its eigenvectors.

Namely, the vectors $\mathbf{v}_1=(1,-1,1)$, $\mathbf{v}_2=(-1,0,1)$, and $\mathbf{v}_3=(1,1,1)$ are eigenvectors of the matrix A belonging to distinct eigenvalues. Therefore these vectors are linearly independent. It follows that $\mathbf{v}_1,\mathbf{v}_2,\mathbf{v}_3$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

Alternatively, the existence of a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 consisting of eigenvectors of A already follows from the fact that the matrix A has three distinct eigenvalues.

Problem 4. Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

(iv) Find all eigenvalues of the matrix A^2 .

Suppose that \mathbf{v} is an eigenvector of the matrix A associated with an eigenvalue λ , that is, $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$. Then

$$A^2\mathbf{v} = A(A\mathbf{v}) = A(\lambda\mathbf{v}) = \lambda(A\mathbf{v}) = \lambda(\lambda\mathbf{v}) = \lambda^2\mathbf{v}.$$

Therefore \mathbf{v} is also an eigenvector of the matrix A^2 and the associated eigenvalue is λ^2 . We already know that the matrix A has eigenvalues -1, 1, and 3. It follows that A^2 has eigenvalues 1 and 9.

Since a 3×3 matrix can have up to 3 eigenvalues, we need an additional argument to show that 1 and 9 are the only eigenvalues of A^2 . One reason is that the eigenvalue 1 has multiplicity 2.

Bonus Problem 5. Let $L: V \to W$ be a linear mapping of a finite-dimensional vector space V to a vector space W. Show that $\dim \operatorname{Range}(L) + \dim \ker(L) = \dim V$.

The kernel ker(L) is a subspace of V. It is finite-dimensional since the vector space V is.

Take a basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ for the subspace $\ker(L)$, then extend it to a basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m$ for the entire space V.

Claim Vectors $L(\mathbf{u}_1), L(\mathbf{u}_2), \dots, L(\mathbf{u}_m)$ form a basis for the range of L.

Assuming the claim is proved, we obtain $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Range}(L) = m$, $\operatorname{dim} \ker(L) = k$, $\operatorname{dim} V = k + m$.

Claim Vectors $L(\mathbf{u}_1), L(\mathbf{u}_2), \dots, L(\mathbf{u}_m)$ form a basis for the range of L.

Proof (spanning): Any vector $\mathbf{w} \in \operatorname{Range}(L)$ is represented as $\mathbf{w} = L(\mathbf{v})$, where $\mathbf{v} \in V$. Then

$$\mathbf{v} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_k \mathbf{v}_k + \beta_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \beta_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \beta_m \mathbf{u}_m$$

for some $\alpha_i, \beta_i \in \mathbb{R}$. It follows that

$$\mathbf{w} = L(\mathbf{v}) = \alpha_1 L(\mathbf{v}_1) + \dots + \alpha_k L(\mathbf{v}_k) + \beta_1 L(\mathbf{u}_1) + \dots + \beta_m L(\mathbf{u}_m)$$
$$= \beta_1 L(\mathbf{u}_1) + \dots + \beta_m L(\mathbf{u}_m).$$

Note that $L(\mathbf{v}_i) = \mathbf{0}$ since $\mathbf{v}_i \in \ker(L)$.

Thus Range(L) is spanned by the vectors $L(\mathbf{u}_1), \ldots, L(\mathbf{u}_m)$.

Claim Vectors $L(\mathbf{u}_1), L(\mathbf{u}_2), \dots, L(\mathbf{u}_m)$ form a basis for the range of L.

 ${\it Proof (linear\ independence):}\ \ {\it Suppose\ that}$

$$t_1L(\mathbf{u}_1)+t_2L(\mathbf{u}_2)+\cdots+t_mL(\mathbf{u}_m)=\mathbf{0}$$

for some $t_i \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\mathbf{u} = t_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + t_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + t_m \mathbf{u}_m$. Since

$$L(\mathbf{u}) = t_1 L(\mathbf{u}_1) + t_2 L(\mathbf{u}_2) + \cdots + t_m L(\mathbf{u}_m) = \mathbf{0},$$

the vector **u** belongs to the kernel of L. Therefore $\mathbf{u} = s_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + s_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + s_k \mathbf{v}_k$ for some $s_i \in \mathbb{R}$. It follows that

$$t_1\mathbf{u}_1+t_2\mathbf{u}_2+\cdots+t_m\mathbf{u}_m-s_1\mathbf{v}_1-s_2\mathbf{v}_2-\cdots-s_k\mathbf{v}_k=\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{0}.$$

Linear independence of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m$ implies that $t_1 = \dots = t_m = 0$ (as well as $s_1 = \dots = s_k = 0$). Thus the vectors $L(\mathbf{u}_1), L(\mathbf{u}_2), \dots, L(\mathbf{u}_m)$ are linearly independent.