

Example  $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ -6 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \xrightarrow{A} \mathbb{R}^2$$

what does  $A$  do to a combination of eigenvectors?

$$A(\alpha \underline{v}_1 + \beta \underline{v}_2) = A\alpha \underline{v}_1 + A\beta \underline{v}_2 = \alpha \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1 + \beta \lambda_2 \underline{v}_2$$

Q: what is  $A$  in basis  $\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2\}$ ?  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \xrightarrow{A} \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\uparrow T \quad \quad \uparrow T$$

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \xrightarrow{D} \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$T$  change of basis map

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \xrightarrow{T} \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2\}$$

$$\{\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2\}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \mapsto$$

$$a\underline{v}_1 + b\underline{v}_2$$

$\circ A = T D T^{-1} \quad \sim \quad D = T^{-1} A T \quad T = [\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2]$ .

Warning there is not always a basis of eigenvectors.

Example  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  eigenvalues  $0, 0$ .  $A - 0I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  just 4 eigenvectors.

Thm A set of eigenvectors with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Proof spce  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$  with  $A\underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i$

~~suppose dependent~~ induction on number of vectors.

$n=1$  1 non-zero vector always linearly independent.

$n$ : spce ①  $c_1 \underline{v}_1 + \dots + c_k \underline{v}_k = 0$  for ~~fewest~~ can assume all  $c_i \neq 0$  as otherwise in smaller case  
then ②  $c_1 \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1 + \dots + c_k \lambda_k \underline{v}_k = 0$

② -  $\lambda_k$  ①:  $\underset{\neq 0}{c_1} (\lambda_1 - \lambda_k) \underline{v}_1 + \dots + \underset{\neq 0}{c_{k-1}} (\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda_k) \underline{v}_{k-1} = 0 \quad \nexists \text{ works for } n-1 \quad \square$

special case: symmetric matrices.

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Thm The eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are real.

recall complex conjugate  $z = a+bi$  then  $\bar{z} = a-bi$

can take complex conjugate of vectors/matrices.  $\overline{\begin{bmatrix} i \\ -i \end{bmatrix}} = \begin{bmatrix} -i \\ i \end{bmatrix}$ . ck...

$z \in \mathbb{C}$  is real iff  $z = \bar{z}$

Proof spvec  $\underline{v}$  has eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ , so  $A\underline{v} = \lambda\underline{v}$

then  $\underline{v}^T A \underline{v} = \lambda \underbrace{\underline{v}^T \underline{v}}_{\substack{\text{scalar} \\ \text{real}}} = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^2 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

so want to show LHS real:

$$\overline{\underline{v}^T A \underline{v}}^T = (\underbrace{\underline{v}^T}_{\substack{\text{row vector} \\ \text{conjugate}}} \underbrace{A}_{\substack{\text{symmetric} \\ \text{real}}} \underline{v})^T = \underline{v}^T A^T \underline{v} = \underline{v}^T A \underline{v} \text{ as required. } \square$$

Thm The eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix are orthogonal.

Proof let  $A\underline{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1$  consider  $\underline{v}_1^T A \underline{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \underline{v}_1^T \underline{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2$   
 $A\underline{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \underline{v}_2$

$$\underline{v}_1^T A \underline{v}_2 = (A\underline{v}_1)^T \underline{v}_2 = \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2$$

so  $(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) \underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2 = 0 \quad \square$

## §9.2 Diagonalization

Defn A matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable if there is a matrix  $P$  st.  $P^{-1}AP = D$  diagonal.

Thm  $A$  is diagonalizable iff  $A$  has a basis of eigenvectors.

Proof  $\Leftarrow$  change to basis of eigenvectors.

$\Rightarrow$  columns of  $P$  are a basis of eigenvectors.  $\square$

Warning don't always have a basis of eigenvectors.

Fact (Thm Jordan normal form).

give  $A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  there is a basis  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  s.t.  $TAT^{-1}$  is in block

diagonal form  $\begin{bmatrix} \square & & \\ & \square & \\ & & \square \end{bmatrix}$  where each block is  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & & \\ & \lambda_i & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}$

e.g.

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} 1 & & & \\ \hline & 2 & 1 & \\ \hline & & 2 & \\ \hline & & & 2 \\ \hline & & & & 3 & 1 \\ & & & & 3 & 1 \\ & & & & & 3 \end{array}$$

consequences / (useful facts about matrices).

①  $\det(A) =$  product of eigenvalues (with multiplicity).

②  $\text{trace}(A) =$  sum of diagonal elements = sum of eigenvalues (with multiplicity).

often we can find  $J$  without needing to find  $T$ . ( $A = TJT^{-1}$ )

and can use ①, ② to check our answers.

Example

$$A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ -3 & -2 & -2 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

find eigenvalues:  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (1-\lambda) \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & -1 \\ 2 & 3-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1-\lambda)(-\lambda(3-\lambda) - 2) = (1-\lambda)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-1)$$

$$= -(\lambda-1)^2(\lambda-2) \quad 1, 1, 2 \quad \text{so } TAT^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

to tell which one, check  $\text{rank}(A - I)$ .  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rank 2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$