

- last time - invertible matrix.

- inverse $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_n$.

- $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$, $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$, $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$.

- $(A|I_n) \rightarrow (I_n|A^{-1})$

(zero row?), A not invertible.

- adjoint matrix.

- A invertible $(\Leftrightarrow) \det(A) \neq 0$.

(- R, C, ... $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \text{adj}(A)$).

- $AX = B$, A invertible $\Rightarrow X = A^{-1}B$.

- homogeneous system - trivial/nontrivial solution.

- A square, the $AX = 0$ has only the trivial solution.

$\Leftrightarrow A$ invertible.

If we have a system of equations $AX = B$ and A invertible,

we can use Cramer's rule.

For each i , let A_i be the matrix obtained by replacing column i of A with B .

$$\text{Then } x_i = \frac{\det(A_i)}{\det(A)}.$$

e.g. solve $x_1 + 2x_2 = 5$ $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$, $\det(A) = 3$.

$$3x_1 + 9x_2 = 7.$$

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 7 & 9 \end{pmatrix}, \det(A_1) = 31.$$

$$A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix}, \det(A_2) = -8.$$

$$x_1 = \frac{31}{3}, x_2 = -\frac{8}{3}.$$

e.g. solve $x_1 + x_3 = 1$ $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 7.$$

$$\det(A) = 1(-1)^{1+1}\det\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + 1(-1)^{1+3}\det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= 4 + 0 = 4.$$

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 7 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \det(A_1) = 1(-1)^{1+1}\det\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + 1(-1)^{1+3}\det\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 7 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= 4 + (-4) = 0.$$

$$A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 7 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \det(A_2) = 1(-1)^{1+1}\det\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 7 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + 1(-1)^{1+2}\det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + 1(-1)^{1+3}\det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= 8 - (2) + 2 = 8.$$

$A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$, $\det(A_3) = 1(-1)^{1+1}\det\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 2 & 7 \end{pmatrix} + 1(-1)^{1+3}\det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

$$= 4 + 0 = 4.$$

$$x_1 = \frac{0}{4} = 0, x_2 = \frac{8}{4} = 2, x_3 = \frac{4}{4} = 1.$$

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. A vector in \mathbb{R}^n will be regarded as an $n \times 1$ column vector.

We say, that a number λ is an eigenvalue for A

if there is a nonzero vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $Ax = \lambda x$.

We say, that x is an eigenvector corresponding to λ .

If we take all the eigenvectors corresponding to λ , including

the zero vector, we obtain the eigenspace corresponding to λ .

Checking if x is an eigenvector of A is easy:

calculate Ax and see if it is a scalar multiple of x .

e.g. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Are these eigenvectors? (i) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ (ii) $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ (iii) $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$.

(i) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, so it is an eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda = 3$.

(ii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = -1 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\lambda = -1$.

(iii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 11 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ is not an eigenvector.

If λ is an eigenvalue of A , then its eigenspace is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Indeed: $A(0) = 0 = \lambda \cdot 0$, so 0 is in the eigenspace.

$$\text{let } Ax = \lambda x, Ay = \lambda y. \quad A(x+y) = Ax + Ay = \lambda x + \lambda y = \lambda(x+y).$$

$\therefore x+y$ is in the eigenspace.

$$\text{let } Ax = \lambda x, \mu \in \mathbb{R}. \quad \text{Then } A(\mu x) = \mu Ax = \mu \lambda x = \lambda(\mu x).$$

$\therefore \mu x$ is in the eigenspace.

If we have an eigenvalue for A , we would like to describe

its eigenspace. We can find a basis for the eigenspace.

e.g. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Its eigenvalues are 0 and 2.

$$\lambda = 2: \text{ solve } Ax = 2x, \text{ i.e. } Ax - 2x = 0.$$

$$Ax - 2Ix = 0. \quad (A - 2I)x = 0.$$

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

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{swap } \textcircled{1} \text{ and } \textcircled{2}} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{add } \textcircled{1} \text{ to } \textcircled{2}} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right).$$

$$E_{\text{eig}, \lambda=3} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -t \\ t \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}. \quad \text{Basis: } \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\lambda = 3: A - 3I = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \leftrightarrow R_1} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 & 0 & | & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 + R_1} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \div 2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } x_2 = t, x_3 = u, \text{ then } x_1 = t.$$

$$E_{\text{eig}, \lambda=3} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} t \\ t \\ u \end{pmatrix} : t, u \in \mathbb{R} \right\}. \quad \text{Basis: } \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

→ last time - Cramer's rule.

- eigenvalues, eigenvectors, eigenspaces.

$$Ax = \lambda x.$$

- given x , calculate Ax , see if it is a scalar multiple of x .

- given λ : solve $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$

- find a basis for eigenspace.

λ is an eigenvalue for A if and only if

$(A - \lambda I)x = 0$ has a non-trivial solution.

This happens if and only if $A - \lambda I$ is not invertible.

But this ~~can~~ occur if and only if $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

We call $\det(A - \lambda I)$ the characteristic polynomial of A .

We call $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ the characteristic equation.

To find eigenvalues, we solve the characteristic equation.

We then know how to find eigenvectors.

-e₁. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find eigenvalues, eigenvectors.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \det(A - \lambda I) = \det\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 5 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}\right) = \det\begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 5 \\ 5 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (1-\lambda)^2 - 25 = \lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 24 \\ &= (\lambda - 6)(\lambda + 4), \text{ so } \lambda = 6, -4. \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda = 6: A - 6I = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 5 \\ 5 & -5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} -5 & 5 & 0 \\ 5 & -5 & 0 \end{array}\right) \xrightarrow{R_2 + R_1} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} -5 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) \xrightarrow{R_1 \div -5} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right).$$

let $x_1 = t$
 $x_2 = t$. Basis for eigenspace: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.

$$\lambda = -4: A - (-4)I = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 5 \\ 5 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 5 & 5 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 0 \end{array}\right) \xrightarrow{R_2 - R_1} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 5 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) \xrightarrow{R_1 \div 5} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right).$$

let $x_2 = t$
 $x_1 = -t$. Basis: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.

-e₁. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $0 = \det\begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 4 \\ -3 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (1-\lambda)^2 + 12 \geq 12$.
 No real eigenvalues.

-e₁. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \det\begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (1-\lambda)\det\begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} - \det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} + \det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1-\lambda \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (1-\lambda)((1-\lambda)^2 - 1) - (1 - (1-\lambda)) + (\lambda) \\ &= (1-\lambda)(\lambda^2 - 2\lambda) + 2\lambda - 1 + \lambda \end{aligned}$$

$$= (1-\lambda)(\lambda^2 - 2\lambda) + 2\lambda - 1 + \lambda$$

$$= -\lambda^3 + 3\lambda^2 = \lambda^2(-\lambda + 3).$$

$$\lambda = 0, 3.$$

$$\lambda = 0: A - 0I = A$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{add } -1R_1 \text{ to } R_2} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\text{Let } x_2 = t, x_3 = u. \text{ Then } x_1 = -t - u. \text{ Basis} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

$$\lambda = 3: A - 3I = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{swap } R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{add } 2R_1 \text{ to } R_2} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{add } -R_1 \text{ to } R_3} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{mult } R_2 \text{ by } -1/3}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 & 0 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{add } -3R_2 \text{ to } R_3} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \text{ Let } x_3 = t. \text{ Basis} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

If A is upper/lower triangular, the eigenvalues are the diagonal entries.

$$\text{e.g. } A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{pmatrix}. \quad 0 = \det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 3-\lambda & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 7-\lambda \end{pmatrix} \\ = (3-\lambda)(2-\lambda)(7-\lambda).$$

Let A be a square matrix, n a positive integer. Then

$$A^n = \underbrace{A A \dots A}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

$$\text{e.g. } A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 15 & 22 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$A^m A^n = A^{m+n}$$

$$(A^m)^n = A^{mn}$$

If we have a polynomial $f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots + c_n x^n$

$$\text{Then } f(A) = c_0 I + c_1 A + c_2 A^2 + \dots + c_n A^n.$$

CAYLEY-HAMILTON THM: A satisfies its characteristic equation.

e.g. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, char poly: $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 24$.

$$\rightarrow A^2 - 2A - 24I = 0.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 26 & 50 \\ 50 & 26 \end{pmatrix} - 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 5 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - 24 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We can use this to calculate higher powers of matrices.

If A is $n \times n$ then its characteristic poly has degree n .

We can write A^n as a linear combination of $I, A, A^2, \dots, A^{n-1}$.

(e.g. above $A^2 = 2A + 24I$).

This allows us to write all powers of A in terms of

$$I, A, A^2, \dots, A^{n-1}.$$

$$\text{(e.g., we have } A^2 = 2A + 24I$$

$$A^3 = A^2 A = 2A^2 + 24A$$

$$= 2(2A + 24I) + 24A$$

$$= 28A + 48I.)$$

$$\text{Let } A^n = c_0 I + c_1 A + c_2 A^2 + \dots + c_{n-1} A^{n-1}$$

Then for every eigenvalue λ of A ,

$$\lambda^n = c_0 + c_1 \lambda + c_2 \lambda^2 + \dots + c_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1}.$$

If we have n different eigenvalues, we can write

a system of n equations in n unknowns, and solve

for c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1} .

- Cayley-Hamilton characteristic polynomial $\det(A - \lambda I)$

- " equation $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

- eigenvalues satisfy the equation

- A triangular - eigenvalues are diagonal entries.

- A^m , polynomial in terms of A .

- Cayley-Hamilton theorem.

- if A is $n \times n$, $A^m = c_0 I + c_1 A + c_2 A^2 + \dots + c_{n-1} A^{n-1}$.

- the eigenvalues satisfy the same equation.

- ex. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find A^{10} .

A is 2×2 , $A^{10} = c_0 I + c_1 A$.

As A is upper triangular, the eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2$.

$$c_0 + c_1 \lambda = \lambda^{10}$$

$$c_0 + c_1 = 1$$

$$c_0 + 2c_1 = 1024$$

$$\underline{c_1 = 1023, c_0 = -1022.}$$

$$A^{10} = -1022 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + 1023 \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ex. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, find A^6 .

~~2222~~ $c_0 I + c_1 A = A^6$.

$$0 = \det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (1-\lambda)^2 - 4 = \lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3$$

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

$$\lambda = 3, -1.$$

$$c_0 + c_1 \lambda = \lambda^6$$

$$c_0 + 3c_1 = 729$$

$$\frac{c_0 - c_1 = 1}{4c_1 = 728, c_1 = 182, c_0 = 183.}$$

$$A^6 = 183I + 182A$$

A matrix A is symmetric if $A = A^T$.

- ex. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 5 & -7 \end{pmatrix}$.

Thm: If A is a symmetric matrix, all of its eigenvalues are real!

Thm: If A is symmetric, and it has two different eigenvalues

λ and μ , then if $Ax = \lambda x$ and $Ay = \mu y$, then

x and y are orthogonal.

$$PF: y^T A x = y^T \lambda x = \lambda y^T x = \lambda (x \cdot y). \quad (3 \ 5 \ 7) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$y^T A x = y^T A^T x = (A y)^T x = (\mu y)^T x = \mu (x \cdot y).$$

$$\lambda (x \cdot y) = \mu (x \cdot y). \text{ So } x \cdot y = 0 \text{ (yay)} \text{ or } \lambda = \mu.$$

$$\text{e.g. } A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Let } x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. A x = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 3x.$$

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. A y = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = (-1)y.$$

We see that $x \cdot y = 0$.

An $n \times n$ matrix A is orthogonal if it is invertible, and $A^{-1} = A^T$.

$$\text{e.g. } A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A A^T = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thm: An $n \times n$ matrix A is orthogonal if and only if its columns form an orthonormal set.

Suppose $A = (x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n)$. Then

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T \\ x_2^T \\ \vdots \\ x_n^T \end{pmatrix} (x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T x_1 & x_1^T x_2 & \dots \\ x_2^T x_1 & x_2^T x_2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{For } i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}, \quad x_i^T x_j = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

$$x_i \cdot x_j.$$

Let A be a square matrix. Then A is said to be diagonalizable if there is an invertible matrix P so that

$$P^{-1}AP = D, \text{ for some diagonal matrix } D.$$

Thm: If A is $n \times n$, then A is diagonalizable \Leftrightarrow it has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

Suppose we have $Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i$. Let $P = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$.

$$AP = (Ax_1, Ax_2, \dots, Ax_n) = (\lambda_1 x_1, \lambda_2 x_2, \dots, \lambda_n x_n).$$

$$\text{Let } D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\cancel{PD} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} = (\lambda_1 x_1, \dots, \lambda_n x_n).$$

$AP = PD$. Now, P is invertible if and only if its columns are linearly independent.

Given an $n \times n$ matrix A , we find the eigenvalues, and a basis

for each eigenspace. If n vectors were obtained, A is diagonalizable.

Let P = the matrix with the columns equal to these basis vectors.

$$\text{Then } P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ where the } \lambda_i \text{ are the eigenvalues in}$$

the order in which they were used.

If we get fewer than n basis vectors, A is not diagonalizable.
 CONVERSE: If A is $n \times n$ and has n different eigenvalues,
 it is diagonalizable.

- ex. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. $0 = \det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (1-\lambda)^2 - 4$
 $= \lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3$

$\lambda = 3, -1$. $= (\lambda - 3)(\lambda + 1)$

$\lambda = 3: A - 3I = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{add } \odot} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\times -1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Let $x_2 = t$, $x_1 = t$. Basis: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.

$\lambda = -1: A - (-1)I = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{add } \odot} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\times 1/2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & | & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Let $x_2 = t$, $x_1 = -t$. Basis: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.

$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $P^{-1}AP = D = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$.