EXAMPLE 3 Let $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{c}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{c}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$, and consider the bases for $\mathbb{R}^2$ given by $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$.

a. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{C}$ to $\mathcal{B}$.

b. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{B}$ to $\mathcal{C}$.

SOLUTION

a. Notice that $\underset{\mathcal{B}\leftarrow\mathcal{C}}{P}$ is needed rather than $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$, and compute

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \vdots & \mathbf{c}_1 & \mathbf{c}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \left[\begin{array}{cc:cc} 1 & -2 & -7 & -5 \\ -3 & 4 & 9 & 7 \end{array}\right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{cc:cc} 1 & 0 & 5 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & 4 \end{array}\right]$$

So

$$\underset{\mathcal{B}\leftarrow\mathcal{C}}{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 6 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

b. By part (a) and property (6) above (with $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ interchanged),

$$\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P} = (\underset{\mathcal{B}\leftarrow\mathcal{C}}{P})^{-1} = \frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -6 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3/2 \\ -3 & 5/2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \blacksquare$$

Another description of the change-of-coordinates matrix $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ uses the change-of-coordinate matrices $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ and $P_{\mathcal{C}}$ that convert $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates and $\mathcal{C}$-coordinates, respectively, into standard coordinates. Recall that for each $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$,

$$P_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{x}, \quad P_{\mathcal{C}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{C}} = \mathbf{x}, \quad \text{and} \quad [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{C}} = P_{\mathcal{C}}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$$

Thus

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{C}} = P_{\mathcal{C}}^{-1}\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{C}}^{-1}P_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

In $\mathbb{R}^n$, the change-of-coordinates matrix $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ may be computed as $P_{\mathcal{C}}^{-1}P_{\mathcal{B}}$. Actually, for matrices larger than 2×2, an algorithm analogous to the one in Example 3 is faster than computing $P_{\mathcal{C}}^{-1}$ and then $P_{\mathcal{C}}^{-1}P_{\mathcal{B}}$. See Exercise 12 in Section 2.2.

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathbf{f}_1, \mathbf{f}_2\}$ and $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathbf{g}_1, \mathbf{g}_2\}$ be bases for a vector space V, and let P be a matrix whose columns are $[\,\mathbf{f}_1\,]_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $[\,\mathbf{f}_2\,]_{\mathcal{G}}$. Which of the following equations is satisfied by P for all $\mathbf{v}$ in V?

   (i) $[\,\mathbf{v}\,]_{\mathcal{F}} = P[\,\mathbf{v}\,]_{\mathcal{G}}$ (ii) $[\,\mathbf{v}\,]_{\mathcal{G}} = P[\,\mathbf{v}\,]_{\mathcal{F}}$

2. Let $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ be as in Example 1. Use the results of that example to find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{C}$ to $\mathcal{B}$.

4.7 EXERCISES

1. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$ be bases for a vector space V, and suppose $\mathbf{b}_1 = 6\mathbf{c}_1 - 2\mathbf{c}_2$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = 9\mathbf{c}_1 - 4\mathbf{c}_2$.
   a. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{B}$ to $\mathcal{C}$.
   b. Find $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{C}}$ for $\mathbf{x} = -3\mathbf{b}_1 + 2\mathbf{b}_2$. Use part (a).

2. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$ be bases for a vector space V, and suppose $\mathbf{b}_1 = -2\mathbf{c}_1 + 4\mathbf{c}_2$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = 3\mathbf{c}_1 - 6\mathbf{c}_2$.
   a. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{B}$ to $\mathcal{C}$.
   b. Find $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{C}}$ for $\mathbf{x} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + 3\mathbf{b}_2$.

3. Let $\mathcal{U} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2\}$ and $\mathcal{W} = \{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2\}$ be bases for V, and let P be a matrix whose columns are $[\,\mathbf{u}_1\,]_{\mathcal{W}}$ and $[\mathbf{u}_2]_{\mathcal{W}}$. Which of the following equations is satisfied by P for all $\mathbf{x}$ in V?
   (i) $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{U}} = P[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{W}}$ (ii) $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{W}} = P[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{U}}$

4. Let $\mathcal{A} = \{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_3\}$ and $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{d}_1, \mathbf{d}_2, \mathbf{d}_3\}$ be bases for V, and let $P = [\,[\mathbf{d}_1]_{\mathcal{A}} \quad [\mathbf{d}_2]_{\mathcal{A}} \quad [\mathbf{d}_3]_{\mathcal{A}}\,]$. Which of the following equations is satisfied by P for all $\mathbf{x}$ in V?
   (i) $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{A}} = P[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{D}}$ (ii) $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{D}} = P[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{A}}$

5. Let $\mathcal{A} = \{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_3\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3\}$ be bases for a vector space V, and suppose $\mathbf{a}_1 = 4\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_2$, $\mathbf{a}_2 = -\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2 + \mathbf{b}_3$, and $\mathbf{a}_3 = \mathbf{b}_2 - 2\mathbf{b}_3$.
   a. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{A}$ to $\mathcal{B}$.
   b. Find $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ for $\mathbf{x} = 3\mathbf{a}_1 + 4\mathbf{a}_2 + \mathbf{a}_3$.

6. Let $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{d}_1, \mathbf{d}_2, \mathbf{d}_3\}$ and $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathbf{f}_1, \mathbf{f}_2, \mathbf{f}_3\}$ be bases for a vector space V, and suppose $\mathbf{f}_1 = 2\mathbf{d}_1 - \mathbf{d}_2 + \mathbf{d}_3$, $\mathbf{f}_2 = 3\mathbf{d}_2 + \mathbf{d}_3$, and $\mathbf{f}_3 = -3\mathbf{d}_1 + 2\mathbf{d}_3$.
   a. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{D}$.
   b. Find $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{D}}$ for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}_1 - 2\mathbf{f}_2 + 2\mathbf{f}_3$.

In Exercises 7–10, let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$ be bases for $\mathbb{R}^2$. In each exercise, find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{B}$ to $\mathcal{C}$ and the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{C}$ to $\mathcal{B}$.

7. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

8. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

9. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

10. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -12 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{c}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 11 and 12, $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ are bases for a vector space V. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

11. a. The columns of the change-of-coordinates matrix $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ are $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vectors of the vectors in $\mathcal{C}$.
    b. If $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathcal{C}$ is the *standard* basis for V, then $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ is the same as the change-of-coordinates matrix $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ introduced in Section 4.4.

12. a. The columns of $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ are linearly independent.
    b. If $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$, and $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$, then row reduction of $[\,\mathbf{c}_1 \quad \mathbf{c}_2 \quad \mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2\,]$ to $[\,I \quad P\,]$ produces a matrix P that satisfies $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = P[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{C}}$ for all $\mathbf{x}$ in V.

13. In $\mathbb{P}_2$, find the change-of-coordinates matrix from the basis $\mathcal{B} = \{1 - 2t + t^2, 3 - 5t + 4t^2, 2t + 3t^2\}$ to the standard basis $\mathcal{C} = \{1, t, t^2\}$. Then find the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector for $-1 + 2t$.

14. In $\mathbb{P}_2$, find the change-of-coordinates matrix from the basis $\mathcal{B} = \{1 - 3t^2, 2 + t - 5t^2, 1 + 2t\}$ to the standard basis. Then write t^2 as a linear combination of the polynomials in $\mathcal{B}$.

Exercises 15 and 16 provide a proof of Theorem 15. Fill in a justification for each step.

15. Given $\mathbf{v}$ in V, there exist scalars $x_1, \ldots, x_n$, such that

$$\mathbf{v} = x_1\mathbf{b}_1 + x_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

because (a) _____. Apply the coordinate mapping determined by the basis $\mathcal{C}$, and obtain

$$[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{C}} = x_1[\mathbf{b}_1]_{\mathcal{C}} + x_2[\mathbf{b}_2]_{\mathcal{C}} + \cdots + x_n[\mathbf{b}_n]_{\mathcal{C}}$$

because (b) _____. This equation may be written in the form

$$[\,\mathbf{v}\,]_{\mathcal{C}} = \big[\,[\,\mathbf{b}_1\,]_{\mathcal{C}} \quad [\,\mathbf{b}_2\,]_{\mathcal{C}} \quad \cdots \quad [\,\mathbf{b}_n\,]_{\mathcal{C}}\,\big] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \tag{8}$$

by the definition of (c) _____. This shows that the matrix $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ shown in (5) satisfies $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{C}} = \underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ for each $\mathbf{v}$ in V, because the vector on the right side of (8) is (d) _____.

16. Suppose Q is any matrix such that

$$[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{C}} = Q[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad \text{for each } \mathbf{v} \text{ in } V \tag{9}$$

Set $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{b}_1$ in (9). Then (9) shows that $[\mathbf{b}_1]_{\mathcal{C}}$ is the first column of Q because (a) _____. Similarly, for $k = 2, \ldots, n$, the kth column of Q is (b) _____ because (c) _____. This shows that the matrix $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ defined by (5) in Theorem 15 is the only matrix that satisfies condition (4).

17. **[M]** Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_0, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_6\}$ and $C = \{\mathbf{y}_0, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_6\}$, where $\mathbf{x}_k$ is the function $\cos^k t$ and $\mathbf{y}_k$ is the function $\cos kt$. Exercise 34 in Section 4.5 showed that both $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ are bases for the vector space $H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{x}_0, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_6\}$.
    a. Set $P = \big[\,[\,\mathbf{y}_0\,]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad \cdots \quad [\,\mathbf{y}_6\,]_{\mathcal{B}}\,\big]$, and calculate P^{-1}.
    b. Explain why the columns of P^{-1} are the $\mathcal{C}$-coordinate vectors of $\mathbf{x}_0, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_6$. Then use these coordinate vectors to write trigonometric identities that express powers of $\cos t$ in terms of the functions in $\mathcal{C}$.

    See the *Study Guide*.

18. **[M]** (*Calculus required*)[3] Recall from calculus that integrals such as

$$\int (5\cos^3 t - 6\cos^4 t + 5\cos^5 t - 12\cos^6 t)\,dt \tag{10}$$

are tedious to compute. (The usual method is to apply integration by parts repeatedly and use the half-angle formula.) Use the matrix P or P^{-1} from Exercise 17 to transform (10); then compute the integral.

[3] The idea for Exercises 17 and 18 and five related exercises in earlier sections came from a paper by Jack W. Rogers, Jr., of Auburn University, presented at a meeting of the International Linear Algebra Society, August 1995. See "Applications of Linear Algebra in Calculus," *American Mathematical Monthly* **104** (1), 1997.

19. [**M**] Let

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ -3 & -5 & 0 \\ 4 & 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

a. Find a basis $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3\}$ for $\mathbb{R}^3$ such that P is the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3\}$ to the basis $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$. [*Hint:* What do the columns of $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$ represent?]

b. Find a basis $\{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \mathbf{w}_3\}$ for $\mathbb{R}^3$ such that P is the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ to $\{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \mathbf{w}_3\}$.

20. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$, $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$, and $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{d}_1, \mathbf{d}_2\}$ be bases for a two-dimensional vector space.

a. Write an equation that relates the matrices $\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$, $\underset{\mathcal{D}\leftarrow\mathcal{C}}{P}$, and $\underset{\mathcal{D}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P}$. Justify your result.

b. [**M**] Use a matrix program either to help you find the equation or to check the equation you write. Work with three bases for $\mathbb{R}^2$. (See Exercises 7–10.)

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Since the columns of P are $\mathcal{G}$-coordinate vectors, a vector of the form $P\mathbf{x}$ must be a $\mathcal{G}$-coordinate vector. Thus P satisfies equation (ii).
2. The coordinate vectors found in Example 1 show that

$$\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P} = \begin{bmatrix} [\mathbf{b}_1]_{\mathcal{C}} & [\mathbf{b}_2]_{\mathcal{C}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$\underset{\mathcal{B}\leftarrow\mathcal{C}}{P} = (\underset{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}{P})^{-1} = \frac{1}{10}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} .1 & .6 \\ -.1 & .4 \end{bmatrix}$$

4.8 APPLICATIONS TO DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS

Now that powerful computers are widely available, more and more scientific and engineering problems are being treated in a way that uses discrete, or digital, data rather than continuous data. Difference equations are often the appropriate tool to analyze such data. Even when a differential equation is used to model a continuous process, a numerical solution is often produced from a related difference equation.

This section highlights some fundamental properties of linear difference equations that are best explained using linear algebra.

Discrete-Time Signals

The vector space $\mathbb{S}$ of discrete-time signals was introduced in Section 4.1. A **signal** in $\mathbb{S}$ is a function defined only on the integers and is visualized as a sequence of numbers, say, $\{y_k\}$. Figure 1 shows three typical signals whose general terms are $(.7)^k$, 1^k, and $(-1)^k$, respectively.

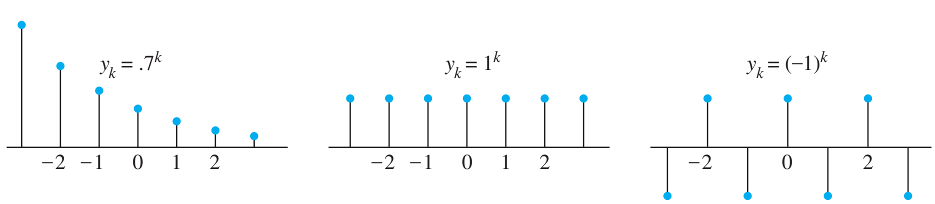


FIGURE 1 Three signals in $\mathbb{S}$.

Eigenvectors and Difference Equations

This section concludes by showing how to construct solutions of the first-order difference equation discussed in the chapter introductory example:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = A\mathbf{x}_k \quad (k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{8}$$

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then (8) is a *recursive* description of a sequence $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. A **solution** of (8) is an explicit description of $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$ whose formula for each $\mathbf{x}_k$ does not depend directly on A or on the preceding terms in the sequence other than the initial term $\mathbf{x}_0$.

The simplest way to build a solution of (8) is to take an eigenvector $\mathbf{x}_0$ and its corresponding eigenvalue λ and let

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \lambda^k \mathbf{x}_0 \quad (k = 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{9}$$

This sequence is a solution because

$$A\mathbf{x}_k = A(\lambda^k \mathbf{x}_0) = \lambda^k (A\mathbf{x}_0) = \lambda^k (\lambda \mathbf{x}_0) = \lambda^{k+1}\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}_{k+1}$$

Linear combinations of solutions in the form of equation (9) are solutions, too! See Exercise 33.

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Is 5 an eigenvalue of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$?
2. If $\mathbf{x}$ is an eigenvector of A corresponding to λ, what is $A^3\mathbf{x}$?
3. Suppose that $\mathbf{b}_1$ and $\mathbf{b}_2$ are eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2, respectively, and suppose that $\mathbf{b}_3$ and $\mathbf{b}_4$ are linearly independent eigenvectors corresponding to a third distinct eigenvalue λ_3. Does it necessarily follow that $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_4\}$ is a linearly independent set? [*Hint*: Consider the equation $c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + c_2\mathbf{b}_2 + (c_3\mathbf{b}_3 + c_4\mathbf{b}_4) = \mathbf{0}$.]

5.1 EXERCISES

1. Is $\lambda = 2$ an eigenvalue of $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$? Why or why not?
2. Is $\lambda = -3$ an eigenvalue of $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$? Why or why not?
3. Is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ an eigenvector of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 6 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$? If so, find the eigenvalue.
4. Is $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ an eigenvector of $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$? If so, find the eigenvalue.
5. Is $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ an eigenvector of $\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 3 & 3 \\ 2 & -3 & -2 \\ -1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$? If so, find the eigenvalue.
6. Is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ an eigenvector of $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 2 & 7 \\ 5 & 6 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$? If so, find the eigenvalue.
7. Is $\lambda = 4$ an eigenvalue of $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$? If so, find one corresponding eigenvector.
8. Is $\lambda = 1$ an eigenvalue of $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 \\ -1 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$? If so, find one corresponding eigenvector.

In Exercises 9–16, find a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to each listed eigenvalue.

9. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\lambda = 1, 3$

10. $A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda = -5$

11. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda = -1, 7$

12. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda = 3, 7$

13. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda = 1, 2, 3$

14. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & -1 \\ 3 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda = 3$

15. $A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -3 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda = -5$

16. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & -2 & -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda = 4$

Find the eigenvalues of the matrices in Exercises 17 and 18.

17. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ **18.** $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

19. For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, find one eigenvalue, with no calculation. Justify your answer.

20. Without calculation, find one eigenvalue and two linearly independent eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Justify your answer.

In Exercises 21 and 22, A is an $n \times n$ matrix. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer

.

21. a. If $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ for some vector $\mathbf{x}$, then λ is an eigenvalue of A.

b. A matrix A is not invertible if and only if 0 is an eigenvalue of A.

c. A number c is an eigenvalue of A if and only if the equation $(A - cI)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has a nontrivial solution.

d. Finding an eigenvector of A may be difficult, but checking whether a given vector is in fact an eigenvector is easy.

e. To find the eigenvalues of A, reduce A to echelon form.

22. a. If $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ for some scalar λ, then $\mathbf{x}$ is an eigenvector of A.

b. If $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are linearly independent eigenvectors, then they correspond to distinct eigenvalues.

c. A steady-state vector for a stochastic matrix is actually an eigenvector.

d. The eigenvalues of a matrix are on its main diagonal.

e. An eigenspace of A is a null space of a certain matrix.

23. Explain why a 2×2 matrix can have at most two distinct eigenvalues. Explain why an $n \times n$ matrix can have at most n distinct eigenvalues.

24. Construct an example of a 2×2 matrix with only one distinct eigenvalue.

25. Let λ be an eigenvalue of an invertible matrix A. Show that λ^{-1} is an eigenvalue of A^{-1}. [*Hint:* Suppose a nonzero $\mathbf{x}$ satisfies $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$.]

26. Show that if A^2 is the zero matrix, then the only eigenvalue of A is 0.

27. Show that λ is an eigenvalue of A if and only if λ is an eigenvalue of A^T. [*Hint:* Find out how $A - \lambda I$ and $A^T - \lambda I$ are related.]

28. Use Exercise 27 to complete the proof of Theorem 1 for the case in which A is lower triangular.

29. Consider an $n \times n$ matrix A with the property that the row sums all equal the same number s. Show that s is an eigenvalue of A. [*Hint:* Find an eigenvector.]

30. Consider an $n \times n$ matrix A with the property that the column sums all equal the same number s. Show that s is an eigenvalue of A. [*Hint:* Use Exercises 27 and 29.]

In Exercises 31 and 32, let A be the matrix of the linear transformation T. Without writing A, find an eigenvalue of A and describe the eigenspace.

31. T is the transformation on $\mathbb{R}^2$ that reflects points across some line through the origin.

32. T is the transformation on $\mathbb{R}^3$ that rotates points about some line through the origin.

33. Let $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ be eigenvectors of a matrix A, with corresponding eigenvalues λ and μ, and let c_1 and c_2 be scalars. Define

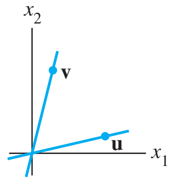
$$\mathbf{x}_k = c_1\lambda^k\mathbf{u} + c_2\mu^k\mathbf{v} \quad (k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots)$$

a. What is $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$, by definition?

b. Compute $A\mathbf{x}_k$ from the formula for $\mathbf{x}_k$, and show that $A\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k+1}$. This calculation will prove that the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$ defined above satisfies the difference equation $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = A\mathbf{x}_k$ $(k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots)$.

34. Describe how you might try to build a solution of a difference equation $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = A\mathbf{x}_k$ $(k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots)$ if you were given the initial $\mathbf{x}_0$ and this vector did not happen to be an eigenvector of A. [*Hint:* How might you relate $\mathbf{x}_0$ to eigenvectors of A?]

35. Let $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ be the vectors shown in the figure, and suppose $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are eigenvectors of a 2×2 matrix A that correspond to eigenvalues 2 and 3, respectively. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be the linear transformation given by $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ for each $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$, and let $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$. Make a copy of the figure, and on the same coordinate system, carefully plot the vectors $T(\mathbf{u})$, $T(\mathbf{v})$, and $T(\mathbf{w})$.



36. Repeat Exercise 35, assuming $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are eigenvectors of A that correspond to eigenvalues -1 and 3, respectively.

[**M**] In Exercises 37–40, use a matrix program to find the eigenvalues of the matrix. Then use the method of Example 4 with a row reduction routine to produce a basis for each eigenspace.

37. $\begin{bmatrix} 12 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 11 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

38. $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 2 & -4 \\ 7 & -4 & 2 & -4 \\ 4 & -4 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

39. $\begin{bmatrix} 12 & -90 & 30 & 30 & 30 \\ 8 & -49 & 15 & 15 & 15 \\ 16 & -52 & 12 & 0 & 20 \\ 0 & -30 & 10 & 22 & 10 \\ 8 & -41 & 15 & 15 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

40. $\begin{bmatrix} -23 & 57 & -9 & -15 & -59 \\ -10 & 12 & -10 & 2 & -22 \\ 11 & 5 & -3 & -19 & -15 \\ -27 & 31 & -27 & 25 & -37 \\ -5 & -15 & -5 & 1 & 31 \end{bmatrix}$

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. The number 5 is an eigenvalue of A if and only if the equation $(A - 5I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has a nontrivial solution. Form

$$A - 5I = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & -5 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and row reduce the augmented matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -5 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

At this point, it is clear that the homogeneous system has no free variables. Thus $A - 5I$ is an invertible matrix, which means that 5 is *not* an eigenvalue of A.

2. If $\mathbf{x}$ is an eigenvector of A corresponding to λ, then $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ and so

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

Again, $A^3\mathbf{x} = A(A^2\mathbf{x}) = A(\lambda^2\mathbf{x}) = \lambda^2 A\mathbf{x} = \lambda^3\mathbf{x}$. The general pattern, $A^k\mathbf{x} = \lambda^k\mathbf{x}$, is proved by induction.

3. Yes. Suppose $c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + c_2\mathbf{b}_2 + c_3\mathbf{b}_3 + c_4\mathbf{b}_4 = \mathbf{0}$. Since any linear combination of eigenvectors from the same eigenvalue is again an eigenvector for that eigenvalue, $c_3\mathbf{b}_3 + c_4\mathbf{b}_4$ is an eigenvector for λ_3. By Theorem 2, the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1$, $\mathbf{b}_2$, and $c_3\mathbf{b}_3 + c_4\mathbf{b}_4$ are linearly independent, so

$$c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + c_2\mathbf{b}_2 + (c_3\mathbf{b}_3 + c_4\mathbf{b}_4) = \mathbf{0}$$

implies $c_1 = c_2 = 0$. But then, c_3 and c_4 must also be zero since $\mathbf{b}_3$ and $\mathbf{b}_4$ are linearly independent. Hence all the coefficients in the original equation must be zero, and the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1$, $\mathbf{b}_2$, $\mathbf{b}_3$, and $\mathbf{b}_4$ are linearly independent.

5.2 THE CHARACTERISTIC EQUATION

Useful information about the eigenvalues of a square matrix A is encoded in a special scalar equation called the characteristic equation of A. A simple example will lead to the general case.