

# Change of Basis

Some problems are easier to work in a different basis.

→ We need to talk about how to change between bases.

Ex. Consider two bases  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$  such that  $\mathbf{b}_1 = 4\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2$  and  $\mathbf{b}_2 = -6\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2$ . Suppose  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , find  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{C}}$ .

We can notice that  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{C}}$  was equal to the product of a matrix and  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ .

Further, we notice that the columns of the matrix were the  $\mathcal{C}$ -coordinates of the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$

$$P_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}} = [[\mathbf{b}_1]_{\mathcal{C}} \quad [\mathbf{b}_2]_{\mathcal{C}} \quad \cdots \quad [\mathbf{b}_n]_{\mathcal{C}}]$$

This is called the change-of-coordinates matrix from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{C}$

→ To change from  $\mathcal{C}$  to  $\mathcal{B}$ , we can use the inverse

$$P_{\mathcal{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}} = \left( P_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}} \right)^{-1}$$

In general, we can find the change-of-coordinates matrix by using

$$[P_{\mathcal{B}} \quad P_{\mathcal{C}}] \sim [I \quad P_{\mathcal{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}}]$$

Ex. Let  $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{c}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{c}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$   
be the vectors of bases  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$ . Find  $P_{\mathcal{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}}$  and  $P_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}}$

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Def. Let  $A$  be a square matrix. A number  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if there is a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{x}$  such that

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$\mathbf{x}$  is called an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ .

Ex. Show that  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is an eigenvector of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -3 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 \\ -2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Ex. Show that  $\lambda = 7$  is an eigenvalue of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

In the last example, we solved the equation  $(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

→ This is the null space of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$

→ This is a subspace which we call the eigenspace of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$ .



Ex. An eigenvalue of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$  is  $\lambda = 2$ . Find a basis for the corresponding eigenspace.

Thm. If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$  are eigenvectors that correspond to distinct eigenvalues, then the set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$  is linearly independent.

→ This fact will be useful later.

Ex. Show that  $\lambda = 3$  is an eigenvalue of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

The eigenvalues of a triangular matrix are the entries on the main diagonal.

- Note that  $\lambda = 0$  is also an eigenvalue in the previous example
- When 0 is an eigenvalue, this means that  $A\mathbf{x} = 0\mathbf{x}$ , or  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has a nontrivial solution
- This means that  $A$  is not invertible

### Thm. Invertible Matrix Theorem

Let  $A$  be  $n \times n$ . The following are equivalent:

- i.  $A$  is invertible
- ii.  $A$  is row equivalent to  $I$ .
- iii.  $A$  has  $n$  pivot positions (one in each row and column).
- iv. The equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution.
- v. The columns of  $A$  are linearly independent.
- vi. The linear transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$  is one-to-one.
- vii. The equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique solution for all  $\mathbf{b}$ .
- viii. The columns of  $A$  span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- ix. The linear transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^n$  onto  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- x. The determinant of  $A$  is not zero
- xi.  $\text{Col } A = \mathbb{R}^n$
- xii.  $\text{Row } A = \mathbb{R}^n$
- xiii.  $\text{Nul } A$  is the zero subspace
- xiv. The number 0 is not an eigenvalue of  $A$

For more complicated matrices  $A$ , we need a process to find eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

$$\rightarrow (A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

$\rightarrow$  By the Invertible Matrix Theorem, this has a nontrivial solution only when  $(A - \lambda I)$  is not invertible

$\rightarrow$  This means that  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$\rightarrow$  The equation  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$  is called the characteristic equation of  $A$ .

Ex. Find the eigenvalues of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

Ex. Find the eigenvalues and bases for the corresponding

eigenspaces of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$





When  $A$  is  $n \times n$ , the characteristic equation is degree  $n$  and is much harder to solve. To make life easier, let's review some properties of determinants:

- Let  $U$  be an echelon form of  $A$  obtained by replacements and interchanges (no scaling), and let  $r$  be the number of interchanges, then

$$\det A = \begin{cases} (-1)^r \det U & \text{when } A \text{ is invertible} \\ 0 & \text{when } A \text{ is not invertible} \end{cases}$$

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- $\det AB = (\det A)(\det B)$
- $\det (A^T) = \det A$
- If  $A$  is triangular,  $\det A$  is the product of the entries on the main diagonal
- Row replacement doesn't change the determinant
- Row interchange changes the sign of the determinant
- Row scaling also scales the determinant by the same factor

Ex. Find the determinant of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Ex. Find the characteristic equation of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & -8 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

We say that  $\lambda = 3$  is an eigenvalue of multiplicity 2.

For this class, we will only focus on real valued eigenvalues.

- It should be noted, though, that eigenvalues are solutions to  $n^{\text{th}}$  degree polynomial equations, and so they can be complex

Also, in this class we will only be solving characteristic equations that are quadratic.

Def. Two matrices  $A$  and  $B$  are similar if there is some matrix  $P$  such that  $A = PBP^{-1}$

We say that the transformation  $A \mapsto PAP^{-1}$  is called a similarity transformation.

Thm. If two matrices are similar, then they have the same characteristic equation and, therefore, the same eigenvalues with the same multiplicities.

→ Let's prove it.