

1. if λ is an eigenvalue of A then consider the matrix $A - \lambda I$.

$$\text{also consider } (A - \lambda I)^T = A^T - (\lambda I)^T = A^T - \lambda I^T = A^T - \lambda I$$

Since $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ and $\det A^T = \det A$ this means that

$\det(A^T - \lambda I) = 0$ so λ is also an eigenvalue of A^T .

2. If 0 is an eigenvalue of A then the equation $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$

reduces to $A\bar{x} = 0$. This means that A has a Nullspace w/ non-zero dimension and so it is not invertible. By contrast

if 0 is not an eigenvalue of A then there is similarity transformation of which the matrix is triangular and all entries on the diagonal are non-zero. Such a matrix can be reduced through row operations to the identity and so the matrix is invertible. By the same reasoning, the matrix will have a non-zero determinant in triangular form if the entries on the diagonal are non-zero, and since we know the similarity transformation preserves eigenvalues, we know that the matrix is invertible since a triangular matrix w/ no zeros on the diagonal can be row reduced to the identity.

If we know that a matrix is invertible, by contrast, then we know the equation $A\bar{x} = 0$ has only the trivial solution. Since the dimension of the nullspace is 0 , the matrix cannot have 0 as an eigenvalue since that would imply the nullspace dimension was non-zero. If A is invertible, there is a basis under which A is diagonal and so the determinant will be the product of the diagonal entries. If A is invertible, these diagonal entries can be scaled to reduce to the identity, but the determinant is

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non-zero, and so $\det A$ must also be non-zero.

3. if A & B are similar then $A = PBP^{-1}$. taking the determinant we have $\det A = \det(PBP^{-1}) = \det P \det B \det P^{-1}$
 $= \det P \cdot \det P^{-1} \det B = \det P \cdot \frac{1}{\det P} \det B = \det B$.

Therefore $\det A = \det B$. If A & B have the same determinant they must have the same characteristic equation, and so therefore have the same polynomial. if $A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$ then $PBP^{-1}\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$,
 $\Rightarrow P^{-1}PBP^{-1}\vec{x} = P^{-1}\lambda\vec{x} \Rightarrow B[P^{-1}\vec{x}] = \lambda[P^{-1}\vec{x}]$ $P^{-1}\vec{x}$ are the eigenvectors of B , call them $\hat{\vec{x}}$ and so we have $B\hat{\vec{x}} = \lambda\hat{\vec{x}}$
 and so $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ and $\det(B - \lambda I) = 0$ have the same values of λ .

4. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 \\ 2 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & -6 \\ 2 & -6-\lambda \end{bmatrix}$ $\det(A - \lambda I) = (1-\lambda)(-6-\lambda) + 12$
 $= \lambda^2 + 5\lambda + 6 = 0 \Rightarrow (\lambda+3)(\lambda+2) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = -2, \lambda = -3$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1+2 & -6 \\ 2 & -6+2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -6 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $x_1 - 2x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = 2x_2$ $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $x_2 = x_2$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1+3 & -6 \\ 2 & -6+3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $2x_1 - 3x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{3}{2}x_2$ $\vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$
 $x_2 = x_2$

$P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $D = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

2 vectors \Rightarrow
 basis for \mathbb{R}^2
 independent.

$PDP^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 \\ 2 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$ and likewise $P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

therefore A is diagonalizable as $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ using the similarity transformation given by $P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

5. Suppose that A is both diagonalizable and invertible. - ③
 then it follows that $A = PDP^{-1}$. Since A is invertible
 then A^{-1} is defined and so $(PDP^{-1})^{-1} = A^{-1} = (P^{-1})^{-1} D^{-1} P^{-1} =$
 $PD^{-1}P^{-1}$. Since $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ we know that A is invertible, and
 since $A^{-1} = PD^{-1}P^{-1}$ is a similarity transformation we need
 only show that D^{-1} is diagonal. Consider the diagonal matrix

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ w/ entries } d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n \text{ on the diagonal}$$

$$\text{Since } DD^{-1} = I \quad \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n \end{bmatrix} \cdot D^{-1} = I \quad \text{thus } \det(DD^{-1})$$

$$= \det I \Rightarrow \det D \det D^{-1} = 1 \Rightarrow \det D^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det D}$$

we know that $\det D = d_1 \cdot d_2 \cdot \dots \cdot d_n$ the product of the diagonal
 entries, and so $\det D^{-1} = \frac{1}{d_1} \cdot \frac{1}{d_2} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{1}{d_n}$ the product of the
 reciprocals. Thus D^{-1} must be a diagonal matrix w/ the
 values $\frac{1}{d_i}$ on the diagonal since the d_i were the eigenvalues
 of D and $\frac{1}{d_i}$ are the eigenvalues of D^{-1} .

$$6. \vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad c \text{ a scalar in } \mathbb{R}$$

$$a. \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + u_3 v_3$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} = v_1 u_1 + v_2 u_2 + v_3 u_3$$

but these are the same since multiplication
 is commutative in \mathbb{R}

$$b. (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 + v_1 \\ u_2 + v_2 \\ u_3 + v_3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} = (u_1 + v_1)w_1 + (u_2 + v_2)w_2 + (u_3 + v_3)w_3$$

$$= u_1 w_1 + v_1 w_1 + u_2 w_2 + v_2 w_2 + u_3 w_3 + v_3 w_3$$

$$= (u_1 w_1 + u_2 w_2 + u_3 w_3) + (v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2 + v_3 w_3)$$

$$= \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$$

$$6c. (c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) = \vec{u} \cdot (c\vec{v})$$

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$$(c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} cu_1 \\ cu_2 \\ cu_3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = cu_1v_1 + cu_2v_2 + cu_3v_3$$

$$c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) = c(u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3) = cu_1v_1 + cu_2v_2 + cu_3v_3$$

by distributive property

$$\vec{u} \cdot (c\vec{v}) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} cv_1 \\ cv_2 \\ cv_3 \end{bmatrix} = u_1cv_1 + u_2cv_2 + u_3cv_3 =$$

$cu_1v_1 + cu_2v_2 + cu_3v_3$ by commutativity on \mathbb{R}

d. $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2$ The sum of positive terms must be ≥ 0 .

Similarly if $u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2 = 0$ then clearly u_1, u_2, u_3 must all $= 0$ so $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{0}$.

7. if y is orthogonal to both \vec{u} and \vec{v} then $\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u} = 0$ and $\vec{y} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$

But then since $\vec{y} \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = \vec{y} \cdot \vec{u} + \vec{y} \cdot \vec{v} = 0 + 0 = 0$ so \vec{y} is orthogonal to $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$ as well.

8. Suppose that \vec{x} is in both W and W^\perp . any vector in W is orthogonal to any vector in W^\perp . so \vec{w}_1 in W and \vec{w}_2 in W^\perp have $\vec{w}_1 \cdot \vec{w}_2 = 0$. But since \vec{x} is in both W and W^\perp then $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} = 0$ but this means that \vec{x} must $= \vec{0}$.

9. if $\{\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2, \dots, \vec{w}_p\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W then each vector w_i is orthogonal to w_j . If $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_q\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W^\perp then each vector \vec{v}_i is orthogonal to \vec{v}_j . By definition, all vectors in W are orthogonal to all vectors in W^\perp . Therefore $\{\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2, \dots, \vec{w}_p, \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_q\}$ is a set of orthogonal set in \mathbb{R}^n . It is a basis since

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all orthogonal vectors are linearly independent and since $W \cup W^\perp$ spans \mathbb{R}^n , the set of vectors that span both also span \mathbb{R}^n . (5)