# MATH 221, Spring 2016 - Homework 8 Solutions

Due Tuesday, April 19

## Section 5.1

Page 271, Problem 7:

4 is an eigenvalue if and only if the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = 4\mathbf{x}$  has a nontrivial solution, which is equivalent to solving the system

$$(A-4I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}: \ (A-4I) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 Because the columns of this matrix

are linearly dependent, the system must have a nontrivial solution, so 4 is an eigenvalue. To find the eigenvector

corresponding to  $\lambda = 4$ , solve the system by row-reducing:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 4 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Each vector of this form with  $x_3 \neq 0$  is an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda = 4$ .

### Page 271, Problem 9:

To find a basis for the eigenspace of each eigenvalue, find the vectors that span the eigenspace and are linearly

independent (i.e. the vectors that form the general solution of  $(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ ):

- When  $\lambda = 1$ :  $A I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is a basis for the eigenspace.
- When  $\lambda = 3$ :  $A 3I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\}$  is a basis for the eigenspace.

Page 272, Problem 17:

Because the matrix is upper-triangular (every element below the diagnoal is 0), the eigenvalues are the entries of the

diagnoal. Thus,  $\lambda = 0$ ,  $\lambda = 3$ ,  $\lambda = -2$ .

#### Page 272, Problem 24:

Because the diagonal entries of an upper-triangular matrix are its eigenvalues, let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & a \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\lambda, a \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Thus, the diagonal entries are the eigenvalues, but because they are the same value, the matrix has one distinct eigenvalue.

## Section 5.2

Page 279, Problem 2:

- $A \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \lambda & -1 \\ 6 & 1 \lambda \end{bmatrix}$  and the characteristic polynomial is  $\det(A \lambda I) = (-4 \lambda)(1 \lambda) (-1)(6) = \lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2$
- The solutions to the equation  $\lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2 = 0$  are  $\lambda = -1$ ,  $\lambda = -2$ .

Page 279, Problem 4:

- $A \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \lambda & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \lambda \end{bmatrix}$  and the characteristic polynomial is  $\det(A \lambda I) = (8 \lambda)(3 \lambda) (3)(2) = \lambda^2 11\lambda + 18$
- The solutions to  $\lambda^2 11\lambda + 18 = 0$  are  $\lambda = 9$ ,  $\lambda = 2$ .

Page 272, Problem 7:

- $A \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \lambda & 3 \\ -4 & 4 \lambda \end{bmatrix}$  and the characteristic polynomial is  $\det(A \lambda I) = (5 \lambda)(4 \lambda) (3)(-4) = \lambda^2 9\lambda + 32$
- The solutions to  $\lambda^2 9\lambda + 32 = 0$  are found using the quadratic formula  $\lambda = \frac{9 \pm \sqrt{9^2 4(1)(32)}}{2(1)} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{9}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{81 128}}{2}$ . Because expression involves complex roots, **there are no REAL eigenvalues**.

Page 279, Problem 8:

- $A \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \lambda & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \lambda \end{bmatrix}$  and the characteristic polynomial is  $\det(A \lambda I) = (-4 \lambda)(1 \lambda) (3)(2) = \lambda^2 + 3\lambda 10$
- The solutions to  $\lambda^2 + 3\lambda 10 = 0$  are  $\lambda = -5$ ,  $\lambda = 2$ .

Page 280, Problem 25a:

- Because we know that  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3/7 \\ 4/7 \end{bmatrix}$  is an eigenvector, compute  $A\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} .6 & .3 \\ .4 & .7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3/7 \\ 4/7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3/7 \\ 4/7 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\lambda = 1$  must be the eigenvalue corresponding to  $\mathbf{v}_1$ .
- To find the other eigenvector, find the eignevalues of the matrix:  $A \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} .6 \lambda & .3 \\ .4 & .7 \lambda \end{bmatrix}$ , so the characteristic polynomial is  $\lambda^2 1.3\lambda + 0.3$  and the solutions to  $\lambda^2 1.3\lambda + 0.3 = 0$  are  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\lambda = .3$ . Thus, the other eigenvector must correspond to  $\lambda = .3$ .
- To find the other eigenvector, solve  $(A .3I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  for the general solution:  $\begin{bmatrix} .3 & .3 & 0 \\ .4 & .4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Therefore, an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda = .3$  is  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Because eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are linearly independent (and two non-zero linearly independent vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  must also span  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ), the set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3/7 \\ 4/7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Page 280, Problem 25b:

• Solve for c:  $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{v}_1 + c\mathbf{v}_2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{v}_1 = c\mathbf{v}_2$ . So,  $\begin{bmatrix} .5\\ .5 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3/7\\ 4/7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/14\\ -1/14 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{14} \begin{bmatrix} -1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{14}\mathbf{v}_2$ . So,  $c = -\frac{1}{14}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{v}_1 - \frac{1}{14}\mathbf{v}_2$ .

Page 280, Problem 25c:

- To begin, realize that  $\mathbf{x}_k = A^k \mathbf{x}_0 = A^k (\mathbf{v}_1 \frac{1}{14} \mathbf{v}_2) = A^k \mathbf{v}_1 A^k \frac{1}{14} \mathbf{v}_2 = A^k \mathbf{v}_1 \frac{1}{14} A^k \mathbf{v}_2.$
- Then,  $\mathbf{x}_1 = A\mathbf{v}_1 \frac{1}{14}A\mathbf{v}_2$ . Remember the definition of an eigenvector: if  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ , then  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$ .
- Because  $\mathbf{v}_1$  is an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$  is an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda = .3$ , this equation can be rewritten as  $\mathbf{x}_1 = 1\mathbf{v}_1 \frac{1}{14}(0.3\mathbf{v}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 3/7\\4/7 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3/140\\-3/140 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9/20\\11/20 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Similarly,  $\mathbf{x}_2 = A^2 \mathbf{v}_1 \frac{1}{14} A^2 \mathbf{v}_2 = A(A\mathbf{v}_1) \frac{1}{14} A(A\mathbf{v}_2) = A(1\mathbf{v}_1) \frac{1}{14} A(.3\mathbf{v}_2) = A\mathbf{v}_1 \frac{3}{14} A\mathbf{v}_2 = 1\mathbf{v}_1 \frac{3}{14} (.3\mathbf{v}_2) = \mathbf{v}_1 \frac{1}{14} (0.3)^2 \mathbf{v}_2$ . This is equal to  $\begin{bmatrix} 3/7\\4/7 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 9/1400\\-9/1400 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 87/200\\113/200 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- It is clear to see that the formula for  $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{v}_1 \frac{1}{14}(0.3)^k \mathbf{v}_2$ .
- As k gets larger (tends to infinity),  $(0.3)^k$  tends to 0. Therefore, as  $k \to \infty$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_k \to \mathbf{v}_1$ .

### Section 5.3

Page 286, Problem 6:

A matrix A of the form  $A = PDP^{-1}$  where D is a diagonal matrix consisting of the eigenvalues of A has vectors that form a basis for the eigenspace in the column of P that correspond to the eigenvalue in D. Therefore, the eigenvalues of A are 3 and 4. The vectors corresponding to  $\lambda = 3$  that forms a basis for the eigenspace are columns 1 and 3 of the

matrix  $P: \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1\\-3\\0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ . The vector corresponding to  $\lambda = 4$  that forms a basis for the eigenspace is column 2 of the matrix  $P: \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ .

Page 286, Problem 7:

- To diagonalize the matrix, first find the eigenvalues:  $det(A \lambda I) = (1 \lambda)(-1 \lambda) 6(0) = \lambda^2 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = \pm 1$ . Then, find a basis for each eigenspace.
- When  $\lambda = 1$ ,  $(A I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is a basis.

• When 
$$\lambda = -1$$
,  $(A+I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\}$  is a basis.

• Then, these bases form the columns of P with the associated eigenvalue in the corresponding column of D (this is very important!):  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Page 287, Problem 12:

• Because the eigenvalues are given, we just need to find a basis for each eigenspace. Note: Because there are only 2 distinct eigenvalues, the sum of the dimensions of the eigenspaces must equal 3 in order for A to be diagonalizable.

• When 
$$\lambda = 2$$
,  $(A - 2I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  
 $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is a basis.  
• When  $\lambda = 5$ ,  $(A - 5I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is a basis.

• Then, these bases form the columns of P with the associated eigenvalue in the corresponding column of D(this is very important!):  $P = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Page 287, Problem 20:

• Because the matrix is triangular, the eigenvalues are the entries on the diagonal:  $\lambda = 2$ ,  $\lambda = 3$  (each with multiplicity 2). Note: Because there are only 2 distinct eigenvalues, the sum of the dimensions of the eigenspaces must equal 4 in order for A to be diagonalizable.

basis.

• Because the dimension of the basis corresponding to  $\lambda = 3$  is 1 and the basis corresponding to  $\lambda = 2$  is 2 and  $1+2=3 \neq 4$ , the matrix is not diagonalizable.

Page 287, Problem 21a:

True or False: A is diagonalizable if  $A = PDP^{-1}$  for some matrix D and some invertible matrix P.

FALSE: The matrix D needs to be a diagonal matrix (the notation D does not automatically denote a diagonal matrix).

Page 287, Problem 21b:

True or False: If  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a basis of eigenvectors of A, then A is diaognalizable.

**TRUE:** Because A is an  $n \times n$  matrix (stated in the directions), this statement is true and follows from the Diagonalization

Theorem on page 282.