

**Math 108A - Home Work # 8 Solutions**  
Spring 2009

1. LADR Problems, p. 94-95:

5. If  $(w, z) \in F^2$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda \in F$ , we have  $T(w, z) = (z, w) = \lambda(w, z)$ . This implies that  $z = \lambda w$  and  $w = \lambda z$ . Hence  $z = \lambda^2 z$  and  $w = \lambda^2 w$ , and since  $z$  and  $w$  cannot both be 0, we have  $\lambda^2 = 1$ . Therefore the only possible eigenvalues of  $T$  are  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\lambda = -1$ . We check that both actually occur. For  $\lambda = 1$  we need to find  $(w, z)$  such that  $T(w, z) = (z, w) = (w, z)$ . This happens for any  $z, w \in F$  such that  $z = w$ . Thus,  $(z, z)$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1 for any nonzero  $z \in F$ . For  $\lambda = -1$  we need to find  $(w, z)$  such that  $T(w, z) = (z, w) = -(w, z)$ . This happens if and only if  $z = -w$ . Thus  $(w, -w)$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $-1$  for any nonzero  $w \in F$ .

7. If  $T(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1 + \dots + x_n, \dots, x_1 + \dots + x_n) = \lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , then  $x_1 + \dots + x_n = \lambda x_i$  for every  $i$ . Adding up these  $n$  equations gives  $n(x_1 + \dots + x_n) = \lambda(x_1 + \dots + x_n)$ . Thus, either  $\lambda = n$  or  $x_1 + \dots + x_n = 0$ . If  $\lambda = n$ , we have  $x_1 + \dots + x_n = nx_i$  for all  $i$ . In particular  $nx_i = nx_j$  for all  $i, j$ , and hence  $x_i = x_j$  for all  $i, j$ . Thus the eigenvectors with eigenvalue  $n$  are precisely the vectors of the form  $(x, x, \dots, x)$  for some nonzero scalar  $x$ . Alternatively, if  $x_1 + \dots + x_n = 0$ , then we see that  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \text{null}(T)$ , and hence it is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 0. The eigenvectors with eigenvalue 0 are precisely the nonzero vectors  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  such that  $x_1 + \dots + x_n = 0$ .

8. Suppose  $T(z_1, z_2, \dots) = (z_2, z_3, \dots) = \lambda(z_1, z_2, \dots)$ . This means that  $z_{i+1} = \lambda z_i$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Hence  $z_{i+1} = \lambda z_i = \lambda^2 z_{i-1} = \dots = \lambda^i z_1$  for all  $i$ . Thus we see that  $(z_1, \lambda z_1, \lambda^2 z_1, \dots)$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  for any  $z_1 \neq 0$ . In particular, every element of  $F$  occurs as an eigenvalue of  $T$ . (This is only possible in infinite-dimensional vector spaces by Corollary 5.9)

10. Suppose  $Tv = \lambda v$  for some  $v \neq 0$ . Then, by definition of the inverse of  $T$ , we have  $T^{-1}(\lambda v) = v$ , and by linearity we have  $T^{-1}(v) = v/\lambda$ . This shows that  $1/\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $T^{-1}$ . Conversely, if  $\lambda^{-1}$  is an eigenvalue of  $T^{-1}$ , the same argument shows that  $(\lambda^{-1})^{-1} = \lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $(T^{-1})^{-1} = T$ .

11. Suppose that  $ST(v) = \lambda v$  for some  $v \neq 0$ . First suppose that  $\lambda \neq 0$ . Then  $TST(v) = T(\lambda v) = \lambda T(v)$ . Also  $T(v) \neq 0$  since  $S(T(v)) = \lambda v \neq 0$  (This is ESSENTIAL, and it is why we need to divide the proof into 2 cases). Thus  $T(v)$  is an eigenvector of  $TS$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

Now suppose that  $\lambda = 0$ . As above, we have  $TST(v) = \lambda T(v) = 0$ , so  $T(v) \in \text{null}(TS)$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 0 if  $T(v) \neq 0$ . However, if  $T(v) = 0$ , then we know that  $T$  is not injective, and thus not surjective either by 3.21. This means that  $TS$  is not surjective, and hence  $TS$  is not injective by 3.21 again. This means that  $\text{null}(TS)$  contains a nonzero vector, which must be an eigenvector with eigenvalue 0.

Altogether, we have shown that any eigenvalue of  $ST$  is also an eigenvalue of  $TS$ . A symmetric argument, swapping the roles of  $T$  and  $S$ , shows that any eigenvalue of  $TS$  is also an eigenvalue of  $ST$ . Thus, we conclude that  $ST$  and  $TS$  have the same eigenvalues.

12. Suppose  $T : V \rightarrow V$  has every nonzero  $v \in V$  as an eigenvector. We first show that each  $v \in V$  has the same eigenvalue. If this is not the case, we can find nonzero vectors  $u$  and  $v$  such that  $T(u) = \lambda_1 u$  and  $T(v) = \lambda_2 v$  for  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ . Theorem 5.6 implies that  $u$  and  $v$  are linearly independent. Then  $T(u + v) = \lambda_1 u + \lambda_2 v$ , but we must also have  $T(u + v) = \lambda_3(u + v)$  for some  $\lambda_3 \in F$ , since every vector in  $V$  is an eigenvector of  $T$ . Subtracting these two equations gives  $0 = (\lambda_1 - \lambda_3)u + (\lambda_2 - \lambda_3)v$  and then the linear independence of  $u$  and  $v$  implies that  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3$ , a contradiction. Thus, there is a single eigenvalue  $\lambda \in F$  such that  $T(v) = \lambda v$  for all  $v \in V$ . But this is the same as saying  $T = \lambda I_V$ .

2. As in Ex. 7, consider the matrix ( $n = 3$ )

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

(a) Find a change of basis matrix  $C$  such that  $C^{-1}AC$  is diagonal. What is this diagonal matrix?

**Solution.** From Ex. 7, we know that the eigenvalues of  $A$  are 3 and 0, and  $(1, 1, 1)$  is an eigenvector for  $\lambda = 3$ , while  $(1, -1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1, -1)$  are linearly independent eigenvectors for  $\lambda = 0$ . Thus  $C$  should have these eigenvectors as its columns:

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The diagonal matrix  $C^{-1}AC$  will have the eigenvalues of  $A$  on the diagonal, thus it is

$$D = C^{-1}AC = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(b) Compute  $A^{100}$ .

**Solution.**  $A^{100} = (CDC^{-1})^{100} = CD^{100}C^{-1}$ . We compute  $C^{-1}$  and multiply:

$$\begin{aligned} A^{100} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{100} \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3^{100} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} / 3 \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 3^{99} & 3^{99} & 3^{99} \\ 3^{99} & 3^{99} & 3^{99} \\ 3^{99} & 3^{99} & 3^{99} \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

You could also compute  $A^{100}$  by computing  $A^2$  first and noticing that  $A^2 = 3A$ . Iterating this identity yields  $A^n = 3^{n-1}A$  for any  $n \geq 1$ .

3. **Extra Credit:** The matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  has the property that  $A^2 = -I$ . Find all  $2 \times 2$  matrices  $B$  with this property (i.e.,  $B^2 = -I$ ). Hint: think about the eigenvalues of  $B$ .
4. **Extra Credit:** Suppose that an  $n \times n$  matrix  $B$  is diagonalizable, with 0 and 1 as its only eigenvalues. Show that  $B^2 = B$ . Is the converse true: i.e., if  $B$  is diagonalizable and  $B^2 = B$ , are 0 and 1 the only possible eigenvalues of  $B$ ?

**Solution.** We can write  $B = CDC^{-1}$  where  $D$  is diagonal with only ones and zeros on the diagonal. Then  $D^2 = D$  and  $B^2 = CD^2C^{-1} = CDC^{-1} = B$ . For the converse, if  $B^2 = B$  and  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $B$  with eigenvector  $v$ , then  $Bv = \lambda v$ , and  $B^2v = B\lambda v = \lambda^2v = Bv = \lambda v$ . Thus  $\lambda^2 = \lambda$ , and this means  $\lambda$  is 0 or 1. (We don't even need to assume  $B$  is diagonalizable.)