

- You might think that repeated eigenvalues ~~always~~ always have multiple eigenvectors, but this isn't the case:

Ex: Find the eigenstuff for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

①+② We know the eigenvalue is $\lambda=1$, since A is upper triangular.

(3) $(A - I)\vec{v} = \vec{0} \xrightarrow{\text{RREF}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$

$\Downarrow v_1 \text{ free} \rightarrow v_1 = r$

$$\rightarrow \vec{v} = r \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow E_{\lambda=1} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

- even though $\lambda=1$ is a repeated eigenvalue, its eigenspace is only 1-dimensional

- One thing that's always true of eigenstuff:
If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_p$ are distinct eigenvalues w/ corresponding eigenvectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$, then $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is a set of linearly independent ~~vectors~~ vectors.

- $|A - \lambda I| = 0$ is always a polynomial equation, so it is possible to have imaginary eigenvalues:

Ex: Find the eigenstuff for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad |A - \lambda I| = 0 \rightarrow \lambda^2 + 1 = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \lambda = \pm i$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \text{For } \lambda = i:$$

$$(A - iI)\vec{v} = 0 \Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} -i & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -i & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{RREF}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{array} \right] = r \left[\begin{array}{c} -i \\ 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \vec{v} = \left[\begin{array}{c} -i \\ 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{For } \lambda = -i:$$

$$(A + iI)\vec{v} = 0 \Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} i & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & i & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{RREF}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = r \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \tilde{v} = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Here's the coolest part yet though: we've actually been doing finding eigenvalues before this section:

Ex: Consider the DE

$$y'' - y' - 2y = 0$$

Characteristic equation:

$$r^2 - r - 2 = 0$$

with characteristic roots: $r = 2, -1$

to give general solution $y(t) = c_1 e^{2t} + c_2 e^{-t}$.

We can also convert the ~~2nd order~~ equation to a 2×2 system: Let $x_1 = y$, $x_2 = y'$. Then

$$x'_1 = y' = x_2$$

$$x'_2 = y'' = y' + 2y = x_2 + 2x_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}' = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Finding the e-stuff for A:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad |A - \lambda I| = -\lambda(1-\lambda) - 2 = \lambda^2 - \lambda - 2 = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad (\lambda - 2)(\lambda + 1) = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = 2, -1$$

★ The e-values are exactly the same as the characteristic roots!

But wait, there's more! We know $y = e^{2t}$ is a component of the general soln. This corresponds to

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{2t} \\ 2e^{2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now,

$$A \begin{bmatrix} e^{2t} \\ 2e^{2t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{2t} \\ 2e^{2t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2e^{2t} \\ 4e^{2t} \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} e^{2t} \\ 2e^{2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

so $\begin{bmatrix} e^{2t} \\ 2e^{2t} \end{bmatrix}$ is actually an eigenvector!

Similarly, corresponding to $y = e^{-t}$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} \\ -e^{-t} \end{bmatrix}$$

is the other eigenvector.

5.4 Coordinates and Diagonalization

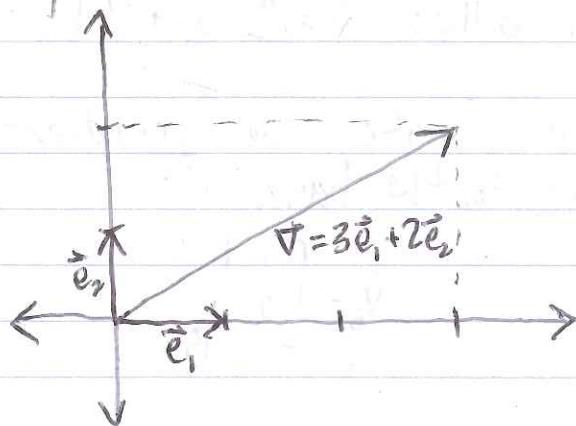
- Normally, when we write a vector, e.g.

$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

we assume we're using the standard basis:

$$S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$
$$\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2$$

graphically:



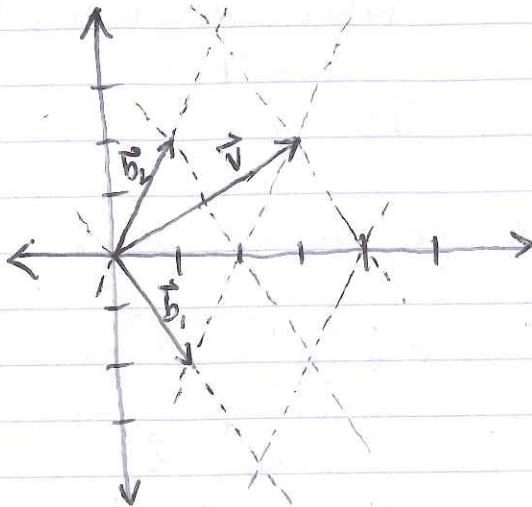
algebraically: $\vec{v} = 3\vec{e}_1 + 2\vec{e}_2$

- Really though, we can do this for any basis, e.g.

~~$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$~~

$$B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} +1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$
$$\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2$$

graphically:



algebraically: $\vec{v} = 1 \cdot \vec{b}_1 + 2 \cdot \vec{b}_2$

- We can write the coordinates of \vec{v} relative to the basis B :

$$\vec{v}_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}_B$$

- More generally: Let \vec{v} be a vector in a vector space V , with basis $B = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$. The coordinates of \vec{v} relative to B are the constants $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n$ such that

$$\vec{v} = \beta_1 \vec{b}_1 + \beta_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + \beta_n \vec{b}_n$$

The coordinated vector of \vec{v} relative to B is

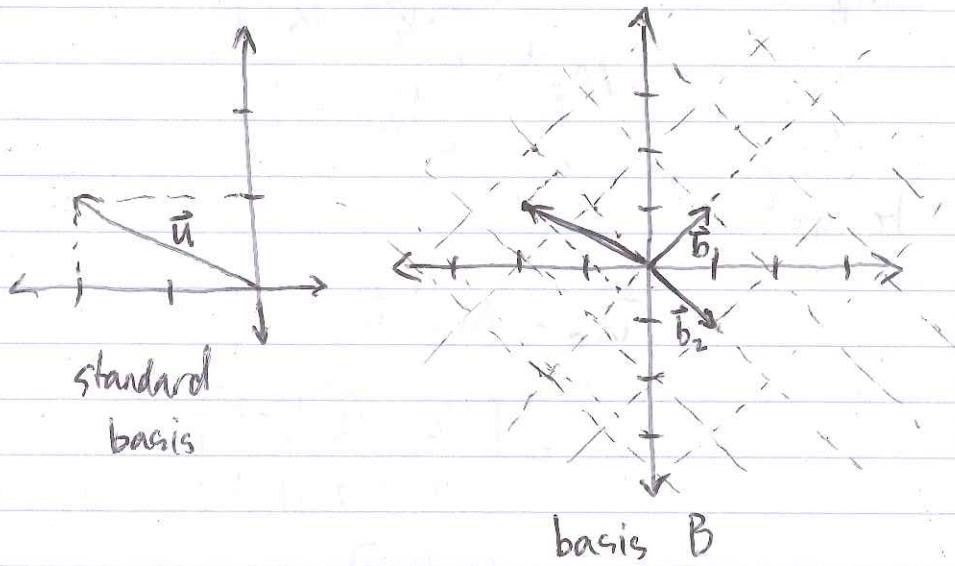
$$\vec{v}_B = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex: Let $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, relative to the standard basis, i.e;

$$\vec{u}_s = -2 \cdot \vec{e}_1 + 1 \cdot \vec{e}_2$$

Consider the basis

$$B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$



so in the basis B:

$$\vec{u}_B = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ -3/2 \end{bmatrix}_B$$