

# Lecture 2

## Matrices. Eigenvectors and eigenvalues.

### ① Matrices and matrix algebra.

#### Operations on matrices

Addition:  $A + B = (a_{ij}) + (b_{ij})$   
 $= (a_{ij} + b_{ij})$

Scalar multiplication:  $r \cdot A = r \cdot (a_{ij})$   
 $= (ra_{ij})$

Transpose:  $A^T = (a_{ij})^T = (a_{ji})$

Matrix multiplication:  $A \cdot B = (a_{ij}) \cdot (b_{ij})$   
 $= (c_{ij})$

$A \cdot B$  defined if  $n=r$ ,  
max rows in that case  
 $AB$  is  $m \times s$

where  
 $c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} +$   
 $a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots$   
 $+ a_{in}b_{nj}$

Ex1

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 6 & 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{not defn.}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Ex1

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 9 \\ 5 & 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: i)  $O = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   $-A = -1 \cdot A$   
 $A - B = A + (-B)$

#### iv) Linear systems:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{array} \right\} A \cdot x = b$$

(matrix form)

ii)  $AB \neq BA$

iii)  $A^2, A^3, \dots$  (powers of  $A$ )  
defined if  $A$  is square ( $n \times n$ )

# Determinants

$A \rightsquigarrow \det(A) = |A|$   
 $n \times n$  matrix  
 number

2x2 case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}; |A| = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

Ex:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot 7 - 2 \cdot 4 = \underline{-1}$$

Ex:

$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$ : Cofactor expansion along first row:

$$|A| = +1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 9 \end{vmatrix} - 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 9 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \\ = +(18-12) - (9-4) + (3-2) = \underline{2}$$

Cofactors:  $C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \cdot M_{ij}$

Signs

$$\begin{pmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{pmatrix}$$

minor:

determinant of submatrix obtained by deleting row  $i$ , col.  $j$

Fact: Cofactor expansion along any row or col. gives  $|A|$ .

Linear system:

$Ax = b$  lin. system in matrix form with  $A$   $n \times n$  (#eqn's = #var's)

$|A| \neq 0$ : one unique solution

$|A| = 0$ : no solutions or inf. many solutions

Identity matrix:

$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is called the identity matrix

Note:

$A \cdot I = A$  and  $I \cdot A = A$  for any matrix  $A$ ,

# Inverses

A  
n x n  
matrix

Defn. An inverse of A is a matrix  $A^{-1}$  such that  
 $A \cdot A^{-1} = I$  and  $A^{-1} \cdot A = I$ .

Fact:  $A^{-1}$  exists  $\iff$   $n \times n$  and  $|A| \neq 0$   
(A is invertible)

ii) When  $|A| \neq 0$ ,  $A^{-1}$  is unique and given by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & \dots & C_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ C_{n1} & \dots & C_{nn} \end{pmatrix}^T = \frac{1}{|A|} \cdot \text{adj}(A)$$

Ex:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$

$|A| = 7 - 8 = -1 \neq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow$  A is invertible

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix}^T = \frac{1}{-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -4 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^T$$

$$= -1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -2 \\ -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \underline{\underline{\begin{pmatrix} -7 & 2 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix}}}$$

Ex:  $x + 2y = 31$

$4x + 7y = 17$

$A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$   $|A^{-1}|$

$A^{-1}A\underline{x} = A^{-1}\underline{b}$

$\underline{I}\underline{x} = A^{-1}\underline{b}$

$\underline{x} = A^{-1} \cdot \underline{b} = \begin{pmatrix} -7 & 2 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 31 \\ 17 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -217 + 34 \\ 124 - 17 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -183 \\ 107 \end{pmatrix}$   $\underline{\underline{\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -183 \\ 107 \end{pmatrix}}}$

$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$   $\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$   $\underline{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 31 \\ 17 \end{pmatrix}$

$\Downarrow$   
 $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -7 & 2 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Note:

A  
n x n  
matrix

A invertible  $\iff$   $|A| \neq 0 \iff \text{rk}(A) = n \iff A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  has unique solution for all  $\underline{b}$

Some useful formulas:

i)  $|A \cdot B| = |A| \cdot |B|$

ii)  $(A \cdot B)^{-1} = B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1}$

iii)  $(A \cdot B)^T = B^T \cdot A^T$

Defn.

A  
n x n  
matrix

A is called diagonal if  $a_{ij} = 0$  for all  $i \neq j$   
— " — upper triangular if  $a_{ij} = 0$  for  $i > j$ .

Ex:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$   
is diagonal

$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$   
is upper triangular

A is called orthogonal if A is invertible and  $A^{-1} = A^T$

Note:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & | \end{pmatrix}$  is  
orthogonal

$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} i) v_i \cdot v_j = 0 & \text{for } i \neq j \\ ii) \|v_i\| = 1 & \text{for all } i \end{cases}$

If these conditions hold,  
 $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is called  
an orthonormal base of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

Ex:  $A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

is orthogonal since

$\begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = -2 + 2 = 0 \\ \| \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \| = \sqrt{4+1} = \sqrt{5} \\ \| \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \| = \sqrt{1+4} = \sqrt{5} \end{cases}$

A

m x n  
matrix

Defn A is symmetric if  $A^T = A$ .

Fact: A symmetric  $\Leftrightarrow m = n$  and  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$

Ex:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

is symmetric

$(a_{12} = a_{21} = 2)$

## ② Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

A  
non  
matrix

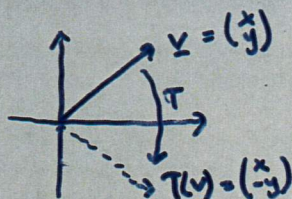
Recall:

$A \rightsquigarrow T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$   
 $\underline{v} \mapsto A\underline{v}$   
 linear transformation

Ex:

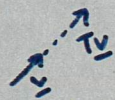
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ -y \end{pmatrix}$$



Defn. If  $A\underline{v} = \lambda\underline{v}$  has non-trivial solutions  $\underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$  for a scalar  $\lambda$ , then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ . The set  $E_\lambda = \{ \underline{v} : A\underline{v} = \lambda\underline{v} \}$  is called the eigenspace with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , and the vectors  $\underline{v}$  in  $E_\lambda$  are called eigenvectors of  $A$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

Note: i)  $A\underline{v} = \lambda\underline{v}$  can be written  $T(\underline{v}) = \lambda\underline{v}$ , and means that  $T(\underline{v})$  is a scalar multiple of  $\underline{v}$ .



ii)  $A\underline{v} = \lambda\underline{v}$  is a lin system with parameter  $\lambda$ , and can be written:

$$\begin{aligned} A\underline{v} &= \lambda\underline{v} \\ A\underline{v} - \lambda\underline{v} &= \underline{0} \\ A\underline{v} - \lambda I\underline{v} &= \underline{0} \\ (A - \lambda I)\underline{v} &= \underline{0} \end{aligned}$$

This means that  $\lambda$  eigenvalue  $\Leftrightarrow |A - \lambda I| = 0$ .

Ex:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1-\lambda)^2 - 2^2 = 0$

$$(1-\lambda)^2 = 2^2$$

$$1-\lambda = \pm 2$$

$$\lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 3$$

eigenvalues of  $A$

$E_1: \begin{pmatrix} 1-(-1) & 2 \\ 2 & 1-(-1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$2x+2y=0 \quad x=-y$   
 $y$  free

$$\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -y \\ y \end{pmatrix} = y \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = y \cdot \underline{v}_1$$

$E_1 = \text{span}(\underline{v}_1)$

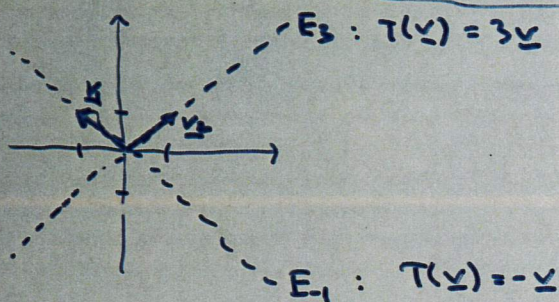
$$\underline{E_3}: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-2x + 2y = 0 \quad y = x$$

y free

$$\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y \\ y \end{pmatrix} = y \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = y \cdot \underline{v}_3$$

$$\underline{E_3} = \text{span}(\underline{v}_3)$$



Note:

$\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2\}$  is a base of  $\mathbb{R}^2$

↓

Any vector  $\underline{v}$  can be written uniquely as:

$$\underline{v} = c_1 \cdot \underline{v}_1 + c_2 \cdot \underline{v}_2$$

$$\Rightarrow T(\underline{v}) = c_1 T(\underline{v}_1) + c_2 T(\underline{v}_2)$$

$$= c_1 \cdot (-\underline{v}_1) + c_2 (3\underline{v}_2)$$

$$= -c_1 \underline{v}_1 + 3c_2 \underline{v}_2$$

In general:

A  
n x n  
matrix

i) The characteristic equation  $|A - \lambda I| = 0$  is a polynomial eqn. of degree n. There are maximally n eigenvalues of A.

ii) For any eigenvalue  $\lambda$ ,  $E_\lambda = \{\underline{v} : (A - \lambda I)\underline{v} = \underline{0}\} = \text{Null}(A - \lambda I)$ . It is a linear subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

iii) Let  $m_{\lambda_i}$  be the algebraic multiplicity of an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ , i.e. the maximal m s.t.  $(\lambda - \lambda_i)^m$  is a factor of  $|A - \lambda I| = 0$ .

Then  $1 \leq \dim E_\lambda \leq m_\lambda$  for all eigenvalues  $\lambda$ .

Defn: A is diagonalizable if there is a diagonal matrix D and an invertible matrix P s.t.  $P^{-1}AP = D$ . It is orthogonally diagonalizable if we may choose P as an orthogonal matrix, i.e. s.t.  $P^{-1} = P^T$ .

Note: If  $P = (\underline{v}_1 | \dots | \underline{v}_n)$  and  $D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$  then we have:

$$AP = (A\underline{v}_1 | \dots | A\underline{v}_n) \quad \text{and} \quad PD = (\lambda_1 \underline{v}_1 | \dots | \lambda_n \underline{v}_n)$$

This means that  $AP=PD$  if and only if  $A\underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i$  for all  $i$ ,  
 and  $AP=PD \Leftrightarrow P^{-1}AP=D$  if and only if  $P$  is invertible.

Result: The following are equivalent:

$A$   
 $n \times n$   
 matrix

- i)  $A$  is diagonalizable
- ii)  $A$  has  $n$  eigenvalues (counted with multiplicity) and  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors.
- iii)  $A$  has  $n$  eigenvalues (counted with multiplicity) and  $\dim E_\lambda = m_\lambda$  for each eigenvalue with  $m_\lambda \geq 1$ .

Ex: i)  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\lambda_1 = -1$   $\underline{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\lambda_2 = 3$   $\underline{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $A$  diagonalizable  $\begin{cases} D = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ P = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{cases}$

ii)  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   $\begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 + 1 = 0$   $A$  not diag.  
no real eigenvalues

iii)  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1-\lambda)^2 = 0$   $D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   
 $\lambda = \lambda_2 = 1$  or  $\lambda = 1$  with  $m_\lambda = 2$   $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & ? \\ 0 & ? \end{pmatrix}$

$E_1: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   $y=0$   $x$  free  $\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$   $A$  not diag  
 $\dim E_1 = 1 < m_1 = 2$

Note: i) If  $\underline{v}_1 \in E_{\lambda_1}$  and  $\underline{v}_2 \in E_{\lambda_2}$  with  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ , then  $\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2\}$  are lin. independent  
 ii) || and  $A$  is symmetric, then  $\underline{v}_1 \perp \underline{v}_2$ .

Result: A orthogonally diagonalizable  $\Leftrightarrow$  A symmetric

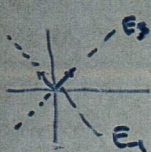
$A$   
 $n \times n$   
 matrix

Explanation:

$A^T = A$

$A \underline{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1$   
 $A \underline{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \underline{v}_2$  }  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$

$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$  symmetric



$\underline{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$\underline{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$\underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2 = 1 + (-1) = 0$

$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_1^T A \underline{v}_2 = \underline{v}_1^T (\lambda_2 \underline{v}_2) = \lambda_2 \underline{v}_1^T \underline{v}_2 = \lambda_2 (\underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2)$

$\underline{v}_2^T A \underline{v}_1 = (\underline{v}_2^T A \underline{v}_1)^T = \underline{v}_1^T A^T (\underline{v}_2^T)^T = \underline{v}_1^T A \underline{v}_2$   
 $= \underline{v}_2^T (\lambda_1 \underline{v}_1) = \lambda_1 \underline{v}_2^T \underline{v}_1 = \lambda_1 (\underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2)$

$\Downarrow$   
 $\lambda_2 (\underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2) = \lambda_1 (\underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2)$

$(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) (\underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2) = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{v}_2 = 0$   
 $\underline{v}_1 \perp \underline{v}_2$

Ex:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

$\begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 4 \\ 3 & 6-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (2-\lambda)(6-\lambda) - 4 \cdot 3 = 0$

$\lambda^2 - (2+6)\lambda + (2 \cdot 6 - 4 \cdot 3) = 0$

$\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 0 = 0$

$\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 0 = 0$

$\lambda(\lambda - 8) = 0$

$\lambda_1 = 0 \quad \lambda_2 = 8$

$\text{tr}(A) = \text{sum of diagonal entries}$   
 (trace)  $= 2 + 6 = 8$

A is diagonalizable

$n=2$  eigenvalues  
 each with mult.  
 $m_\lambda=1$ .

A is not orthog. diag.

A not symmetric

Explanation: Assume  $P^T A P = D$  with  $P^T = P^{-1}$ . Then we have

$P^T A P = D \quad | \cdot P$

$A P = P D \quad | \cdot P^T$

$A = P D P^T$

$\rightarrow A^T = (P D P^T)^T = (P^T)^T D^T P^T$   
 $= P D P^T = A$

$\Rightarrow$  A symmetric



# Orthonormal bases

E<sub>1</sub>:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

symmetric  $\lambda \times \lambda$ -matrix  
 $\Rightarrow$  there is an orthogonal matrix  $P = (v_1 | v_2 | v_3)$  s.t.  $PA^kP = D$  is diagonal

Char. eqn:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} (1-\lambda)((1-\lambda)^2 - 4) - 2(2(1-\lambda) - 4) + 2(4 - 2(1-\lambda)) &= 0 \\ (1-\lambda)(\lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3) - 2(-2\lambda - 2) + 2(2 + 2\lambda) &= 0 \\ (1-\lambda)(\lambda-3)(\lambda+1) + 4(1+\lambda) &= 0 \\ (\lambda+1)((1-\lambda)(\lambda-3) + 4) &= 0 \\ \lambda = -1, & \quad -\lambda^2 + 4\lambda + 1 = 0 \\ \lambda^2 - 4\lambda - 1 &= 0 \\ \lambda = 5, \lambda = -1 & \end{aligned}$$

E<sub>3</sub>:  $\begin{pmatrix} -4 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -4 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$

$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   $-2x + y + z = 0 \Rightarrow 2x = y + z \Rightarrow x = \frac{y+z}{2}$   
 $-3y + 3z = 0 \Rightarrow y = z$   
 $z$  free

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{E_1} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{E_3}$

$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{3}$

$v_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  ← orthonormal base of  $E_3$

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 0 & 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\uparrow \quad \uparrow$   
 $E_1 \quad E_3$

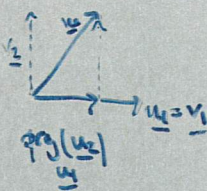
E<sub>1</sub>:  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} x = -y - z \\ y, z \text{ free} \end{matrix}$   
 $v = \begin{pmatrix} -y-z \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = y \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + z \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, u_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  ← base of  $E_1$

$u_1 \perp v_3, u_2 \perp v_3$ , but  $u_1 \cdot u_2 \neq 0$

$v_1 = u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow v_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$\{v_1, v_2\}$  orthonormal base of  $E_1$



$v_2 = u_2 - \text{proj}_{u_1}(u_2)$   
 $= u_2 - \frac{u_2 \cdot u_1}{u_1 \cdot u_1} u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 \\ -1/2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow v_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\text{span}(v_1, v_2) = \text{span}(u_1, u_2) = E_1$

In general:

Gramm-Schmidt process to find an orthonormal base.