5.4 SOLUTIONS

- 1. Since $T(\mathbf{b}_1) = 3\mathbf{d}_1 5\mathbf{d}_2$, $[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_D = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$. Likewise $T(\mathbf{b}_2) = -\mathbf{d}_1 + 6\mathbf{d}_2$ implies that $[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ and $T(\mathbf{b}_3) = 4\mathbf{d}_2$ implies that $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Thus the matrix for T relative to B and D is $[[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_D[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_D[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_D] = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ -5 & 6 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.
- 2. Since $T(\mathbf{d}_1) = 2\mathbf{b}_1 3\mathbf{b}_2$, $[T(\mathbf{d}_1)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$. Likewise $T(\mathbf{d}_2) = -4\mathbf{b}_1 + 5\mathbf{b}_2$ implies that $[T(\mathbf{d}_2)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$. Thus the matrix for T relative to D and B is $[[T(\mathbf{d}_1)]_B[T(\mathbf{d}_2)]_B] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$.
- 3. **a**. $T(\mathbf{e}_1) = 0\mathbf{b}_1 1\mathbf{b}_2 + \mathbf{b}_3$, $T(\mathbf{e}_2) = -1\mathbf{b}_1 0\mathbf{b}_2 1\mathbf{b}_3$, $T(\mathbf{e}_3) = 1\mathbf{b}_1 1\mathbf{b}_2 + 0\mathbf{b}_3$

$$\mathbf{b}. \ [T(\mathbf{e}_1)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, [T(\mathbf{e}_2)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, [T(\mathbf{e}_3)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **c**. The matrix for T relative to \mathcal{E} and B is $[T(\mathbf{e}_1)]_B$ $[T(\mathbf{e}_2)]_B$ $[T(\mathbf{e}_3)]_B] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.
- **4.** Let $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$ be the standard basis for \mathbb{Z}^2 . Since $[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix},$ and $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, the matrix for T relative to B and \mathcal{E} is $[[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{E}} = [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{E}} = [T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_{\mathcal{E}}] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

5. a.
$$T(\mathbf{p}) = (t+5)(2-t+t^2) = 10-3t+4t^2+t^3$$

b. Let **p** and **q** be polynomials in \mathbb{F}_2 , and let c be any scalar. Then

$$T(\mathbf{p}(t) + \mathbf{q}(t)) = (t+5)[\mathbf{p}(t) + \mathbf{q}(t)] = (t+5)\mathbf{p}(t) + (t+5)\mathbf{q}(t)$$
$$= T(\mathbf{p}(t)) + T(\mathbf{q}(t))$$
$$T(c \cdot \mathbf{p}(t)) = (t+5)[c \cdot \mathbf{p}(t)] = c \cdot (t+5)\mathbf{p}(t)$$
$$= c \cdot T[\mathbf{p}(t)]$$

and T is a linear transformation.

c. Let
$$B = \{1, t, t^2\}$$
 and $C = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$. Since $T(\mathbf{b}_1) = T(1) = (t+5)(1) = t+5$, $[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 5\\1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix}$. Likewise

since
$$T(\mathbf{b}_2) = T(t) = (t+5)(t) = t^2 + 5t$$
, $[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and since

since
$$T(\mathbf{b}_2) = T(t) = (t+5)(t) = t^2 + 5t$$
, $[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and since
$$T(\mathbf{b}_3) = T(t^2) = (t+5)(t^2) = t^3 + 5t^2$$
, $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Thus the matrix for T relative to B and
$$C \text{ is } [[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_C \quad [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_C \quad [T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_C] = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

C is
$$[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_C$$
 $[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_C$ $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_C] = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

6. a.
$$T(\mathbf{p}) = (2 - t + t^2) + t^2(2 - t + t^2) = 2 - t + 3t^2 - t^3 + t^4$$

b. Let **p** and **q** be polynomials in \mathbb{P}_2 , and let c be any scalar. Then

$$T(\mathbf{p}(t) + \mathbf{q}(t)) = [\mathbf{p}(t) + \mathbf{q}(t)] + t^{2}[\mathbf{p}(t) + \mathbf{q}(t)]$$

$$= [\mathbf{p}(t) + t^{2}\mathbf{p}(t)] + [\mathbf{q}(t) + t^{2}\mathbf{q}(t)]$$

$$= T(\mathbf{p}(t)) + T(\mathbf{q}(t))$$

$$T(c \cdot \mathbf{p}(t)) = [c \cdot \mathbf{p}(t)] + t^{2}[c \cdot \mathbf{p}(t)]$$

$$= c \cdot [\mathbf{p}(t) + t^{2}\mathbf{p}(t)]$$

$$= c \cdot T[\mathbf{p}(t)]$$

and T is a linear transformation.

c. Let
$$B = \{1, t, t^2\}$$
 and $C = \{1, t, t^2, t^3, t^4\}$. Since $T(\mathbf{b}_1) = T(1) = 1 + t^2(1) = t^2 + 1$, $[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Likewise since
$$T(\mathbf{b}_2) = T(t) = t + (t^2)(t) = t^3 + t, [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\0\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, and

since
$$T(\mathbf{b}_3) = T(t^2) = t^2 + (t^2)(t^2) = t^4 + t^2$$
, $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Thus the matrix for T relative to

$$B \text{ and } C \text{ is } [[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_C \ [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_C \ [T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_C] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

7. Since
$$T(\mathbf{b}_1) = T(1) = 3 + 5t$$
, $[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Likewise since $T(\mathbf{b}_2) = T(t) = -2t + 4t^2$, $[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$,

and since $T(\mathbf{b}_3) = T(t^2) = t^2$, $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Thus the matrix representation of T relative to the basis

B is
$$[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_B$$
 $[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_B$ $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_B$ =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Perhaps a faster way is to realize that the information given provides the general form of $T(\mathbf{p})$ as shown in the forms helpow.

information given provides the general form of $T(\mathbf{p})$ as shown in the figure below:

$$\begin{array}{c} a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2 \xrightarrow{T} 3a_0 + (5a_0 - 2a_1)t + (4a_1 + a_2)t^2 \\ \xrightarrow{\text{coordinate mapping}} & & & & & & \\ a_0 & & & & & & \\ a_1 & & & & & \\ a_2 & & & & & \\ \end{array}$$

The matrix that implements the multiplication along the bottom of the figure is easily filled in by inspection:

$$\begin{bmatrix} ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3a_0 \\ 5a_0 - 2a_1 \\ 4a_1 + a_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ implies that } [T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

8. Since
$$[3\mathbf{b}_1 - 4\mathbf{b}_2]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $[T(3\mathbf{b}_1 - 4\mathbf{b}_2)]_B = [T]_B [3\mathbf{b}_1 - 4\mathbf{b}_2]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -6 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 24 \\ -20 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$

and $T(3\mathbf{b}_1 - 4\mathbf{b}_2) = 24\mathbf{b}_1 - 20\mathbf{b}_2 + 11\mathbf{b}_3$.

9. **a.**
$$T(\mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} 5+3(-1) \\ 5+3(0) \\ 5+3(1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

b. Let **p** and **q** be polynomials in \mathbb{P}_2 , and let c be any scalar. Then

$$T(\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q}) = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q})(-1) \\ (\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q})(0) \\ (\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q})(1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(-1)+\mathbf{q}(-1) \\ \mathbf{p}(0)+\mathbf{q}(0) \\ \mathbf{p}(1)+\mathbf{q}(1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(-1) \\ \mathbf{p}(0) \\ \mathbf{p}(1) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}(-1) \\ \mathbf{q}(0) \\ \mathbf{q}(1) \end{bmatrix} = T(\mathbf{p}) + T(\mathbf{q})$$

$$T(c \cdot \mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} (c \cdot \mathbf{p})(-1) \\ (c \cdot \mathbf{p})(0) \\ (c \cdot \mathbf{p})(1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c \cdot (\mathbf{p}(-1)) \\ c \cdot (\mathbf{p}(0)) \\ c \cdot (\mathbf{p}(1)) \end{bmatrix} = c \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(-1) \\ \mathbf{p}(0) \\ \mathbf{p}(1) \end{bmatrix} = c \cdot T(\mathbf{p})$$

and *T* is a linear transformation.

c. Let $B = \{1, t, t^2\}$ and $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$ be the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^3 . Since

$$[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_1) = T(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \ [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_2) = T(t) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } [T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_3) = T(t^2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

the matrix for T relative to B and \mathcal{E} is $[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{E}}$ $[T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{E}}$ $[T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_{\mathcal{E}}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

10. a. Let **p** and **q** be polynomials in \mathbb{P}_3 , and let c be any scalar. Then

$$T(\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q}) = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q})(-3) \\ (\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q})(-1) \\ (\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q})(1) \\ (\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q})(3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(-3)+\mathbf{q}(-3) \\ \mathbf{p}(-1)+\mathbf{q}(-1) \\ \mathbf{p}(1)+\mathbf{q}(1) \\ \mathbf{p}(3)+\mathbf{q}(3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(-3) \\ \mathbf{p}(-1) \\ \mathbf{p}(1) \\ \mathbf{p}(3) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}(-3) \\ \mathbf{q}(-1) \\ \mathbf{q}(1) \\ \mathbf{q}(3) \end{bmatrix} = T(\mathbf{p}) + T(\mathbf{q})$$

$$T(c \cdot \mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} (c \cdot \mathbf{p})(-3) \\ (c \cdot \mathbf{p})(-1) \\ (c \cdot \mathbf{p})(1) \\ (c \cdot \mathbf{p})(3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c \cdot (\mathbf{p}(-3)) \\ c \cdot (\mathbf{p}(-1)) \\ c \cdot (\mathbf{p}(1)) \\ c \cdot (\mathbf{p}(3)) \end{bmatrix} = c \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(-3) \\ \mathbf{p}(-1) \\ \mathbf{p}(1) \\ \mathbf{p}(3) \end{bmatrix} = c \cdot T(\mathbf{p})$$

and T is a linear transformation.

b. Let $B = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$ and $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_4\}$ be the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^3 . Since

$$[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_1) = T(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \ [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_2) = T(t) = \begin{bmatrix} -3\\-1\\1\\3 \end{bmatrix}, \ [T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_3) = T(t^2) = \begin{bmatrix} 9\\1\\1\\9 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and}$$

 $[T(\mathbf{b}_4)]_{\mathcal{E}} = T(\mathbf{b}_4) = T(t^3) = \begin{bmatrix} -27\\-1\\1\\27 \end{bmatrix}$, the matrix for T relative to B and \mathcal{E} is

$$[[T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{E}} \quad [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{E}} \quad [T(\mathbf{b}_3)]_{\mathcal{E}} \quad [T(\mathbf{b}_4)]_{\mathcal{E}}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 9 & -27 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 \end{bmatrix}.$$

11. Following Example 4, if $P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, then the *B*-matrix is

$$P^{-1}AP = \frac{1}{5} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

12. Following Example 4, if $P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, then the *B*-matrix is

$$P^{-1}AP = \frac{1}{5} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

13. Start by diagonalizing A. The characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3 = (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 3)$, so the eigenvalues of A are 1 and 3.

For $\lambda = 1$: $A - I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $-x_1 + x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = x_2$ with x_2

free. A basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

For $\lambda = 3$: $A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - 3I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $-3x_1 + x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = (1/3)x_2$ with

 x_2 free. A nice basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

From \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 we may construct $P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ which diagonalizes A. By Theorem 8, the basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ has the property that the B-matrix of the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is a diagonal matrix.

14. Start by diagonalizing A. The characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 - 6\lambda - 16 = (\lambda - 8)(\lambda + 2)$, so the eigenvalues of A are 8 and -2.

For $\lambda = 8$: $A - 8I = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -3 \\ -7 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - 8I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $x_1 + x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = -x_2$ with x_2

free. A basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

For $\lambda = 2$: $A + 2I = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -7 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - 2I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $7x_1 - 3x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = (3/7)x_2$

with x_2 free. A nice basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$.

From \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 we may construct $P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ which diagonalizes A. By Theorem 8, the basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ has the property that the B-matrix of the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is a diagonal matrix.

15. Start by diagonalizing A. The characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 = (\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2)$, so the eigenvalues of A are 5 and 2.

For $\lambda = 5$: $A - 5I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - 5I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = -2x_2$ with

 x_2 free. A basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2\\1 \end{bmatrix}$.

For $\lambda = 2$: $A - 2I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - 2I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $x_1 - x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = x_2$ with x_2

free. A basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

From \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 we may construct $P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ which diagonalizes A. By Theorem 8, the basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ has the property that the B-matrix of the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is a diagonal matrix.

16. Start by diagonalizing A. The characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 - 5\lambda = \lambda(\lambda - 5)$, so the eigenvalues of A are 5 and 0.

For $\lambda = 5$: $A - 5I = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - 5I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = -2x_2$ with

 x_2 free. A basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2\\1 \end{bmatrix}$.

For $\lambda = 0$: $A - 0I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -6 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - 0I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to $x_1 - 3x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = 3x_2$ with

 x_2 free. A basis vector for the eigenspace is thus $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

From \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 we may construct $P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ which diagonalizes A. By Theorem 8, the basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ has the property that the B-matrix of the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is a diagonal matrix.

17. a. We compute that

$$A\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2\mathbf{b}_1$$

so \mathbf{b}_1 is an eigenvector of A corresponding to the eigenvalue 2. The characteristic polynomial of A is $\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 4 = (\lambda - 2)^2$, so 2 is the only eigenvalue for A. Now $A - 2I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, which implies that

the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue 2 is one-dimensional. Thus the matrix A is not diagonalizable.

b. Following Example 4, if $P = [\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2]$, then the *B*-matrix for *T* is

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 5 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 18. If there is a basis B such that $[T]_B$ is diagonal, then A is similar to a diagonal matrix, by the second paragraph following Example 3. In this case, A would have three linearly independent eigenvectors. However, this is not necessarily the case, because A has only two distinct eigenvalues.
- 19. If A is similar to B, then there exists an invertible matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP = B$. Thus B is invertible because it is the product of invertible matrices. By a theorem about inverses of products, $B^{-1} = P^{-1}A^{-1}(P^{-1})^{-1} = P^{-1}A^{-1}P$, which shows that A^{-1} is similar to B^{-1} .
- **20.** If $A = PBP^{-1}$, then $A^2 = (PBP^{-1})(PBP^{-1}) = PB(P^{-1}P)BP^{-1} = PB \cdot I \cdot BP^{-1} = PB^2P^{-1}$. So A^2 is similar to B^2 .
- 21. By hypothesis, there exist invertible P and Q such that $P^{-1}BP = A$ and $Q^{-1}CQ = A$. Then $P^{-1}BP = Q^{-1}CQ$. Left-multiply by Q and right-multiply by Q^{-1} to obtain $QP^{-1}BPQ^{-1} = QQ^{-1}CQQ^{-1}$. So $C = QP^{-1}BPQ^{-1} = (PQ^{-1})^{-1}B(PQ^{-1})$, which shows that B is similar to C.
- **22**. If *A* is diagonalizable, then $A = PDP^{-1}$ for some *P*. Also, if *B* is similar to *A*, then $B = QAQ^{-1}$ for some *Q*. Then $B = Q(PDP^{-1})Q^{-1} = (QP)D(P^{-1}Q^{-1}) = (QP)D(QP)^{-1}$ So *B* is diagonalizable.
- 23. If $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$, then $P^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = \lambda P^{-1}\mathbf{x}$. If $B = P^{-1}AP$, then $B(P^{-1}\mathbf{x}) = P^{-1}AP(P^{-1}\mathbf{x}) = P^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = \lambda P^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ (*)

by the first calculation. Note that $P^{-1}\mathbf{x} \neq 0$, because $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$ and P^{-1} is invertible. Hence (*) shows that $P^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ is an eigenvector of B corresponding to λ . (Of course, λ is an eigenvalue of both A and B because the matrices are similar, by Theorem 4 in Section 5.2.)

24. If $A = PBP^{-1}$, then rank $A = \text{rank } P(BP^{-1}) = \text{rank } BP^{-1}$, by Supplementary Exercise 13 in Chapter 4. Also, rank $BP^{-1} = \text{rank } B$, by Supplementary Exercise 14 in Chapter 4, since P^{-1} is invertible. Thus rank A = rank B.

25. If $A = PBP^{-1}$, then

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \operatorname{tr}((PB)P^{-1}) = \operatorname{tr}(P^{-1}(PB))$$
 By the trace property
= $\operatorname{tr}(P^{-1}PB) = \operatorname{tr}(IB) = \operatorname{tr}(B)$

If B is diagonal, then the diagonal entries of B must be the eigenvalues of A, by the Diagonalization Theorem (Theorem 5 in Section 5.3). So tr $A = \text{tr } B = \{\text{sum of the eigenvalues of } A\}$.

- **26.** If $A = PDP^{-1}$ for some P, then the general trace property from Exercise 25 shows that $\operatorname{tr} A = \operatorname{tr} [(PD)P^{-1}] = \operatorname{tr} [P^{-1}PD] = \operatorname{tr} D$. (Or, one can use the result of Exercise 25 that since A is similar to D, $\operatorname{tr} A = \operatorname{tr} D$.) Since the eigenvalues of A are on the main diagonal of D, $\operatorname{tr} D$ is the sum of the eigenvalues of A.
- 27. For each j, $I(\mathbf{b}_j) = \mathbf{b}_j$. Since the standard coordinate vector of any vector in \mathbb{R}^n is just the vector itself, $[I(\mathbf{b}_j)]_{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{b}_j$. Thus the matrix for I relative to B and the standard basis ε is simply $[\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{b}_n]$. This matrix is precisely the *change-of-coordinates* matrix P_B defined in Section 4.4.
- **28.** For each j, $I(\mathbf{b}_j) = \mathbf{b}_j$, and $[I(\mathbf{b}_j)]_C = [\mathbf{b}_j]_C$. By formula (4), the matrix for I relative to the bases B and C is

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} [\mathbf{b}_1]_C & [\mathbf{b}_2]_C & \dots & [\mathbf{b}_n]_C \end{bmatrix}$$

In Theorem 15 of Section 4.7, this matrix was denoted by $P_{C \leftarrow B}$ and was called the *change-of-coordinates* matrix from B to C.

29. If $B = \{\mathbf{b}_1, ..., \mathbf{b}_n\}$, then the *B*-coordinate vector of \mathbf{b}_j is \mathbf{e}_j , the standard basis vector for \mathbb{R}^n . For instance,

$$\mathbf{b}_{1} = 1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_{1} + 0 \cdot \mathbf{b}_{2} + \dots + 0 \cdot \mathbf{b}_{n}$$
Thus $[I(\mathbf{b}_{j})]_{B} = [\mathbf{b}_{j}]_{B} = \mathbf{e}_{j}$, and
$$[I]_{B} = [[I(\mathbf{b}_{1})]_{B} \cdots [I(\mathbf{b}_{n})]_{B}] = [\mathbf{e}_{1} \cdots \mathbf{e}_{n}] = I$$

30. [M] If P is the matrix whose columns come from B, then the B-matrix of the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is $D = P^{-1}AP$. From the data in the text,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -14 & 4 & -14 \\ -33 & 9 & -31 \\ 11 & -4 & 11 \end{bmatrix}, P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \mathbf{b}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -14 & 4 & -14 \\ -33 & 9 & -31 \\ 11 & -4 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 3 & -6 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

31. [M] If P is the matrix whose columns come from B, then the B-matrix of the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is $D = P^{-1}AP$. From the data in the text,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -48 & -16 \\ 1 & 14 & 6 \\ -3 & -45 & -19 \end{bmatrix}, P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \mathbf{b}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -3 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -1/3 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1/3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -48 & -16 \\ 1 & 14 & 6 \\ -3 & -45 & -19 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -3 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -2 & -6 \\ 0 & -4 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

32. [M]
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 15 & -66 & -44 & -33 \\ 0 & 13 & 21 & -15 \\ 1 & -15 & -21 & 12 \\ 2 & -18 & -22 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $ev = eig(A) = (2, 4, 4, 5)$

nulbasis (A-ev(1) *eye(4)) =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.0000 \\ -1.5000 \\ 1.5000 \\ 1.0000 \end{bmatrix}$$

A basis for the eigenspace of $\lambda = 2$ is $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -3 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

nulbasis (A-ev(2)*eye(4)) =
$$\begin{bmatrix} -10.0000 \\ -2.3333 \\ 1.0000 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 13.0000 \\ 1.6667 \\ 0 \\ 1.0000 \end{bmatrix}$$

A basis for the eigenspace of $\lambda = 4$ is $\{\mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -30 \\ -7 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 39 \\ 5 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

nulbasis (A-ev(4) *eye(4)) =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2.7500 \\ -0.7500 \\ 1.0000 \\ 1.0000 \end{bmatrix}$$

A basis for the eigenspace of $\lambda = 5$ is $\mathbf{b}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ -3 \\ 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$.

The basis $B = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_4\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^4 with the property that $[T]_B$ is diagonal.