## Lecture Outline for Monday, Sept. 18

1. Review of properties of symmetric real matrices
a. $\quad A^{T}=A$
b. All eigenvalues are real; all eigenvectors are LI
c. Distinct eigenvalues $\rightarrow$ orthogonal eigenvectors (also LI)
d. Repeated eigenvalues $\rightarrow$ LI eigenvectors but might not be orthogonal
e. Singular symmetric matrices have at least one zero eigenvalue; even so, all eigenvectors are LI.
2. Orthogonal matrices $\left(A^{-1}=A^{T}\right.$, which implies that $\left.A^{T} A=I\right)$
a. $A$ is orthogonal iff its columns form an orthonormal set (orthonormal is orthogonal with each vector having a length of 1; i.e., $|\mathbf{x}|=\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{x}=1$ )
b. Orthogonal matrices are not usually symmetric (The only orthogonal and symmetric matrix is $I$ because a matrix that has both properties must satisfy $A^{-1}=A^{T}=A$.)
c. Important application: Various kinds of diagonalizations, which can improve the efficiency of difficult computations and reveal skewness of basis vectors
d. Example: Check that $A^{-1}=A^{T}$ and that the columns form an orthonormal set of vectors.

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\
\frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\
-\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3}
\end{array}\right]
$$

3. Diagonalization
a. Express $N \times N$ matrix $A$ as $A=P D P^{-1}$, where $D$ is a diagonal matrix
b. $A$ does not have to be symmetric or orthogonal to be diagonalizable.
c. Theorem: An $N \times N$ matrix $A$ is diagonalizable iff $A$ has $N$ LI eigenvectors.
d. Theorem: If $N \times N$ matrix $A$ has $N$ distinct eigenvalues then it is diagonalizable (but it might be diagonalizable even if the eigenvalues are not distinct, that is, if some are repeated).
e. Theorem: An $N \times N$ matrix $A$ can be orthogonally diagonalized iff $A$ is symmetric. (Orthogonal diagonalization means that $P$ is orthogonal.)
f. Many ways to diagonalize a matrix.
g. One important example: Given an $N \times N$ matrix $A$ with LI eigenvectors, since $A \mathbf{x}_{1}=$ $\lambda_{1} \mathbf{x}_{1}, A \mathbf{x}_{1}=\lambda_{1} \mathbf{x}_{1}$, etc., then, using the definitions

$$
\Lambda=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\lambda_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{2} & & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\
0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_{N}
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad X=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
\mathbf{x}_{1} & \mathbf{x}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_{N} \\
\downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $X$ is formed by making its columns equal to the eigenvectors, we obtain $A X=X \Lambda \rightarrow A=X \Lambda X^{-1}$. Thus, an $N \times N$ matrix $A$ with LI eigenvectors can be diagonalized into its eigenvalues and eigenvectors.
h. Example: Attempt to diagonalize the following matrix:

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-5 & 9 \\
-6 & 10
\end{array}\right]
$$

