Most important ideas:

• Diagonalization of a matrix. This is very useful and helps us really understand what a particular matrix "is" and what is happening when you multiply a vector by that matrix.

Example 1: 
$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, D^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Similarly,  $D^k = \begin{bmatrix} 2^k & 0 \\ 0 & (-3)^k \end{bmatrix}$ .  
In general, for diagonal matrix  $D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & d_2 & d_n \end{bmatrix}, D^k = \begin{bmatrix} d_1^k & d_2^k & d_n^k \end{bmatrix}$ .

We like diagonal matrices for a plethora of reasons, including this one.

Next, suppose that  $n \times n$  matrix A has n distinct (i.e. linearly independent) eigenvectors  $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, ..., \vec{v}_n$  with corresponding eigenvalues (not necessarily all different)  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_n$ . Then:

$$A[\vec{v}_1 \ \vec{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \vec{v}_n] = [A\vec{v}_1 \ A\vec{v}_2 \ \cdots \ A\vec{v}_n] = [\lambda_1\vec{v}_1 \ \lambda_2\vec{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \lambda_n\vec{v}_n] = [\vec{v}_1 \ \vec{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \vec{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ & \ddots \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

That is, AP = PD, where the columns of P are the eigenvectors of A. So if P has an inverse,

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$
, and  $A^2 = (PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) = PD^2P^{-1}$ 

and in general:

$$A^k = P D^k P^{-1} \, .$$

But does  $P^{-1}$  always exist? Only if the columns of P are linearly independent, which is the case if P has a <u>complete</u> set of eigenvectors.

Recall that  $A\vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x} \Rightarrow A^{-1}\vec{x} = \frac{1}{\lambda}\vec{x}$ , so  $A^{-1}$  has the same eigenvectors (the columns of P) as A with eigenvalues that are 1 / eigenvalues of A, so since  $A = PDP^{-1}$ , then

$$A^{-1} = PD^{-1}P^{-1} \text{ where } D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\lambda_1 & & & \\ & 1/\lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1/\lambda_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

This happens to be  $A^k = PD^kP^{-1}$  for the case of k = -1.

We could also have found  $A^{-1}$  by finding  $A^{-1} = (PDP^{-1})^{-1} = (P^{-1})^{-1}D^{-1}P^{-1} = PD^{-1}P^{-1}$ .

Example 1:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 1 & 3 \\ -7 & 3 & 3 \\ -7 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$  has eigenvectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$  with eigenvalues -1, 2, 2. Then for this A we have  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ . Check that  $PDP^{-1} = A$ . Then  $A^{10} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (-1)^{10} & 2^{10} & 2^{10} \\ 2^{10} & 2^{10} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1363 & 341 & 1023 \\ -2387 & 1365 & 1023 \\ -2387 & 341 & 2047 \end{bmatrix}$ . Example 2:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} .95 & .03 \\ .05 & .97 \end{bmatrix}$  has eigenvectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ .17 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  with eigenvalues 1, 0.92. Then  $A = PDP^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & .92 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$  and  $\lim_{k \to \infty} A^k = \lim_{k \to \infty} PD^kP^{-1} = P(\lim_{k \to \infty} D^k)P^{-1}$   $= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$   $= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ .5 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ .5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$  $= \begin{bmatrix} .375 & .375 \\ .675 \end{bmatrix}$ .

If wanted, we can put eigenvectors in different forms/locations in diagonalizing a matrix.