

## TLDR

Quick summary of today's notes. Lecture starts on next page.

- Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Let  $I = I_n$  be the  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

Let  $\lambda$  be a number and suppose  $0 \neq v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

If  $Av = \lambda v$  then we say that  $v$  is an *eigenvector* for  $A$  and that  $\lambda$  is an *eigenvalue* for  $A$ .

More specifically,  $v$  is an *eigenvector with eigenvalue*  $\lambda$  for  $A$ .

- The eigenvalues of  $A$  are the solutions to the *characteristic equation*  $\det(A - xI) = 0$ .

If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue that  $\text{Nul}(A - \lambda I)$  is the  $\lambda$ -*eigenspace* of  $A$ .

To find a basis for the  $\lambda$ -eigenspace, use our familiar algorithm for finding bases of null spaces.

- Suppose  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  are eigenvectors for  $A$ .

Let  $\lambda_i$  be the eigenvalue such that  $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$ .

If  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$  are all distinct, then  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  are linearly independent.

- If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices and there exists an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix  $P$  with

$$A = PBP^{-1}$$

then we say that  $A$  is *similar* to  $B$  and that  $B$  is *similar* to  $A$ .

Any matrix is similar to itself, and if  $A$  is similar to  $B$  and  $B$  is similar to  $C$  then  $A$  is similar to  $C$ .

- Similar matrices have the same characteristic equations and same eigenvalues.
- $A$  is *diagonalizable* if  $A$  is similar to a diagonal matrix  $D$ .

One useful property of diagonalizable matrices: if  $A = PDP^{-1}$  where  $D$  is diagonal, then there are simple formulas for each entry in the matrix  $A^n = PD^nP^{-1}$  for all positive integers  $n$ .

# 1 Eigenvector and eigenvalues

Everywhere in this lecture,  $n$  is a positive integer and  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix.

Let  $I$  denote the  $n \times n$  identity matrix. Let  $\lambda$  be a number.

**Definition.** A vector  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is an *eigenvector* for  $A$  with *eigenvalue*  $\lambda$  if  $v \neq 0$  and  $Av = \lambda v$ .

The set of all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $Av = \lambda v$  is the  $\lambda$ -*eigenspace* of  $A$  for  $\lambda$ . This is just the nullspace of  $A - \lambda I$ .

**Proposition.** Let  $\lambda$  be a number. The following are equivalent:

1. There exists a (nonzero) eigenvector  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  for  $A$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .
2. The matrix  $A - \lambda I$  is not invertible.
3.  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ .
4. The  $\lambda$ -eigenspace for  $A$  contains a nonzero vector.

As usual, a matrix is *triangular* if it is upper-triangular or lower-triangular.

**Theorem.** The eigenvalues of a triangular square matrix  $A$  are its diagonal entries. If these numbers are  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n$  then the characteristic polynomial of  $A$  is  $(d_1 - x)(d_2 - x) \cdots (d_n - x)$ .

Here is a result we didn't see last time:

**Theorem.** Suppose  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$  are **distinct** eigenvalues for  $A$ .

Let  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be the corresponding eigenvectors, so that  $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ .

Then the vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  are linearly independent.

*Proof.* Suppose  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  are linearly dependent. We argue that this leads to a logical contradiction.

There must exist an index  $p > 0$  such that  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p$  are linearly independent and  $v_{p+1}$  is a linearly combination of  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p$ . (Otherwise, the vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  would be linearly independent.)

Let  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p \in \mathbb{R}$  be scalars such that  $v_{p+1} = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \cdots + c_p v_p$ . Then

$$\lambda_{p+1} v_{p+1} = Av_{p+1} = A(c_1 v_1 + \cdots + c_p v_p) = c_1 Av_1 + \cdots + c_p Av_p = c_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 v_2 + \cdots + c_p \lambda_p v_p.$$

On the other hand, multiplying both sides of  $v_{p+1} = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \cdots + c_p v_p$  by  $\lambda_{p+1}$  gives

$$\lambda_{p+1} v_{p+1} = c_1 \lambda_{p+1} v_1 + c_2 \lambda_{p+1} v_2 + \cdots + c_p \lambda_{p+1} v_p.$$

By subtracting the two equations, we get

$$0 = \lambda_{p+1} v_{p+1} - \lambda_{p+1} v_{p+1} = c_1 (\lambda_1 - \lambda_{p+1}) v_1 + c_2 (\lambda_2 - \lambda_{p+1}) v_2 + \cdots + c_p (\lambda_p - \lambda_{p+1}) v_p.$$

Since the vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p$  are linearly independent by assumption, we must have

$$c_1 (\lambda_1 - \lambda_{p+1}) = c_2 (\lambda_2 - \lambda_{p+1}) = \cdots = c_p (\lambda_p - \lambda_{p+1}) = 0.$$

But the differences  $\lambda_i - \lambda_{p+1}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$  are all nonzero, so we must have  $c_1 = c_2 = \cdots = c_p = 0$ . This implies that  $v_{p+1} = 0$ , contradicting our assumption that  $v_{p+1}$  is a (necessarily nonzero) eigenvector.

We conclude from the contradiction that actually the vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  are linearly independent.  $\square$

**Definition.** Let  $x$  be a variable. Then  $\det(A - xI)$  is a polynomial in  $x$ , called the *characteristic polynomial* of  $A$ . The eigenvalues of  $A$  are precisely the solutions to the equation  $\det(A - xI) = 0$  which we call the *characteristic equation* for  $A$ .

**Example.** The matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 6 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

has characteristic polynomial  $\det(A - xI) = (5 - x)(3 - x)(5 - x)(1 - x) = (5 - x)^2(x - 3)(1 - x)$ .

Since this polynomial has two linear factors given by a constant multiple of  $5 - x$ , i.e., since  $(5 - x)^2$  divides  $\det(A - xI)$ , we say that 5 is an eigenvalue of  $A$  with *algebraic multiplicity* 2.

The other eigenvalues 1 and 3 have *algebraic multiplicity* 1.

We consider the following example in more depth.

**Example.** Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since  $A$  is triangular, its characteristic polynomial is  $(1 - x)(2 - x)(3 - x)$  and its eigenvalues are 1, 2, 3.

Each eigenvalue in this example has algebraic multiplicity 1. We compute the corresponding eigenspaces:

**1-eigenspace.** The eigenvectors of  $A$  with eigenvalue 1 are the nonzero elements of  $\text{Nul}(A - I)$ .

$$A - I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 5 & 4 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & 5 & 4 \\ & & 2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 4 \\ & & 2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 1 \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{RREF}(A - I).$$

This shows that  $x \in \text{Nul}(A - I)$  if and only if  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , so  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is a basis

for  $\text{Nul}(A - I)$ . Therefore all eigenvectors of  $A$  with eigenvalue 1 are nonzero scalar multiples of  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**2-eigenspace.** The eigenvectors of  $A$  with eigenvalue 2 are the nonzero elements of  $\text{Nul}(A - 2I)$ .

$$A - 2I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 5 & 4 \\ & 0 & 0 \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 & 0 \\ & 0 & 1 \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{RREF}(A - 2I).$$

This shows that  $x \in \text{Nul}(A - 2I)$  if and only if  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5x_2 \\ x_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , so  $\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is a basis

for  $\text{Nul}(A - 2I)$ . All eigenvectors of  $A$  with eigenvalue 2 are nonzero scalar multiples of  $\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**3-eigenspace.** The eigenvectors of  $A$  with eigenvalue 3 are the nonzero elements of  $\text{Nul}(A - 3I)$ .

$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 5 & 4 \\ & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 4 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{RREF}(A - 3I).$$

This shows that  $x \in \text{Nul}(A - 3I)$  if and only if  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_3 \\ 0 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  so  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is a basis for  $\text{Nul}(A - 3I)$ . All eigenvectors of  $A$  with eigenvalue 3 are nonzero scalar multiples of  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Since the eigenvalues 1, 2, 3, are distinct, the eigenvectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  are linearly independent.

Consider the **invertible** matrix whose columns are given by these linearly independent vectors:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

As usual, let  $e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $e_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . The product  $Pe_i$  is the  $i$ th column of  $P$ , so

$$Pe_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad Pe_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad Pe_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since  $Px = y$  means that  $P^{-1}y = P^{-1}Px = Ix = x$ , it follows that

$$P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = e_1 \quad \text{and} \quad P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = e_2 \quad \text{and} \quad P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = e_3.$$

Combining these identities shows that

$$\begin{aligned} P^{-1}APe_1 &= P^{-1}A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = e_1. \\ P^{-1}APe_2 &= P^{-1}A \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2e_2. \\ P^{-1}APe_3 &= P^{-1}A \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 3P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 3e_3. \end{aligned}$$

These calculations determine the columns of the matrix  $P^{-1}AP$ .

In fact, we see that  $P^{-1}AP = D$  where  $D = [e_1 \quad 2e_2 \quad 3e_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

This means that  $A = P(P^{-1}AP)P^{-1} = PDP^{-1}$ , i.e.,

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

One application of this decomposition: we can derive a simple formula for an arbitrary power  $A^n$  of  $A$ . Define  $A^0 = I$ ,  $A^1 = A$ ,  $A^2 = AA$ ,  $A^3 = AAA$ , and so on.

**Lemma.** For any integer  $n \geq 0$  we have  $A^n = (PDP^{-1})^n = PD^nP^{-1}$ .

*Proof.* Do some small examples and convince yourself that the pattern continues:

$$\begin{aligned} A^2 &= AA = PDP^{-1}PDP^{-1} = PDIDP^{-1} = PD^2P^{-1} \\ A^3 &= A^2A = PD^2P^{-1}PDP^{-1} = PD^2IDP^{-1} = PD^3P^{-1} \\ A^4 &= A^3A = PD^3P^{-1}PDP^{-1} = PD^3IDP^{-1} = PD^4P^{-1} \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

and so on. □

**Lemma.** For any integer  $n \geq 0$  we have

$$D^n = \begin{bmatrix} 1^n & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^n \end{bmatrix}.$$

*Proof.* To multiply diagonal matrices we just multiply the entries in the corresponding diagonal positions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & & & \\ & x_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & x_k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & & & \\ & y_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & y_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1 & & & \\ & x_2y_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & x_ky_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore to evaluate  $D^n = DD \cdots D$ , we just raise each diagonal entry to the  $n$ th power. □

Finally, by the usual algorithm we can compute  $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 & -2 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

(Check that this is the correct inverse of  $P$ !)

Putting everything together gives the identity

$$\begin{aligned} A^n &= PD^nP^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 & -2 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 \cdot 2^n & 2 \cdot 3^n \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 & -2 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5(2^n - 1) & 2(3^n - 1) \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^n \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

**Remark.** We've done all these calculations for their own sake as a means of illustrating some key concepts. But these calculations would also come up in the solution of the following discrete dynamical

system. Suppose  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots$ , and  $c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots$  are sequences of numbers. For each integer  $n \geq 1$ , suppose

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + 5b_{n-1} + 4c_{n-1} \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = 2b_{n-1} \quad \text{and} \quad c_n = 3c_{n-1}. \quad (*)$$

How could we find a formula for  $a_n, b_n$ , and  $c_n$  in terms of  $n$  and the sequences' initial values  $a_0, b_0, c_0$ ? Note that (\*) is equivalent to

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ b_n \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{n-1} \\ b_{n-1} \\ c_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} a_{n-1} \\ b_{n-1} \\ c_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = A^2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{n-2} \\ b_{n-2} \\ c_{n-2} \end{bmatrix} = \dots = A^n \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ b_0 \\ c_0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, our formula for  $A^n$  gives

$$a_n = a_0 + 5(2^n - 1)b_0 + 2(3^n - 1)c_0 \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = 2^n b_0 \quad \text{and} \quad c_n = 3^n c_0.$$

If  $a_0 = b_0 = c_0 = 1$  then  $a_{10} = 123212$  and  $b_{10} = 1024$  and  $c_{10} = 59049$ . Moreover,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{3^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_0 + 5(2^n - 1)b_0 + 2(3^n - 1)c_0}{3^n} = 2c_0.$$

## 2 Similar matrices

**Definition.** Two  $n \times n$  matrices  $X$  and  $Y$  are *similar* if there exists an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix  $P$  with

$$X = PYP^{-1}.$$

In this case observe that  $Y = P^{-1}PYP^{-1}P = P^{-1}XP$ .

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are similar, then we say that “ $X$  is *similar to*  $Y$ ” and “ $Y$  is *similar to*  $X$ .”

In the previous example we showed that  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  are similar matrices.

There is a special name for this kind of similarity:

**Definition.** A square matrix  $X$  is *diagonalizable* if  $X$  is similar to a diagonal matrix

**Proposition.** An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is always similar to itself.

*Proof.* Since  $I = I^{-1}$  we have  $A = PAP^{-1}$  for  $P = I$ . □

**Proposition.** Suppose  $A, B, C$  are  $n \times n$  matrices. Assume  $A$  and  $B$  are similar. Assume  $B$  and  $C$  are also similar. Then  $A$  and  $C$  are similar.

*Proof.* If  $A = PBP^{-1}$  and  $B = QCQ^{-1}$  then  $R = PQ$  is invertible and  $A = RCR^{-1}$ . □

**Theorem.** If  $A$  and  $B$  are similar  $n \times n$  matrices then  $A$  and  $B$  have the same characteristic polynomial and so have the same eigenvalues. (Similar matrices usually have different eigenvectors, however.)

*Proof.* Recall that  $\det(XY) = \det(X)\det(Y)$ . Assume  $A = PBP^{-1}$ . Then

$$A - xI = P(B - xI)P^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad \det(A - xI) = \det(P(B - xI)P^{-1}) = \det(P)\det(B - xI)\det(P^{-1}).$$

But  $\det(P)\det(P^{-1}) = \det(PP^{-1}) = \det(I) = 1$ , so  $\det(A - xI) = \det(B - xI)$ . □

### 3 Vocabulary

Keywords from today's lecture:

1. **Characteristic equation** of a square matrix  $A$ .

The equation  $\det(A - xI) = 0$ , where  $I$  is the identity matrix with the same size as  $A$ .

The solutions  $x$  for this equation give all eigenvalues of  $A$ .

Example: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  then

$$\det(A - xI) = \det \begin{bmatrix} -x & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & -x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 - x \end{bmatrix} = (2 - x)(x^2 - 4) = (2 - x)^2(-2 - x) = 0$$

has solutions  $x = 2$  and  $x = -2$ . These solutions are the eigenvalues for  $A$ .

2. **Algebraic multiplicity** of an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of square matrix  $A$ .

The number of times the factor  $(\lambda - x)$  divides the characteristic polynomial  $\det(A - xI)$ .

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  then 2 has algebraic multiplicity 2 and  $-2$  has algebraic multiplicity 1.

3. **Similar matrices.**

Two  $n \times n$  matrices  $A$  and  $B$  are similar if there exists an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix  $M$  with

$$A = MBM^{-1}.$$

If  $A$  and  $B$  are similar and  $B$  and  $C$  are similar, then  $A$  and  $C$  are similar.

Example:  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  is similar to  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$ .

4. **Diagonalizable matrix.**

A matrix that is similar to a diagonal matrix.