Example 80. (review) In Example 15, we diagonalized $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ as $A = PDP^{-1}$.

We found that one choice for P and D is $P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Spell out what that tells us about A!

Solution. The diagonal entries $5, 2, 2$ of D are the eigenvalues of A.
The columns of P are corresponding eigenvectors of A.

- $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 5-eigenvector of A (that is, $A\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 5\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$).
- The 2-eigenspace of A is 2-dimensional. A basis is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Lemma 81. A matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if, for every eigenvalue λ that is k times repeated, the λ-eigenspace of A has dimension k.

In short, an $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if there exists a basis of $\mathbb{R}^n$ consisting of eigenvectors of A (i.e. "there are enough eigenvectors").

The next two examples illustrate that not all matrices are diagonalizable and that, even if a real matrix is diagonalizable, the eigenvalues and eigenvectors might be complex.

Example 82. What are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$? Is A diagonalizable?

Solution. The characteristic polynomial is $\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix}\right) = \lambda^2$, which has $\lambda = 0$ as a double root.

However, the 0-eigenspace $\operatorname{null}(A) = \operatorname{span}\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right\}$ is only 1-dimensional.

As a consequence, A is not diagonalizable.

Example 83. What are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$? Is A diagonalizable?

Solution. The characteristic polynomial is $\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & -1 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix}\right) = \lambda^2 + 1 = (\lambda - i)(\lambda + i)$.
Hence, the eigenvalues are $\pm i$.

The i-eigenspace $\operatorname{null}\left(\begin{bmatrix} -i & -1 \\ 1 & -i \end{bmatrix}\right)$ has basis $\begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

The $-i$-eigenspace $\operatorname{null}\left(\begin{bmatrix} i & -1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix}\right)$ has basis $\begin{bmatrix} -i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Thus, A has the diagonalization $A = PDP^{-1}$ with $D = \begin{bmatrix} i & \\ & -i \end{bmatrix}$ and $P = \begin{bmatrix} i & -i \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

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The spectral theorem

Recall that a matrix A is symmetric if and only if $A^T = A$.

Theorem 84. (spectral theorem, long version) Suppose A is a symmetric matrix.

- A is always diagonalizable.
- All eigenvalues of A are real.
- The eigenspaces of A are orthogonal.

Comment. The eigenspaces of A being orthogonal means that eigenvectors for different eigenvalues are always orthogonal.

Important consequence. In the diagonalization $A = PDP^{-1}$, we can choose P to be orthogonal (in which case $P^{-1} = P^T$). In that case, the diagonalization takes the special form $A = PDP^T$, where P is orthogonal and D is diagonal.

Example 85. (again) Diagonalize the symmetric matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ as $A = PDP^T$.

Solution. See Example 78 for a solution that illustrates how to diagonalize any symmetric matrix.

Here, let us observe that (because the row sums are equal!) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 4-eigenvector.

Because the eigenspaces are orthogonal (since A is symmetric!), $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ must be an eigenvector. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$, so the corresponding eigenvalues is -2.

We normalize the two eigenvectors and use them as the columns of P, so that $P = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an orthogonal matrix ($P^{-1} = P^T$). With $D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ we then have $A = PDP^T$.

Example 86. Let A be a symmetric 2×2 matrix with 7-eigenvector $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\det(A) = -21$. Determine the second eigenvalue and a corresponding eigenvector.

Solution. A has $-\frac{21}{7} = -3$-eigenvector $\begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Comment. Recall that, because A is symmetric, the eigenvector must be orthogonal to $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

[In general, $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} -b \\ a \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal.]

(spectral theorem, compact version) A symmetric matrix A can always be diagonalized as $A = PDP^T$, where P is orthogonal and D is diagonal (and both are real).

How? We proceed as in the diagonalization $A = PDP^{-1}$. We then arrange P to be orthogonal, by normalizing its columns. If there is a repeated eigenvalue, then we also need to make sure to pick an orthonormal basis for the corresponding eigenspace (for instance, using Gram–Schmidt).

Advanced comment. A matrix such that $A^T A = A A^T$ is called **normal**. For normal matrices, the (complex!) eigenspaces are again orthogonal to each other. However, normal matrices which are not symmetric will always have complex eigenvalues. (In that case, the orthogonal matrix P gets replaced with a unitary matrix, the complex version of orthogonal matrices, and the P^T becomes the conjugate transpose $P^* = \bar{P}^T$.)