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The vector space \mathbb{R}^n has an inner product, where we can define the length of a vector by

$$||\vec{v}|| = \sqrt{\vec{v}^T \vec{v}}$$

We would like to generalize the concept of length and angle for vectors in \mathbb{C}^n , but we have a problem:

What is the length of the vector

$$\binom{1}{i}$$

After calculation

$$\left(1 \quad i\right) \left(\begin{matrix} 1\\ i \end{matrix}\right) = 1 - 1 = 0.$$

The length of this vector is zero. This could be meaning ful, but, ...

Generalization of inner product of \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{C}^n : 2 approach

- 1. First generalization: $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \vec{v}^T \vec{w}$;
- 2. Second generalization: $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \overline{\vec{v}^T} \vec{w}$.

The second generalization has been used by god to create our universe, it appears repeatedly in the quantum machanics.

In this class, we will study the second generalization, the inner product over \mathbb{C}^n defined by $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \overline{\vec{v}^T} \vec{w}$. This is called **Hermitian inner product**

To simplify the notation, we also denote by

$$\vec{v}^H := \overline{\vec{v}^T}.$$

The letter H refers to Hermitian.

Definition 1

For a matrix A, we define

$$A^H := \overline{A^T}$$

and call it the **Hermitian transpose**

The Hermitian transpose is a direct generalization of the transpose for real number matrices.

Proposition 1

 $A^{H} = A^{T}$ if and only if A is a real-coefficient matrix.

Proposition 2

The Hermitian transpose clearly have the following properties.

- For any A, B of the same size, $(A + B)^H = A^H + B^H$
- For any A, B, we have $(AB)^H = B^H A^H$

Recall that the properties of inner product

Theorem 1

For any non-zero vector $\vec{0} \neq \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have $\vec{v}^T \vec{v} > 0$.

This is because if we write $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{pmatrix}^T$, then $\vec{v}^T \vec{v} = x_1^2 + \ldots + x_n^2 > 0$. The result directly generalizes to matrices

Lemma 1

For any **non-zero** matrix M, we have $M^TM \neq 0$.

Clear, the above positivity property no longer holds for the **first generalization** of inner product to $\vec{v}^T \vec{w}$ for \mathbb{C}^n , because

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}^T \vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = 1^2 + i^2 = 0$$

A non-zero vector of length 0? A non-zero vector perpendicular to itself?

For the second generalization, the length of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \end{pmatrix}^T$ is no longer zero

$$\vec{v}^H \vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = 1^2 - i^2 = 2 = 0.$$

The positivity lemma holds. Idea:

$$(\overline{x_1} \quad \overline{x_2} \quad \dots \quad \overline{x_n}) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \overline{x_1}x_1 + \overline{x_2}x_2 + \dots + \overline{x_n}x_n$$

$$= \underbrace{|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2}_{\text{all non-negative real numbers}} > 0$$

Theorem 2

For any non-zero vector $\vec{0} \neq \vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, we have $\vec{v}^H \vec{v} > 0$.

This is because if we write $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{pmatrix}^T$, then $\vec{v}^H \vec{v} = |x_1|^2 + \ldots + |x_n|^2 > 0$. The result directly generalizes to matrices

Lemma 2

For any **non-zero** complex coefficient matrix M, we have $M^HM \neq 0$.

Definition 2

A matrix *M* is called (Hermitian) Normal if

$$M^H M = M M^H$$

Next, we show a **general philosophy** in linear algebra, roughly speaking, that

Normal under an involution with positivity lemma \implies Diagonalizable

To work on a more general settings, we introduce

Definition 3

An involution ι is an action associate each $n \times n$ matrix M with another matrix M^{ι} , such that

- $(A+B)^{\iota}=A^{\iota}+B^{\iota}$
- $(AB)^{\iota} = A^{\iota}B^{\iota}$ or $(AB)^{\iota} = B^{\iota}A^{\iota}$
- ullet For any scalar, λ , there is a scalar λ^ι , such that $(\lambda I_n)^\iota = \lambda^\iota I_n$

Any involution satisfies the above property would satisfy

$$p(A^{\iota}) = (p(A))^{\iota}$$

for any polynomial p.

For $\iota = T$, $\iota = H$ they are all involutions. But $A \longmapsto -A$ or $A \longmapsto A^{-1}$ is not an involution.

Definition 4

Let ι be an involution, a matrix is called ι -normal if $AA^{\iota}=A^{\iota}A$.

Theorem 3

Let ι be an involution on $n \times n$ matrices, if ι satisfies the positivity lemma $A^{\iota}A = 0 \implies A = 0$ for all matrices A, then any ι -normal matrices A with

$$\det(tI-A) = \prod_{i=1}^k (t-\lambda_i)^{m_i}$$

are diagonalizable

Proof: Without loss of generality we may say $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k$ are distinct roots, let

$$N = \prod_{i=1}^{k} (A - \lambda_i I_n)$$

Then Ais diagonalizable \iff N=0. By Caylay Hamilton Theroem, we know $N^n=0$.

Since A is ι -normal, $A^{\iota}A = AA^{\iota}$, N must be normal $N^{\iota}N = NN^{\iota}$.

Now

$$\underbrace{NN\dots N}_{n-\text{many}} = 0 \implies \underbrace{NN\dots N}_{n-\text{many}} \underbrace{N^{\iota}N^{\iota}\dots N^{\iota}}_{n-\text{many}} = 0$$

Since N commute with N^{ι} , we have

$$\underbrace{NN^{\iota}NN^{\iota}NN^{\iota}\dots NN^{\iota}}_{n-\text{many }NN^{\iota}}=0$$

If n is odd, we replace n by n + 1, we separate

$$\underbrace{NN^{\iota}\dots NN^{\iota}}_{\frac{n}{2}-\mathsf{many}}\underbrace{NN^{\iota}\dots NN^{\iota}}_{\frac{n}{2}-\mathsf{many}}=0$$

However, this equals to

$$\underbrace{\mathit{NN}^\iota \ldots \mathit{NN}^\iota}_{\frac{n}{2}-\mathsf{many}} (\underbrace{\mathit{NN}^\iota \ldots \mathit{NN}^\iota}_{\frac{n}{2}-\mathsf{many}})^\iota = 0$$

Therefore
$$\underbrace{NN^{\iota}...NN^{\iota}}_{\underline{q}-many}=0$$

Use this strategy again and again, we finally got

$$NN^{\iota}=0$$

Therefore N=0. This implies that the matrix A is diagonalizable.

In particular, if A is a matrix with complex numbers, any complex-coefficient polynomial can be written in the form

$$\prod_{i=1}^k (t-\lambda_i)^{m_i}$$

Corollary 1

Let A be a Hermitian Normal matrix in the sense that $A^HA = AA^H$, then A is diagonalizable.

We are not satisfied.

Definition 5

A matrix A is called **Hermitian-symmetric** if $A = A^H$

Definition 6

A matrix A is called ι -symmetric if $A = A^{\iota}$

An example of Hermitian symmetric matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Definition 7

A matrix A is called **unitary** if $AA^H = A^HA = I$

Definition 8

A matrix A is called ι -orthogonal if $AA^{\iota} = A^{\iota}A = I$

An example of Hermitian orthogonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix}
\sqrt{0.5} & i\sqrt{0.5} \\
\sqrt{0.5} & -i\sqrt{0.5}
\end{pmatrix}$$

In our lecture, we will prove this theroem

Theorem 4

Let A be a Hermitian normal matrix, then there exists unitary matrix $\Omega = \Omega^{-1}{}^H$, such that

$$\Omega^{-1}A\Omega = \Omega^H A\Omega = \Lambda$$

is a diagonal matrix!

Note that in spectural decomposition

$$g(A) = g(\lambda_1)P_1 + g(\lambda_2)P_2 + \ldots + g(\lambda_k)P_k$$

All matrices P_i are obtained by plugging A into interpolation polynomials, so if A is Hermitian-normal, then P_i are normal as well!

Lemma 3

If $P = P^2$ is a projection and normal

$$P^{H}P = PP^{H}$$

Then P must be Hermitian symmetric $P^H = P$.

Proof: Consdier

$$(P - P^{H}P)(P - P^{H}P)^{H} = PP^{H} - PP^{H}P - P^{H}P^{H}P + (P^{H}P)^{2}$$
$$= PP^{H} - 2P^{H}P + P^{H}P = 0$$

By **positivity lemma** for H , we have $P - P^{H}P = 0$, this implies $P = P^{H}P$. So

$$P = P^{H}P = (P^{H}P)^{H} = P^{H}.$$



The above proof essentially only uses positivity. Therefore, if ι is an involution with positivity lemma, any ι -normal projection is ι -symmetric.

Corollary 2

Suppose A is a normal matrix over \mathbb{C} , then A is diagonalizable and its spectural decomposition

$$g(A) = g(\lambda_1)P_1 + \ldots + g(\lambda_k)P_k$$

all eigenspace projection are Hermitian symmetric.

Recall previously, we leaned a projection P is symmetric iff $\ker(P) \perp \operatorname{Im}(P)$. In real number matrices, we have learned that if $P_1 + \ldots + P_k = I$ and $P_i^T = P_i$, then all $\operatorname{Im}(P_i)$ are orthogonal to each other.

Definition 9

Two vector \vec{v} , \vec{w} is called **Hermitian orthogonal**, if

$$\vec{v}^H \vec{w} = 0$$

Definition 10

Two subspaces W_1, W_2 are called **Hermitian orthogonal** if and only if for any $\vec{v} \in W_1$ and $\vec{w} \in W_2$, we have $\vec{v}^H \vec{w} = 0$. In this case, we denote it by $W_1 \perp W_2$.

Theorem 5

A matrix *A* is normal if and only if it is diagonalizable with **mutually Hermitian-orthogonal eigenspaces**.

To obtain an unitary diagonalization, we simply use diagonal cross-filling.

Excercise. Find an unitary diagonalization of the following matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues 0, 3.

We have the following special type of normal matrices,

- Hermitian symmetric matrices $A^H = A$;
- skew-Hermitian symmetric matrices $A^H = -A$;
- Unitary matrices $A^H = A^{-1}$;

They are all normal operators!!

How can we visualize them in the context of spectural decomposition???

$$g(A) = g(\lambda_1)P_1 + \ldots + g(\lambda_k)P_k \qquad P_i^H = P_i$$

Note that complex conjugation are the one compatible with $^{\it H}$

$$(\lambda I_n)^H = \overline{\lambda} I_n$$

Theorem 6

A matrix A is Hermitian symmetric $A = A^H$ if and only if A is diagonalizable, eigenspaces mutually Hermitian orthogonal with real eigenvalues.

Proof:

$$A = A^H$$

 \iff

$$\lambda_1 P_1 + \ldots + \lambda_k P_k = \overline{\lambda}_1 P_1 + \ldots + \overline{\lambda}_k P_k, \qquad P_k^H = P_K$$

Note that $\lambda = \overline{\lambda}$ means $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

Theorem 7

A matrix A is skew-Hermitian symmetric $A = -A^H$ if and only if A is diagonalizable, eigenspaces mutually Hermitian orthogonal with purly imaginary eigenvalues.

Proof:

$$A = A^H$$

 \iff

$$\lambda_1 P_1 + \ldots + \lambda_k P_k = -\overline{\lambda}_1 P_1 + \ldots + -\overline{\lambda}_k P_k, \qquad P_k^H = P_K$$

Note that $\lambda = -\overline{\lambda}$ means $\lambda = bi$

Theorem 8

A matrix A is unitary $A^H = A^{-1}$ if and only if A is diagonalizable, eigenspaces mutually Hermitian orthogonal with all eigenvalues of absolute value 1.

Proof:

$$A = A^H$$

$$\iff$$

$$\lambda_1 P_1 + \ldots + \lambda_k P_k = \overline{\lambda}_1^{-1} P_1 + \ldots + \overline{\lambda}_k^{-1} P_k, \qquad P_k^H = P_K$$

Note that
$$\lambda = \overline{\lambda}^{-1} \iff \lambda \overline{\lambda} = 1 \iff |\lambda| = 1.$$

Over complex plane, the distribution of eigenvalues determines the property of matrix

