

1. Introduction to spectral theory

1.1. Main definitions.

Introduce eigenvalue & eigenvector first, and the method to find these thing.

Definition. A scalar λ is called an eigenvalue of an operator $A : V \rightarrow V$ if there exists a non-zero vector $v \in V$ such that

$$Av = \lambda v$$

The vector v is called the eigenvector of A

Theorem (From hamberger Thm 5.2). Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. Then a scalar λ is an eigenvalue of A if and only if $\det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$.

Proof. A scalar λ is an eigenvalue of A if and only if there exists a nonzero vector $v \in F^n$ such that $Av = \lambda v$, that is, $(A - \lambda I_n)(v) = 0$. By Theorem 2.5, this is true **if and only if** $A - \lambda I_n$ is not invertible. However, this result is equivalent to the statement that $\det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$ ■

Definition. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. The polynomial $f(t) = \det(A - tI_n)$ is called the characteristic polynomial of A

Theorem (From hamberger Thm 5.4). Let T be a linear operator on a vector space V , and let λ be an eigenvalue of T . A vector $v \in V$ is an eigenvector of T corresponding to λ if and only if $v \neq 0$ and $v \in N(T - \lambda I)$.

Definition. The nullspace $N(A - \lambda I)$, i.e. the set of all eigenvectors and 0 vector, is called the eigenspace. The set of all eigenvalues of an operator A is called spectrum of A , and is usually denoted $\sigma(A)$.

Remark.

If the matrix A is ugly, what should we do?

we can use the similar matrices

A and B are called similar if there exists an invertible matrix S such that

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

The determinants of similar matrix is same

$$\det(A) = \det(SBS^{-1}) = \det(S) \det(B) \det(S^{-1}) = \det(B)$$

We can find $A - \lambda I$ and $B - \lambda I$ is similar

$$A - \lambda I = SBS^{-1} - \lambda SIS^{-1} = S(BS^{-1} - \lambda IS^{-1}) = S(B - \lambda I)S^{-1}$$

It same in transform

If $T : V \rightarrow V$ is a linear transform, α, β are two bases in V , then

$$[T]_{\alpha}^{\alpha} = [I]_{\beta}^{\alpha} [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} [I]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$$

Before introducing diagonal, we have these two mutiplicity,

Definition (algebraic mutiplicity). *The largest positive integer k such that $(x - \lambda)^k$ divides $p(x)$ is called the multiplicity of the root λ .*

If λ is an eigenvalue of an operator (matrix) A , then it is a root of the characteristic polynomial $p(z) = \det(A - zI)$. The multiplicity of this root is called the (algebraic) multiplicity of the eigenvalue λ .

Definition (geometric multiplicity). *The dimension of the eigen space $N(A - \lambda I)$ is called geometric multiplicity of the eigenvalue λ .*

1.2. Diagonalization.

Definition. *A linear operator T on a finite-dimensional vector space V is called diagonalizable if there is an ordered basis β for V such that $[T]_{\beta}$ is a diagonal matrix. A square matrix A is called diagonalizable if L_A is diagonalizable.*

After have the definition of diagonal, we want to know want matrix can be diagonal.

Definition. *A linear operator T on a finite-dimensional vector space V is called diagonalizable if there is an ordered basis β for V such that $[T]_{\beta}$ is a diagonal matrix. A square matrix A is called diagonalizable if L_A is diagonalizable.*

Theorem. *A matrix A admits a representation $A = SDS^{-1}$, where D is a diagonal matrix and S is an invertible one **if and only if** there exists a basis in F^n of eigenvectors of A .*

In this theorem, we will know the relation between diagonal matrix and the eigenvector

Proof. Let $D = \text{diag} \{ \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n \}$, and let b_1, \dots, b_n be the columns of S (note that since S is invertible it's columns form a basis in F^n). Then the identity $A = SDS^{-1}$ means that $D = [A]_\beta^\beta$

Indeed, $S = [I]_S^\beta$ is the change of the coordinates matrix from β to the standard basis S so we get from $A = SDS^{-1}$ that $D = S^{-1}AS = [I]_S^\beta A [I]_S^S$, which means exactly that $D = [A]_\beta$ ■

Theorem. Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ be distinct eigenvalues of A , and let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r be the corresponding eigenvectors. Then vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r are linearly independent.

Corollary. If an operator $A : V \rightarrow V$ has exactly $n = \dim V$ distinct eigenvalues, then it is diagonalizable.

This section we will focus the bases of subspace to build the tool to proof the criterion of diagonal.

Definition (Direct sums of subspaces). Let V_1, V_2, \dots, V_p be a subspaces of a vector space V . We say that the system of subspace is a basis in V if any vector $v \in V$ admits a unique representation as a sum

$$v = v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_p = \sum_{k=1}^p v_k, \quad v_k \in V_k$$

We also say, that a system of subspaces V_1, V_2, \dots, V_p is linearly independent if the equation

$$v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_p = 0, \quad v_k \in V_k$$

has only trivial solution

Remark. From the above definition, the system of eigenspaces E_k if an operator A

$$E_k = N(A - \lambda_k I)$$

is linearly independent

Lemma. Let V_1, V_2, \dots, V_p be a linearly independent family of subspaces, and let us have in each subspace V_k a linearly independent system β_k of vectors. Then the union $B = \cup_k \beta_k$ is a linearly independent system.

Theorem. Let V_1, V_2, \dots, V_p be a basis of subspaces, and let us have in each subspace V_k a basis (of vectors) β_k . Then the union $\cup_k \beta_k$ of these bases is a basis in V .

After we have the tool, we can use it to check the criterion of diagonal.

Theorem. Let an operator $A : V \rightarrow V$ has exactly $n = \dim V$ eigenvalues (counting multiplicities). Then A is diagonalizable if and only if for each eigenvalue λ , geometric multiplicity = algebraic multiplicity.

2. Inner Product Spaces

2.1. Inner Products & Norms.

Definition. Let V be a vector space over F . An **inner product** on V is a function that assigns, to every ordered pair of vectors x and y in V , a scalar in F , denoted $\langle x, y \rangle$, such that for all x, y and z in V and all c in F , the following hold:

$$(a) \langle x + z, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle z, y \rangle$$

$$(b) \langle cx, y \rangle = c \langle x, y \rangle$$

$$(c) \overline{\langle x, y \rangle} = \langle y, x \rangle$$

$$(d) \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0 \text{ if } x \neq 0$$

if $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in F$ and $y, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in V$, then

$$\left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i, y \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \langle v_i, y \rangle$$

vector space V over F endowed with a specific inner product is called **inner product space**

Note: We just define the **rule** of the inner product, not define **what** is inner product.

Theorem. Let V be an inner product space. Then for $x, y, z \in V$ and $c \in F$, the following statements are true.

$$(a) \langle x, y + z \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle.$$

$$(b) \langle x, cy \rangle = \bar{c} \langle x, y \rangle$$

$$(c) \langle x, 0 \rangle = \langle 0, x \rangle = 0$$

$$(d) \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = 0$$

$$(e) \text{ If } \langle x, y \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle \text{ for all } x \in V, \text{ then } y = z$$

Definition. Let V be an inner product space. For $x \in V$, we define the **norm** or **length** of x by $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$

Theorem. Let V be an inner product space over F . Then for all $x, y \in V$ and $c \in F$, the following statements are true

- (a) $\|cx\| = |c| \cdot \|x\|$
- (b) $\|x\| = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$. In any case, $\|x\| \geq 0$
- (c) (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality) $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$.
- (d) (Triangle Inequality) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$.

After have the definition of inner product and norm, we can define orthogonal.

Definition. Let V be an inner product space. Vectors x and y in V are **orthogonal(perpendicular)** if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$. A subset S of V is **orthogonal** if any two distinct vectors in S are orthogonal. A vector x in V is a **unit vector** if $\|x\| = 1$. Finally, a subset S of V is **orthonormal** if S is orthogonal and consists entirely of unit vectors.

2.2. Gram-Schmidt & Orthogonal complements.

The power of the orthogonal subset

Theorem. Let V be an inner product space and $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ be an orthogonal subset of V consisting of nonzero vectors. If $y \in \text{span}(S)$, then

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\langle y, v_i \rangle}{\|v_i\|^2} v_i$$

Corollary. If, in addition to the hypotheses of thm, S is orthonormal and $y \in \text{span}(S)$, then

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle y, v_i \rangle v_i$$

Corollary. Let V be an inner product space, and let S be an orthogonal subset of V consisting of nonzero vectors. Then S is linearly independent.

Theorem (Gram-Schmidt). Let V be an inner product space and $S = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n\}$ be a linearly independent subset of V . Define $S' = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$, where $v_1 = w_1$ and

$$v_k = w_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{\langle w_k, v_j \rangle}{\|v_j\|^2} v_j \quad \text{for } 2 \leq k \leq n$$

Then S' is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors such that $\text{span}(S') = \text{span}(S)$.

Theorem. Let V be a nonzero finite-dimensional inner product space. Then V has an orthonormal basis β . Furthermore, if $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and $x \in V$, then

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle x, v_i \rangle v_i$$

Corollary. Let V be finite-dimensional inner product space with an orthonormal basis $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$. Let T be a linear operator on V , and let $A = [T]_\beta$. Then for any i and j , $A_{ij} = \langle T(v_j), v_i \rangle$

Definition. Let β be an orthonormal subset (possibly infinite) of an inner product space V , and let $x \in V$. We define the **Fourier coefficients** of x relative to β to

After have good tools, we are going to check the **orthogonal complement** of S .

Definition. Let S be a nonempty subset of an inner product space V . We define S^\perp to be the set of all vectors in V that are orthogonal to every vector in S ; that is, $S^\perp = \{x \in V \mid \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } y \in S\}$. The set S^\perp is called the **orthogonal complement** of S .

Theorem. Let W be a finite-dimensional subspace of an inner product space V , and let $y \in V$. Then there exist unique vectors $u \in W$ and $z \in W^\perp$. i.e.

$$V = W \oplus W^\perp$$

Furthermore, if $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ is an orthonormal basis for W , then

$$u = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle y, v_i \rangle v_i$$

Corollary. In the notation of Thm, the vector u is the unique vector in W that is "closest" to y ; that is, for any $x \in W$, $\|y - x\| \geq \|y - u\|$, and this inequality is an equality if and only if $x = u$.

Theorem. Suppose that $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ is an orthonormal set in an n -dimensional inner product space V . Then

- (a) S can be extended to an orthonormal basis $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$ for V
- (b) If $W = \text{span}(S)$, then $S_1 = \{v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}, \dots, v_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis for W^\perp
- (c) If W is any subspace of V , then $\dim(V) = \dim(W) + \dim(W^\perp)$

2.3. The Adjoint of a Linear Operator.

In this section, we will introduce the adjoint linear operator and its property.
Before know adjoint operation, we need to know the theorem first.

Theorem. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space over F , and let $g : V \rightarrow F$ be a linear transformation. Then there exists a **unique** vector $y \in V$ such that $g(x) = \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $x \in V$

this proof next time

Theorem. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space, and let T be a linear operator on V . Then there exists a unique function $T^* : V \rightarrow V$ such that $\langle T(x), y \rangle = \langle x, T^*(y) \rangle$ for all $x, y \in V$. Furthermore, T^* is linear.

We define the T^* here, and next we want to know the $*$ in the matrix presentation.

Theorem. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space, and let β be an orthonormal basis for V . If T is a linear operator on V , then

$$[T^*]_\beta = [T]_\beta^*$$

Corollary. Let A be an " $n \times n$ " matrix. Then $L_{A^*} = (L_A)^*$

Theorem. Let V be an inner product space, and let T and U be linear operators on V . Then

- a) $(T + U)^* = T^* + U^*$
- b) $(cT)^* = \bar{c}T^*$ for any $c \in F$
- c) $(TU)^* = U^* T^*$
- d) $T^{**} = T$
- e) $I^* = I$

Corollary. Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices. Then

- a) $(A + B)^* = A^* + B^*$
- b) $(cA)^* = \bar{c}A^*$ for all $c \in \mathbb{F}$
- c) $(AB)^* = B^*A^*$
- d) $A^{**} = A$
- e) $I^* = I$

we skip the minimum function here (LAMMA~Thm 6.13)

2.4. Normal & Self-Adjoint Operators.

Lemma. *Let T be a linear operator on a finite-dimensional inner product space V . If T has an eigenvector, then so does T^* .*

Theorem (Schur). *Let T be a linear operator on a finite-dimension inner product space V . Suppose that the characteristic polynomial of T splits. Then there exists an orthonormal basis β for V such that the matrix $[T]_\beta$ is upper triangular.*

I don't know why read Schur here, but we are going to introduce **normal** and it's property.

Definition. *Let V be an inner product space, and let T be a linear operator on V . We say that T is **normal** if $TT^* = T^*T$. An $n \times n$ real or complex matrix A is **normal** if $AA^* = A^*A$.*

Theorem. *Let V be an inner product space, and let T be a **normal operator** on V . Then the following statements are true.*

- a) $\|T(x)\| = \|T^*(x)\|$ for all $x \in V$.
- b) $T - cI$ is normal for every $c \in \mathbb{F}$
- c) If x is an eigenvector of T , then x is also an eigenvector of T^* . In fact, if $T(x) = \lambda x$, then $T^*(x) = \bar{\lambda}x$.
- d) If λ_1 and λ_2 are distinct eigenvalues of T with corresponding eigenvectors x_1 and x_2 , then x_1 and x_2 are orthogonal.