

## 15.6 The Spectral Theorem

While we could prove that Hermitian operators are unitarily diagonalizable, this result holds for the more general class of *normal* operators. The proof in the more general case is not harder than the one for Hermitian operators. An operator  $M$  is said to be **normal** if it commutes with its adjoint:

$$M \text{ is normal: } [M^\dagger, M] = 0. \quad (15.6.1)$$

Hermitian operators are clearly normal. So are anti-Hermitian operators ( $M^\dagger = -M$  means  $M$  is anti-Hermitian). Unitary operators  $U$  are normal because  $U^\dagger U = UU^\dagger = \mathbb{I}$ , showing that  $U$  and  $U^\dagger$  commute. If an operator is normal, a similarity transformation with a unitary operator gives another normal operator:

**Exercise 15.3.** *If  $M$  is normal, show that  $V^\dagger M V$ , where  $V$  is a unitary operator, is also normal.*

It is a useful fact that a normal operator  $T$  and its adjoint  $T^\dagger$  share the same set of eigenvectors:

**Lemma.** *Let  $w$  be an eigenvector of the normal operator  $M$ :  $Mw = \lambda w$ . Then  $w$  is also an eigenvector of  $M^\dagger$  with a complex conjugate eigenvalue:*

$$M^\dagger w = \lambda^* w. \quad (15.6.2)$$

*Proof.* Define  $u = (M^\dagger - \lambda^* \mathbb{I})w$ . The result holds if  $u$  is the zero vector. To show this we compute the norm squared of  $u$ :

$$\langle u, u \rangle = \langle (M^\dagger - \lambda^* \mathbb{I})w, (M^\dagger - \lambda^* \mathbb{I})w \rangle. \quad (15.6.3)$$

Using the adjoint property to move the operator in the first entry to the second entry,

$$\langle u, u \rangle = \langle w, (M - \lambda \mathbb{I})(M^\dagger - \lambda^* \mathbb{I})w \rangle. \quad (15.6.4)$$

Since  $M$  and  $M^\dagger$  commute, so do the two factors in parentheses, and therefore,

$$\langle u, u \rangle = \langle w, (M^\dagger - \lambda^* \mathbb{1})(M - \lambda \mathbb{1})w \rangle = 0, \quad (15.6.5)$$

since  $(M - \lambda \mathbb{1})$  kills  $w$ . It follows that  $u = 0$  and therefore (15.6.2) holds.  $\square$

We can now state the main result: the **spectral theorem**. It states that a matrix is unitarily diagonalizable if and only if it is normal. We will prove this result for finite-dimensional matrices.

**Theorem 15.6.1. Spectral theorem.** *Let  $M$  be an operator in a finite-dimensional complex vector space. The vector space has an orthonormal basis of  $M$  eigenvectors if and only if  $M$  is normal.*

*Proof.* It is easy to show that if  $M$  is unitarily diagonalizable, it is normal. Indeed, from (15.5.8), when  $M$  is unitarily diagonalizable, there is a unitary  $U$  such that

$$M = UD_M U^\dagger \quad \text{and therefore} \quad M^\dagger = UD_M^\dagger U^\dagger.$$

We then get

$$M^\dagger M = UD_M^\dagger D_M U^\dagger \quad \text{and} \quad MM^\dagger = UD_M D_M^\dagger U^\dagger,$$

so that

$$[M^\dagger, M] = U(D_M^\dagger D_M - D_M D_M^\dagger)U^\dagger = 0$$

because any two diagonal matrices commute.

We must now prove that for any normal  $M$ , viewed as a matrix on an arbitrary orthonormal basis, there is a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $U^\dagger M U$  is diagonal. By our general discussion, this implies that the eigenvectors of  $M$  are an orthonormal basis. We will prove this by induction in the dimension of the vector space where the result holds.

The result is clearly true for  $\dim V = 1$ : any  $1 \times 1$  matrix is normal and automatically diagonal. We now assume that a normal matrix in an  $(n-1)$ -dimensional vector space is unitarily diagonalizable and try to prove the same is true for a normal matrix in an  $n$ -dimensional space.

Let  $M$  be an  $n \times n$  normal matrix referred to the orthonormal basis ( $|1\rangle, \dots, |n\rangle$ ) of  $V$  so that  $M_{ij} = \langle i|M|j\rangle$ . We know there is at least one eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  of  $M$  with a nonzero eigenvector  $|x_1\rangle$  of unit norm:

$$M|x_1\rangle = \lambda_1|x_1\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad M^\dagger|x_1\rangle = \lambda_1^*|x_1\rangle, \quad (15.6.6)$$

in view of the lemma. We claim now that there is a unitary matrix  $U_1$  such that

$$|x_1\rangle = U_1|1\rangle \quad \Rightarrow \quad U_1^\dagger|x_1\rangle = |1\rangle. \quad (15.6.7)$$

$U_1$  is not unique and can be constructed as follows: Take  $|x_1\rangle$  and  $n - 1$  additional vectors that together span  $V$  and use the Gram-Schmidt procedure to construct an orthonormal basis  $|x_1\rangle, \dots, |x_n\rangle$ . Then write  $U_1 = \sum_i |x_i\rangle\langle i|$  that, as required, maps  $|1\rangle$  to  $|x_1\rangle$ .

Now define

$$M_1 \equiv U_1^\dagger M U_1. \quad (15.6.8)$$

$M_1$  is also normal, and  $M_1|1\rangle = U_1^\dagger M U_1|1\rangle = U_1^\dagger M|x_1\rangle = \lambda_1 U_1^\dagger|x_1\rangle = \lambda_1|1\rangle$  so that

$$M_1|1\rangle = \lambda_1|1\rangle, \quad (15.6.9)$$

which says that the first column of  $M_1$  has zeroes in all entries except the first. Indeed,

$$\langle j|M_1|1\rangle = \lambda_1\langle j|1\rangle = \lambda_1\delta_{1,j}. \quad (15.6.10)$$

The normality of  $M_1$  implies that the first row of  $M_1$  is also zero except for the first element. Indeed,

$$\langle 1|M_1|j\rangle = (\langle j|M_1^\dagger|1\rangle)^* = (\lambda_1^*\langle j|1\rangle)^* = \lambda_1\langle 1|j\rangle = \lambda_1\delta_{1,j}, \quad (15.6.11)$$

where we used  $M_1^\dagger|1\rangle = \lambda_1^*|1\rangle$ , which follows from the lemma. It follows from the last two equations that  $M_1$ , in the original basis, takes the form

$$M_1 = \left( \begin{array}{c|ccc} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & M' & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right),$$

where  $M'$  is an  $(n-1)$  by  $(n-1)$  matrix. Since  $M_1$  is normal and matrices multiply in blocks, one can quickly see that  $M'$  is also normal. By the induction hypothesis,  $M'$  can be unitarily diagonalized, so there exists an  $(n-1)$  by  $(n-1)$  unitary matrix  $U'$  such that  $U'^{\dagger}M'U'$  is diagonal:

$$U'^{\dagger}M'U' = D_{M'}, \text{ with } D_{M'} \text{ diagonal.} \quad (15.6.12)$$

The matrix  $U'$  can be extended to an  $n$  by  $n$  unitary matrix  $\hat{U}$  as follows:

$$\hat{U} = \left( \begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & U' & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right). \quad (15.6.13)$$

We can now confirm that  $\hat{U}$  diagonalizes  $M_1$ —that is,  $\hat{U}^{\dagger}M_1\hat{U}$  is a diagonal matrix  $D_M$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U}^{\dagger}M_1\hat{U} &= \left( \begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & U'^{\dagger} & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c|ccc} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & M' & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & U' & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right) \\ &= \left( \begin{array}{c|ccc} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & U'^{\dagger}M'U' & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{c|ccc} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & D_{M'} & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right) = D_M. \end{aligned} \quad (15.6.14)$$

But then, using the definition of  $M_1$ ,

$$D_M = \hat{U}^{\dagger}M_1\hat{U} = \hat{U}^{\dagger}U_1^{\dagger}MU_1\hat{U} = (U_1\hat{U})^{\dagger}M(U_1\hat{U}). \quad (15.6.15)$$

Since the product of unitary matrices is unitary,  $\tilde{U} \equiv U_1\hat{U}$  is unitary, and we have shown that  $\tilde{U}^{\dagger}M\tilde{U}$  is diagonal. This is the desired result. We have used the induction hypothesis to prove that an  $n$  by  $n$  normal matrix  $M$  is unitarily diagonalizable. This completes the induction argument and thus the proof. □

This theorem implies that Hermitian and unitary operators are unitarily diagonalizable: their eigenvectors can be chosen to form an orthonormal basis. The proof did not require a separate discussion of degeneracies. If an eigenvalue of  $M$  is degenerate and appears  $k$  times, then  $k$  orthonormal eigenvectors are associated with the corresponding  $k$ -dimensional,  $M$ -invariant subspace of the vector space.

Let us now describe the general situation we encounter when diagonalizing a normal operator  $T$  on a vector space  $V$ . In general, we expect degeneracies in the eigenvalues so that each eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$  is repeated  $d_k \geq 1$  times. An eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$  is degenerate if  $d_k > 1$ . It follows that  $V$  has  $T$ -invariant subspaces of different dimensionalities. Let  $U_k$  denote the  $T$ -invariant subspace of dimension  $d_k \geq 1$  spanned by eigenvectors with eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$ :

$$U_k \equiv \{v \in V \mid Tv = \lambda_k v\}, \quad \dim U_k = d_k. \quad (15.6.16)$$

By the spectral theorem,  $U_k$  has a basis comprised by  $d_k$  orthonormal eigenvectors:

$$(u_1^{(k)}, \dots, u_{d_k}^{(k)}).$$

The full space  $V$  is decomposed as the direct sum of the invariant subspaces of  $T$ :

$$V = U_1 \oplus \dots \oplus U_m, \quad \dim V = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i, \quad m \geq 1. \quad (15.6.17)$$

All  $U_i$  subspaces are guaranteed to be orthogonal to each other. In fact, the full list of eigenvectors is a list of orthonormal vectors that form a basis for  $V$  and is conveniently ordered as follows:

$$(u_1^{(1)}, \dots, u_{d_1}^{(1)}, \dots, u_1^{(m)}, \dots, u_{d_m}^{(m)}). \quad (15.6.18)$$

The matrix  $T$  is manifestly diagonal in this basis because each vector above is an eigenvector of  $T$ . The matrix representation of  $T$  reads

$$T = \text{diag} \left( \underbrace{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_1}_{d_1 \text{ times}}, \dots, \underbrace{\lambda_m, \dots, \lambda_m}_{d_m \text{ times}} \right). \quad (15.6.19)$$

This is clear because the first  $d_1$  vectors in the list are in  $U_1$ , the second  $d_2$  vectors are in  $U_2$ , and so on until the last  $d_m$  vectors are in  $U_m$ .

Let us now consider the uniqueness of the basis (15.6.18). In other words, we ask how much we can change the basis vectors without changing the matrix representation of  $T$ . If we have no degeneracies in the spectrum of  $T$  ( $d_i = 1$ , for all  $i$ ), each basis vector can at most be multiplied by a phase. On the other hand, with degeneracies the list can be changed considerably without changing the matrix representation of  $T$ . Let  $V_k$  be a unitary operator on  $U_k$ —namely,  $V_k: U_k \rightarrow U_k$  for each  $k = 1, \dots, m$ . We claim that the following basis of eigenvectors leads to the same matrix  $T$ :

$$(V_1 u_1^{(1)}, \dots, V_1 u_{d_1}^{(1)}, \dots, V_m u_1^{(m)}, \dots, V_m u_{d_m}^{(m)}). \quad (15.6.20)$$

This is still a collection of orthonormal  $T$  eigenvectors because the first  $d_1$  vectors are still orthonormal eigenvectors in  $U_1$ , the second  $d_2$  vectors are still orthonormal eigenvectors in  $U_2$ , and so on. More explicitly, we can calculate the matrix elements of  $T$  within  $U_k$  in the new basis:

$$\langle V_k u_i^{(k)}, T(V_k u_j^{(k)}) \rangle = \lambda_k \langle V_k u_i^{(k)}, V_k u_j^{(k)} \rangle = \lambda_k \langle u_i^{(k)}, u_j^{(k)} \rangle = \lambda_k \delta_{ij}. \quad (15.6.21)$$

In the first step, we noted that any vector in  $U_k$  has  $T$  eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$ . In the second step, we used the unitarity of  $V_k$ . This shows that in the  $U_k$  subspace the matrix for  $T$  is still diagonal with all entries equal to  $\lambda_k$ .

The spectral theorem affords us a simple way to write a normal operator. For this, consider the basis of orthonormal eigenvectors for the  $T$ -invariant subspace  $U_k$  of dimension  $d_k$ . Let  $P_k$  denote the orthogonal projector to this subspace. The projector  $P_k$  has rank  $d_k$ , and its action on an arbitrary vector  $v$  can be written as

$$P_k v = \sum_{i=1}^{d_k} u_i^{(k)} \langle u_i^{(k)}, v \rangle, \quad (15.6.22)$$

following the prescription in (14.3.6). In bra-ket notation we have

$$P_k = \sum_{i=1}^{d_k} |u_i^{(k)}\rangle \langle u_i^{(k)}|. \quad (15.6.23)$$

By construction, the basis vectors of  $U_k$  are left invariant by  $P_k$ , and the basis vectors of any  $U_q$ , with  $q \neq k$ , are killed by  $P_k$ :

$$P_k u_i^{(q)} = u_i^{(q)} \delta_{kq}. \quad (15.6.24)$$

The various  $P_k$  satisfy the following properties:

$$\boxed{P_k^\dagger = P_k, \quad P_k P_l = \delta_{kl} P_l, \quad \sum_k P_k = \mathbb{1}.} \quad (15.6.25)$$

The first relation is manifest from (15.6.23). The second follows because each  $P_k$  is a projector, and  $U_k$  and  $U_l$  are orthogonal subspaces when  $k \neq l$ . The third expression is also clear from (15.6.23) because by the time we sum over the allowed values of  $k = 1, \dots, m$ , we are summing the ket-bra combinations for all the basis vectors of the state space. This last property is the counterpart of  $V = U_1 \oplus \dots \oplus U_m$ . A set of projectors  $P_k$  satisfying (15.6.25) is called a **complete set of orthonormal projectors**. We have thus seen that any normal operator gives rise to one such complete set. Finally, we now claim that the operator  $T$  itself can be written as follows:

$$\boxed{T = \sum_k \lambda_k P_k.} \quad (15.6.26)$$

This equation, in the form of a sum of terms that are each an eigenvalue times its associated projector, is called the **spectral decomposition** of  $T$ . The proof of this formula is simple; we just need to check that the right-hand side acts on the vectors of the orthonormal basis exactly as  $T$  does. Acting on  $u_i^{(q)}$  and using (15.6.24), we see that

$$\sum_k \lambda_k P_k u_i^{(q)} = \sum_k \lambda_k u_i^{(q)} \delta_{kq} = \lambda_q u_i^{(q)}, \quad (15.6.27)$$

consistent with  $T u_i^{(q)} = \lambda_q u_i^{(q)}$ . This proves the decomposition (15.6.26).