Chapter 6

Structure of Operators on Inner Product Spaces

- 10/11: Spectral decomposition of self-adjoint linear maps.
 - Can we write a map in term of the eigenvalues only?
 - Let $A: X \to X$ be linear and self-adjoint. Where dim $X < \infty$.
 - Let A have eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ and eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n$. The there is an orthonormal basis of X consisting of eigenvectors of A. An operator is self-adjoint if $A = A^*$.
 - If A is self-adjoint, then A can be written as diagonal with the eigenvalues on the diagonal with respect to some orthonormal basis of eigenvectors.
 - Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$.
 - If there exists an orthonormal basis u_1, \ldots, u_n of X such that A is triangular, then $A = UTU^*$ where U is unitary and T is upper triangular.
 - Proved with induction on dim X.
 - $-\dim X = 1$ is clear.
 - Assume for dim X = n 1, WTS for dim X = n.
 - The subspace has a basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$ such that A has a diagonal form.
 - Let $u \in X$ be linearly independent of $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$.
 - Let λ be the remaining eigenvalue and u the corresponding eigenvector. Let E = span(u). Then make the matrix λ in the upper left corner, and block diagonal with " A_{n-1} " in the bottom right corner, zeroes everywhere else.
 - Self-adjoint (matrix A): A linear map $A: X \to X$ where dim $X < \infty$ such that $A = A^*$.
 - Similarly, (Ax, y) = (x, Ay).
 - A self-adjoint implies all eigenvalues are real, eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.
 - Soug proves this.
 - Strictly positive (operator A): A self-adjoint operator $A: X \to X$ such that (Ax, x) > 0 for all $x \neq 0$. Also known as positive definite.
 - Implies that all eigenvalues are strictly positive.
 - Nonnegative (operator A): A self-adjoint operator $A: X \to X$ such that $(Ax, x) \ge 0$ for all $x \ne 0$. Also known as definite.

- All eigenvalues are nonnegative.
- Suppose $A \ge 0$ is self-adjoint. Then there exists a unique self-adjoint $B \ge 0$ such that $B^2 = A$.
 - A self-adjoint is diagonal (wrt. some basis).
 - A positive means that all eigenvalues (diagonal entries) are positive.
 - Thus, take

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{\lambda_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Suppose $B^2 = A$, $C^2 = A$. Then we have an orthonormal basis corresponding to B and an orthonormal basis corresponding to C. It follows that $B^2 = C^2 = A$. Write B^2x and C^2x in terms of their bases; will necessitate that the bases are the same.
- 10/13: If we get yes/no questions, we don't have to justify.
 - Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$|(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})| \le ||\mathbf{x}|| ||\mathbf{y}||$$

- Real spaces, V vs. (\cdot, \cdot) inner product.
- Proof:

$$0 \le \|\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y}\|^2$$
$$= t^2 \|\mathbf{y}^2\| + 2t(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$$

Thus, the discriminant must be less than zero (because the whole polynomial is positive, so the discriminant [the opposite of the x^0 term of the factored form of the polynomial] must be less than zero so the polynomial doesn't get dragged down to negative values):

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})^2 - \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 \le 0$$

Taking square roots of both sides proves the desired inequality.

- Recall that if $A^* = A$, then all eigenvalues are real and all eigenvectors of distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal to each other.
- Normal (matrix): A matrix N such that $N^*N = NN^*$.
 - Examples: Diagonal, self-adjoint, and unitary operators are all normal.
- Any normal operator in a complex vector spae has an orthonormal set of eigenvectors, e.g., $N = UDU^*$.
 - Proof: N is upper triangular wrt. some basis (because all matrices are). WTS any normal upper triangular matrix is diagonal. Done by induction on the dimension of N from n = 2.
 - Assume the claim for every $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ normal upper triangular matrix.
 - Let

$$N = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & & & \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & N_1 & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}$$

(we know every normal matrix can be written in this upper triangular form)

– Then just compute NN^* and N^*N . Knowing they have to be equal, we have that $a_{12} = \cdots = a_{1n} = 0$.

- We can also prove from the above (block diagonal multiplication) that N_1 is normal. Thus, it's diagonal, too. Therefore, the whole thing is diagonal.
- N is normal if and only if $||N\mathbf{x}|| = ||N^*\mathbf{x}||$.
 - Proof: $(N\mathbf{x}, N\mathbf{y}) = (N^*N\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (NN^*\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (N^*\mathbf{x}, N^*\mathbf{y})$. This is equivalent to the desired condition.
- If A is nonnegative and $(A\mathbf{e}_k, \mathbf{e}_k) = a_{kk}$, then

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j$$

- Positive definite (matrix): An $n \times n$ self-adjoint matrix such that $(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) > 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in X$.
- Let $A: X \to Y$, dim $X = \dim Y$. Then AA^* is positive semidefinite. And there exists a unique square root $R = \sqrt{A^*A}$.
 - Proof: $(A^*A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = (A\mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{x}) = ||A\mathbf{x}||^2 \ge 0.$
- Modulus (of A): The matrix $|A| = \sqrt{A^*A}$.
- Check $||A|\mathbf{x}|| = ||A\mathbf{x}||$.

$$|||A|\mathbf{x}||^2 = (|A|\mathbf{x}, |A|\mathbf{x}) = (|A|^*|A|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = (A^*A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = (A\mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{x}) = ||A\mathbf{x}||^2$$

- Let $A: X \to X$ be a linear operator. Then A = U|A| where U is unitary.
- Look at singular matrices.
- Recall that if $A: X \to Y$, we have that A^*A is semidefinite, positive, and self adjoint.
 - Thus, there exists a unique matrix $R = \sqrt{A^*A} > 0$, which we define to be $|A| = \sqrt{A^*A}$.
 - Polar form of a matrix:

10/15:

$$A = U|A|$$

- This may not be unique!
- Proof: Suppose $A\mathbf{x} = U(|A|\mathbf{x})$. $A\mathbf{x} \in \text{range } A$, and $|A|\mathbf{x} \in \text{range}(|A|)$. $\mathbf{x} \in \text{range}(|A|)$ implies that there exists $\mathbf{v} \in X$ such that $x = |A|\mathbf{v}$.
- Define $U\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x}$. U is a well-defined linear map.
- $\|U_0\mathbf{x}\| = \|A\mathbf{x}\| = \||A|\mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|.$
- U is an isometry.
- range $|A| \to X$.
- Use ker $A = \ker |A| = (\operatorname{range} A)^{\perp}$ to extend U_0 to $U: U = U_0 + U_1$.
- Singular values (of a matrix): The eigenvalues of |A|.
 - So if $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A^*A , the singular values of A are $\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \ldots, \sqrt{\lambda_n}$.
- Let $A: X \to Y$ be a linear map.
 - Let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$ be the signular values of A. Then $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n > 0$.
 - Additionally, if $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ is an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of A^*A , then the list of n vectors $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$ defined by $\mathbf{w}_k = 1/\sigma_k A \mathbf{v}_k$ for each $k = 1, \dots, n$ is orthonormal.

■ Proof:

$$(\mathbf{w}_k, \mathbf{w}_j) = \frac{1}{\sigma_k \sigma_k} (A\mathbf{v}_k, A\mathbf{v}_j) = \frac{1}{\sigma_k \sigma_j} = \frac{1}{\sigma_k \sigma_j} (A^*A\mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_j) = \frac{\sigma_k^2}{\sigma_k \sigma_j} (\mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_j) = 0$$

and

$$\|\mathbf{w}_k\| = \frac{1}{\sigma_k} \|A\mathbf{v}_k\| = \frac{1}{\sigma_k} \||A|\mathbf{v}_k\| = 1$$

- Schmidt decomposition of A:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \sum_{k=0}^{r} \sigma_k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_k) \mathbf{w}_k$$

■ This is because $\mathbf{x} = \sum (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_k) \mathbf{v}_k$, so by the above,

$$A\mathbf{x} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_{k}) A \mathbf{v}_{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{r} \sigma_{k}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_{k}) \mathbf{w}_{k}$$

- Operator norm: $||A|| = \max\{||A\mathbf{x}|| : ||\mathbf{x}|| \le 1\}.$
- Properties of the operator norm:
 - $\|A\mathbf{x}\| \le \|A\| \|\mathbf{x}\|.$
 - $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|.$
 - $\|A + B\| \le \|A\| + \|B\|.$
 - $\|A\| \ge 0.$
 - $\|A\| = 0 \text{ iff } A = 0.$
- Frobenious norm: The norm $||A||_2^2 = \operatorname{tr}(A^*A)$.
- The operator norm is always less than or equal to the Frobenius norm.
- If $A: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^n$, then $A = W \Sigma V^*$ where σ is a diagonal matrix of nonzero singular values.
- The operator norm of A is the largest of the singular values.
- An orthogonal matrix can be decomposed to a block-diagonal matrix of rotations.
- 10/18: Soug tests what he teaches and doesn't give super tricky questions.
 - Structure of orthogonal matrices.
 - Orthogonal (matrix): A unitary matrix U with all elements real and $|\det U| = 1$.
 - Theorem: Let U be an orthogonal operator on \mathbb{R}^n such that $\det U = 1$. Then there exists an orthonormal basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ such that with respect to this basis,

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} R_{\phi_1} & \mathbf{0} \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \mathbb{R}_{\phi_k} \\ \mathbf{0} & & I_{n-2k} \end{pmatrix}$$

where each R_{ϕ_i} is a 2×2 rotation matrix.

- If you are in \mathbb{R}^7 for example, you would be able to express U as a composition of at most 3 rotation maps and the identity map.
- Each rotation map acts on two orthonormal vectors.
- Proof: $P(\lambda)$ is the *n*-degree characteristic polynomial $\det(U \lambda I) = 0$. The eigenvalues are the roots of it.

- $-p(\lambda)=0$ if and only if $p(\bar{\lambda})=0$.
 - $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue with eigenvector $\mathbf{u} \neq 0$ iff $U\mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$ and $U\bar{\mathbf{u}} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{\mathbf{u}}$.
- Recall that U unitary implies $|\lambda| = 1$.
 - Proof^[1]: $||U\mathbf{x}|| = ||\mathbf{x}||$ and $U\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$. Thus,

$$||U\mathbf{x}|| = ||\lambda\mathbf{x}|| = |\lambda|||\mathbf{x}|| = ||\mathbf{x}||$$

and since $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$, we can divide by $\|\mathbf{x}\|$, so $|\lambda| = 1$.

- $\operatorname{Let} \mathbf{u} = \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{u} + \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{u}.$
- It follows that we may define

$$\mathbf{x} = \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{u} + \bar{\mathbf{u}}}{2}$$
 $\mathbf{y} = \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{u} - \bar{\mathbf{u}}}{2}$

- Thus, $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{x} + i\mathbf{y}$ and $\bar{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{x} i\mathbf{y}$.
- Since $U\mathbf{x} = \frac{U\mathbf{u} + U\bar{\mathbf{u}}}{2} = \frac{\lambda \mathbf{u} + \bar{\lambda}\bar{\mathbf{u}}}{2}$, $U\mathbf{y} = \text{Im}(\lambda \mathbf{u}) = \text{Re}(\lambda \mathbf{u})$.
- Since $|\lambda| = 1$, $\lambda = e^{i\alpha}$ and $\bar{\lambda} = e^{-i\alpha}$.
- It follows that $U\mathbf{x} = (\cos \alpha)\mathbf{x} (\sin \alpha)\mathbf{y}$ and $U\mathbf{y} = (\cos \alpha)\mathbf{y} + (\sin \alpha)\mathbf{x}$.
- Thus, since $U\mathbf{x} = \operatorname{Re} \lambda \mathbf{u}$, we have that

$$\lambda \mathbf{u} = (\cos \alpha + i \sin \alpha)(\mathbf{x} + i\mathbf{y})$$

= $(\cos \alpha)\mathbf{x} - (\sin \alpha)\mathbf{y} + i[(\cos \alpha)\mathbf{y} + (\sin \alpha)\mathbf{x}]$

- If E_{λ} is a 2 dimensional space spanned by **x** and **y** and invariant by U. Thus, any block of the desired matrix leaves its desired sub-block invariant.
- We also know that the eigenvectors of a unitary matrix corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.
- Thus, $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{2}/2\|\mathbf{u}\|, \mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}.$
- Let \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} complete the theorem to form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .
- It will follow that

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} R_{\alpha} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & U_{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

where U_1 is orthogonal, and we may repeat the process.

¹This would be a good exam question.