Linear Algebra II

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1 Orthogonal Matrix

Definition 1. A matrix Q is orthogonal iff its columns are orthonormal, IOW,

$$Q^TQ = I.$$

Corollary 2. If Q is an orthogonal matrix, then its inverse is its transpose.

Corollary 3. If Q is an orthogonal matrix, then

$$\det Q = \pm 1.$$

Proof.

$$1 = \det I$$

$$= \det(Q^T Q)$$

$$= \det Q^T \det Q$$

$$= \det Q \det Q$$

$$= (\det Q)^2$$

Therefore $\det Q = \pm 1$.

Note 4. This is why people like orthogonal matrices, because they're easy to invert.

Theorem 5. If Q is orthogonal, then

$$Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I.$$

Proof. Recall that $Q^T = Q^{-1}$, and inverses commute with each other, i.e.

$$Q^T Q = Q Q^T.$$

Theorem 6. If the columns of a square matrix are orthonormal, then its rows are also orthonormal, and vice versa.

Problem 7 (6.11.). Find an orthogonal matrix whose first row is $(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$.

Solution. Find two other independent vectors by trial and error, then use Gram-Schmidt to orthogonalize the set, then normalize to get orthonormal set.

2 Normal Matrix

Theorem 8. A matrix is normal iff it is unitarily diagonalizable.

Exercise 9 (6.12.). Let A be an $n \times n$ real symmetric or complex normal matrix. Prove that

$$\det A = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i,$$

where the $\lambda_i s$ are the [not necessarily distinct] eigenvalues of A.

Proof. Recall that a symmetric / normal matrix is diagonalizable, i.e. it is similar to a diagonal matrix. IOW there are matrices P and P^* s.t.

$$PAP^* = D$$
.

Then

$$\det A = \det(PAP^*) = \det D = \prod \lambda_i.$$

Exercise 10 (6.13.). Suppose that A and B are diagonalizable matrices. Prove or disprove that A is similar to B iff A and B are unitarily equivalent.

Proof. The converse is true: if A and B are unitarily equivalent, then immediately they are similar. The forward direction is false: e.g. the two matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)^{-1} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

are similar, but they are not unitarily equivalent, because one is symmetric and the other is not. The conclusion follows from the following Proposition:

Proposition 11. If A and B are orthogonally equivalent on a vector space over R, then either they are both symmetric or neither is. IOW, orthogonal equivalence preserves symmetry.

Proof. Let $A = W^t B W = W^{-1} B W$ with $W^t = W^{-1}$. Suppose A is symmetric: $A = A^t$. Then

$$B = WAW^{-1}$$
 $B^{t} = (WAW^{-1})^{t}$
 $= (W^{-1})^{t}A^{t}W^{t}$
 $= WAW^{-1}$
 $= B.$

Proposition 12. If A and B are unitarily equivalent, then either they are both self-adjoint or neither is. IOW, unitary equivalence preserves self-adjoint-ness.

Exercise 13 (Ex. 6.14. Unitary equivalence preserves positive semi/definiteness). Prove that if A and B are Hermitian matrices and unitarily equivalent, then A is positive semi/definite iff B is.

Proof. Recall that a Hermitian matrix is positive semi/definite iff all its eigenvalues are positive/non-negative; also recall that similar matrices have the same eigenvalues. Since A and B are unitarily equivalent, they are similar: there exists a matrix P with $P^{-1} = P^*$ s.t.

$$A = P^{-1}BP.$$

Therefore A and B have the same eigenvalues, so they are either both positive semi/definite or neither is.

Proposition 14 (Ex. 6.15.). Let U be a unitary operator on an inner product space V, and let W be a finite-dimensional U-invariant subspace of V. Then:

- 1. U(W) = W.
- 2. W^{\perp} is also U-invariant.

Proof. (1) follows immediately from the facts that U is invertible and W has finite dimension, and the Rank-Nullity Theorem. Note that this means W is also U^{-1} -invariant:

$$W = U^{-1}(W). \tag{*}$$

To prove (2), let $v \in W^{\perp}$; we want to show that $U(v) \in W^{\perp}$, i.e. that U(v) is perpendicular to vectors in W. Let w be any vector in W. Then

$$\langle U(v), w \rangle = \langle v, U^*(w) \rangle = \langle v, U^{-1}(w) \rangle = \langle v, x \rangle$$

for some $x \in W$, since by (*) we know that W is U^{-1} -invariant. Finally

$$\langle U(v), w \rangle = \langle v, x \rangle = 0$$

since $v \in W^{\perp}$ and $x \in W$, therefore U(v) and w are perpendicular. \square