

Chapter 3: Spectral Theory in Inner Prod. Sps.

Note Title

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I Throughout this chapter, E_K will denote a finite-dimensional inner product space E over the field K , and

$$\mathcal{L}(E) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \mathcal{L}(E, E) = \text{Hom}(E, E) = \text{End}(E)$$

is the algebra of K -linear operators $E \rightarrow E$, where for any $f, g \in \mathcal{L}(E)$ and $a \in K$ one has:

→ $(f + ag)(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} f(x) + a \cdot g(x)$ (linear structure)

→ $(fg)(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} f(g(x))$ (multiplicative structure)

...which then produces $f(g_1 + g_2) = fg_1 + fg_2$ and analogously on the left!

Recall: Given bases $\alpha = (e_1, \dots, e_n)$, $\beta = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$ of E and $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$:

- $[x]_\alpha \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} [e^1(x), \dots, e^n(x)]^T$ for all $x \in E$

- $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} \in K^{n \times n}$ satisfying $[x]_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} [x]_\alpha$ for all $x \in E$

- $[f]_\alpha \in K^{n \times n}$ s.t. $[f(x)]_\alpha = [f]_\alpha [x]_\alpha$ for all $x \in E$

- incidentally, we recall:

$$[f]_\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} [f]_\beta \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} [f]_\beta \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

- In particular, if $E = K^n$ and $f(x) = Mx$ for $M \in K^{n \times n}$, letting α be the standard basis and $P = [f_1 | \dots | f_n]$ we have:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}, \quad M = P [f]_\beta P^{-1} \quad (\Leftrightarrow [f]_\beta = P^{-1} M P)$$

Defn: two matrices $M, N \in M_n(K)$ are similar over \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C}) if there exists an invertible real (resp. complex)-valued invertible matrix P such that $M = P^{-1}NP$. We write $M \sim N$ in this case.

It is easy to check that similarity (in either form) is an equivalence relation on $M_n(K)$.

Perhaps it is a bit early but note an interesting property of orthonormal bases of K^n in this context (K is \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} !)

Recall that when $\alpha = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ and $\beta = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ are bases of K^n then

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \varepsilon \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ v_1 & \dots & v_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}}_V, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \varepsilon \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ u_1 & \dots & u_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}}_U$$

and so $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = U^{-1}V$.

Now, if α is orthonormal w.r.t. the std. inner product

$$\Leftrightarrow v_i^* v_j = \delta_{ij} \text{ for all } i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow V^*V = I \Leftrightarrow V \text{ is orthogonal/unitary.}$$

Defn: Let E be a FDIPS with basis $\alpha = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$. Then the Gram matrix of the inner product w.r.t. α is the matrix

$$(G_\alpha)_{ij} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \langle v_j, v_i \rangle. \quad \square$$

We observe, for all $x, y \in E$: $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i, j=1}^n x_i \overline{y_j} \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$,

$$\text{which means: } \langle x, y \rangle = [y]_\alpha^* G_\alpha [x]_\alpha$$

In particular, it follows that **For any bases α, β of E ,**

$$G_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}^* G_\alpha \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

And so we have $G_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}^* \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$ whenever α is an orthonormal basis.

Since E has an orthonormal basis we conclude:

Thm: Let E be a FDIPS over \mathbb{K} and let β be a basis of E .
Then there exists an invertible matrix $P \in M_n(\mathbb{K})$ such that $G_\beta = P^* P$.

Example: Consider $E = \mathcal{P}_m$, the space of polynomials of degree $\leq m$ with coefficients in \mathbb{R} and

$$\langle f, g \rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) dx.$$

Then the Gram matrix of the std basis $\mathcal{E} = (1, x, \dots, x^m)$ is

$$G_{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \dots & \frac{1}{m+1} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \dots & \frac{1}{m+2} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{m+1} & \dots & \dots & \dots & \frac{1}{2m+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, if we apply Gram-Schmidt to produce an ONB α of E , then $P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{E} \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$ will produce a decomposition of $G_{\mathcal{E}}$ in the form $P^* P$. \square

Try doing this for, say, $m=4$.

⑦ Enough about the tools, let's deal with the problems at hand:

Recall: An operator $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$ is triangulable/diagonalizable, if there exists a basis α of E such that $[f]_\alpha$ is an upper-triangular/diagonal matrix

Defn: We say that an operator $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$ is orthogonally (or unitarily) triangulable/diagonalizable if there is an orthonormal basis α of E s.t. $[f]_\alpha$ is upper-triangular/diagonal matrix.

What does it mean to be triangulable?

$f: E \rightarrow E$ is triangulable \Leftrightarrow there is a strictly increasing sequence

$$[f]_\alpha \quad \alpha = (e_1, \dots, e_{k+l})$$

$k \times k$	*	*	=	$\begin{bmatrix} * \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$
0	$l \times l$	0		

$$\{0\} \subset W_1 \subset \dots \subset W_{\dim E} = E$$

of subspaces such that

$$f(\text{Span}(e_1, \dots, e_k)) \subseteq \text{Span}(e_1, \dots, e_k)$$

$$f(W_i) \subseteq W_i \text{ for all } i.$$

Defn: Let E be a vec. sp. and $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$. We say that a subspace $W \subset E$ is f -invariant if $f(W) \subseteq W$.

Defn: An increasing sequence $\{0\} = W_0 \subset W_1 \subset \dots \subset W_{\dim E} = E$ of subspaces in E is called a flag. A flag of f -invariant subspaces is called an f -invariant flag.

What does it mean to be diagonalizable?

$$[f]_{\alpha} = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n) \iff f(e_i) = d_i e_i \iff \alpha \text{ is a basis of } \underline{\text{eigenvectors of } f}$$

$(\alpha = (e_1, \dots, e_n))$

Defns: λ is an eigenvalue of f $\stackrel{\text{def.}}{\iff} \lambda \in \text{Spec}(f)$

$\stackrel{\text{def.}}{\iff} \lambda I - f$ is singular

- $E_{\lambda}(f) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \text{Ker}(\lambda I - f)$ the λ -th eigenspace of f
- $0 \neq v \in E_{\lambda}(f)$ is called an eigenvector of f
- $\det(tI - f) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \chi_f(t)$ is the characteristic poly. of f

Thus: $\lambda \in \text{Spec}(f) \iff \chi_f(\lambda) = 0$

HOWEVER, THIS REALLY DEPENDS ON THE FIELD FROM WHICH λ IS DRAWN. FOR US, THIS IS ALWAYS \mathbb{C} , BUT THEN EIGENVECTORS FOR EIGENVALUES MAY ONLY APPEAR IN $\mathbb{C} \otimes E$!

Also: f is diagonalizable $\iff E = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in K} E_{\lambda}(f)$

$$\iff \dim E = \sum_{\lambda \in K} \dim \text{Ker}(\lambda I - f)$$

AS IT IS KNOWN THAT $E_{\lambda}(f) \cap \sum_{\mu \neq \lambda} E_{\mu}(f) = \{0\}$ FOR ALL $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$.

One wonderful property of \mathbb{C} is:

Theorem (Schur): Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$, where E is a finite-dimensional vector space over \mathbb{C} . Then f is triangulable. Moreover, if E is an inner product space, then f is unitarily triangulable.

Pf: We note that orthogonal triangulability is directly obtained from triangulability via Gram-Schmidt process. \square

Suppose the first assertion of the theorem is false and find a counter-example $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$ with $\dim E$ minimal.

By the fundamental theorem of Algebra, $\chi_f(t)$ has a root $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and hence there is an eigenvector $z \in E$: $f(z) = \lambda_0 z$.

$$\text{We look at } \bar{f} := \begin{cases} E/\mathbb{C}z & \rightarrow E/\mathbb{C}z \\ x + \mathbb{C}z & \mapsto f(x) + \mathbb{C}z \end{cases}$$

This is well-defined, as $f(x + az) = f(x) + a\lambda_0 z$ for all $x \in E, a \in \mathbb{C}$.

Now, $\dim E/\mathbb{C}z < \dim E \Rightarrow \bar{f}$ is triangulable.

\Rightarrow there is an \bar{f} -invariant flag $0 \subset \bar{W}_1 \subset \dots \subset \bar{W}_d$ in $E/\mathbb{C}z$

\Rightarrow there is a f -invariant flag $0 \subset \mathbb{C}z \subset W_1 \subset \dots \subset W_d$ in E
where $W_0 = \mathbb{C}z$ and $\pi := \begin{cases} E \rightarrow E/\mathbb{C}z \\ x \mapsto x + \mathbb{C}z \end{cases}$.

\square

Some consequences of Schur's theorem's

- ① An operator $f: E_{\mathbb{R}} \rightarrow E_{\mathbb{R}}$ represented by a matrix $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ in an (orthonormal) basis α of E over \mathbb{R} extends to an operator see (2)

$$\mathbb{C} \otimes f: \mathbb{C} \otimes E \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \otimes E$$

represented by A in the corresponding basis $\mathbb{C} \otimes \alpha$ of $\mathbb{C} \otimes E$

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{C} \otimes f$ is triangulable over \mathbb{C}

$\Rightarrow A \sim$ a triangular matrix B over \mathbb{C}

$\Rightarrow \text{Spec}(A) = \{\text{diagonal entries of } B\}$

$\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{tr}(f) = \text{tr}(A) = \text{sum of eigenvalues of } f \text{ over } \mathbb{C} \\ \quad = -(\text{coefficient of } t^{n-1} \text{ in } X_f(t)) \\ \text{det}(f) = \text{det}(A) = (\text{product of eigenvalues of } f \\ \quad \text{over } \mathbb{C}) \\ \quad = (-1)^n (\text{free coefficient of } X_f(t)) \end{array} \right.$

- ② when $A = [f]_{\alpha}$, α is orthonormal, we have $A^* = [f^*]_{\alpha}$ but moreover:

$$(\mathbb{C} \otimes f)^* = \mathbb{C} \otimes f^* \text{ and both are represented by } A^* \text{ with respect to } \mathbb{C} \otimes \alpha.$$

Thus, WE MAY REASON ABOUT f, f^* AND THEIR REPRESENTING MATRICES ALWAYS ASSUMING ANY COMPLEX EIGENVALUE HAS AN EIGENVECTOR.

③ A word of CAUTION: If $A = [f]_{\alpha}$ is upper triangular, then A^* is lower-triangular

\Rightarrow writing $\alpha = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ and $W_k = \text{Span}(v_1, \dots, v_k)$, ($W_0 = \{0\}$)

results in a f -invariant flag $W_1 \subseteq W_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq W_n = E$

but then this flag is not necessarily invariant under f^* , but

$W'_{n-k} = \text{Span}(v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n)$ is an f^* -invariant flag.

To understand what is going on:

Lemma: Suppose $W \subseteq E$ is f -invariant. Then W^\perp is f^* -invariant.

Proof: Suppose that $f(x) \in W$ for all $x \in W$.

Take $y \in W^\perp$ and we need to show that $f^*(y) \in W^\perp$. For this we need to verify that $x \perp f^*(y)$ for all $x \in W$.

$$\langle x, f^*(y) \rangle = \langle f(x), y \rangle = 0.$$

since $f(x) \in W$
and $y \in W^\perp$



Examples of invariant subspaces: Fix $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$ and start looking:

(1) $\text{Im } f$: Indeed, $\text{Im } f \subseteq E \Rightarrow f(\text{Im } f) \subseteq f(E) = \text{Im } f$.

(2) $\text{Ker } f$: $f(\text{Ker } f) = \{0\} \subseteq \text{Ker } f$

(3) $\text{Ker } p(f)$ for $p(t) \in \mathbb{K}[t]$: $p(f)(x) = 0 \Rightarrow f(p(f)(x)) = 0 \Rightarrow p(f)(f(x)) = 0$.

$$(4) E_{\lambda}(f) = \text{Ker}(\lambda I - f) = \text{Ker } p(\lambda), \quad f(t) = \lambda - t.$$

(5) $g \in \mathcal{L}(E)$, $gf = fg \Rightarrow E_{\lambda}(f)$ is g -invariant for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

Let's check this: take $x \in E_{\lambda}(f) \Rightarrow f(x) = \lambda x$

$$\text{and compute } f(g(x)) = g(f(x)) = g(\lambda x) = \lambda g(x) \Rightarrow g(x) \in E_{\lambda}(f) \quad \square$$

The following is a major goal for us:

Theorem: Suppose $f \in \mathcal{L}(E_{\mathbb{C}})$ is normal, that is: $f^* f = f f^*$. Then f is orthogonally diagonalizable.

Let us do some preparatory work.

Lemma: If f is normal, then $\|fx\| = \|f^*x\|$ for all $x \in E$.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|fx\|^2 &= \langle fx, fx \rangle = \langle x, f^* f x \rangle = \langle x, f f^* x \rangle \\ &= \langle f^* x, f^* x \rangle = \|f^* x\|^2. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Corollary: If f is normal, then $E_{\lambda}(f) = E_{\bar{\lambda}}(f^*)$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof: we note that $g = \lambda I - f$ is also normal, as $g^* = \bar{\lambda} I - f^*$.

Thus

$$\begin{array}{ccc} x \in \text{Ker } g \Leftrightarrow \|gx\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \|g^*x\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x \in \text{Ker } g^* \\ \Downarrow & & \Downarrow \\ x \in E_{\lambda}(f) & & x \in E_{\bar{\lambda}}(f^*) \end{array}$$

\square

Proof of the theorem: We proceed by induction, having noted that the theorem holds true when $\dim(E) = 0, 1$.

Suppose $d \geq 1$ is such that every normal operator on a FDIPS of dimension $\leq d$ has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors, and suppose $f \in \mathcal{L}(E)$ is normal and $\dim E = d+1$. We need to produce an ONB for E consisting of eigenvectors of f . Remember: we are working over \mathbb{C} !

Then there is $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $\{0\} \neq E_\lambda(f) = E_{\bar{\lambda}}(f^*) := W$.

Now, W is both f & f^* -invariant $\Rightarrow W^\perp$ is both f^* & f -invariant.

$\dim W \geq 1 \Rightarrow \dim W^\perp < \dim E \Rightarrow f$ is a normal operator on W^\perp and hence there is an ONB α of W^\perp consisting of f -eigenvectors.

Lemma: If W is both f & f^* invariant, then $(f|_W)^* = f^*|_W$

\Rightarrow Pick an ONB α_λ of $E_\lambda(f)$, then $\alpha_\lambda \cup \alpha$ is the basis we seek. \square

Corollary (Spectral Theorem for Normal Operators): Let f be a linear operator on a finite-dimensional unitary space E . Then f is normal if and only if it can be written as a linear combination

$$\textcircled{*} f = \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}} \lambda \cdot P_\lambda$$

SPECTRAL DECOMPOSITION

where

- (1) $P_\lambda^2 = P_\lambda$ and $P_\lambda^* = P_\lambda$ (the P_λ are orthogonal projections)
- (2) $P_\lambda P_\mu = 0$ if $\lambda \neq \mu$
- (3) all but finitely many of the P_λ are zero, and $\sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}} P_\lambda = I$.

Moreover, this decomposition is unique, and each P_λ is a polynomial in f . \square