# Chapter 9

# Spectral Theorems in Euclidean and Hermitian Spaces

#### 9.1 Normal Linear Maps

Let E be a real Euclidean space (or a complex Hermitian space) with inner product  $u, v \mapsto \langle u, v \rangle$ .

In the real Euclidean case, recall that  $\langle -, - \rangle$  is bilinear, symmetric and positive definite (i.e.,  $\langle u, u \rangle > 0$  for all  $u \neq 0$ ).

In the complex Hermitian case, recall that  $\langle -, - \rangle$  is sesquilinear, which means that it linear in the first argument, semilinear in the second argument (i.e.,  $\langle u, \mu v \rangle = \overline{\mu} \langle u, v \rangle$ ),  $\langle v, u \rangle = \overline{\langle u, v \rangle}$ , and positive definite (as above). In both cases we let  $||u|| = \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$  and the map  $u \mapsto ||u||$  is a *norm*.

Recall that every linear map,  $f: E \to E$ , has an *adjoint*  $f^*$  which is a linear map,  $f^*: E \to E$ , such that

$$\langle f(u), v \rangle = \langle u, f^*(v) \rangle,$$

for all  $u, v \in E$ .

Since  $\langle -, - \rangle$  is symmetric, it is obvious that  $f^{**} = f$ .

**Definition 9.1.** Given a Euclidean (or Hermitian) space, E, a linear map  $f: E \to E$  is *normal* iff

$$f \circ f^* = f^* \circ f.$$

A linear map  $f: E \to E$  is *self-adjoint* if  $f = f^*$ , *skew-self-adjoint* if  $f = -f^*$ , and *orthogonal* if  $f \circ f^* = f^* \circ f = \text{id}$ .

Our first goal is to show that for every *normal* linear map  $f: E \to E$  (where E is a Euclidean space), there is an *orthonormal basis* (w.r.t.  $\langle -, - \rangle$ ) such that the matrix of f over this basis has an especially nice form:

It is a *block diagonal matrix* in which the blocks are either one-dimensional matrices (i.e., single entries) or twodimensional matrices of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \mu \\ -\mu & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

This normal form can be further refined if f is self-adjoint, skew-self-adjoint, or orthogonal.

As a first step, we show that f and  $f^*$  have the same kernel when f is normal.

**Proposition 9.1.** Given a Euclidean space E, if  $f: E \to E$  is a normal linear map, then  $\operatorname{Ker} f = \operatorname{Ker} f^*$ .

The next step is to show that for *every linear map*  $f: E \to E$ , there is some subspace W of dimension 1 or 2 such that  $f(W) \subseteq W$ .

When  $\dim(W) = 1$ , W is actually an eigenspace for some real eigenvalue of f.

Furthermore, when f is normal, there is a subspace W of dimension 1 or 2 such that  $f(W) \subseteq W$  and  $f^*(W) \subseteq W$ .

The difficulty is that the eigenvalues of f are not necessarily real. One way to get around this problem is to *complexify* both the vector space E and the inner product  $\langle -, - \rangle$ .

First, we need to embed a real vector space E into a complex vector space  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$ .

**Definition 9.2.** Given a real vector space E, let  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$  be the structure  $E \times E$  under the addition operation

$$(u_1, u_2) + (v_1, v_2) = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2),$$

and multiplication by a complex scalar z = x + iy defined such that

$$(x+iy)\cdot(u,\,v) = (xu - yv,\,yu + xv).$$

The space  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$  is called the *complexification* of E.

It is easily shown that the structure  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$  is a complex vector space.

It is also immediate that

$$(0, v) = i(v, 0),$$

and thus, identifying E with the subspace of  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$  consisting of all vectors of the form (u, 0), we can write

$$(u, v) = u + iv.$$

Given a vector w = u + iv, its *conjugate*  $\overline{w}$  is the vector  $\overline{w} = u - iv$ .

Observe that if  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  is a basis of E (a real vector space), then  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  is also a basis of  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$  (recall that  $e_i$  is an abreviation for  $(e_i, 0)$ ).

Given a linear map  $f: E \to E$ , the map f can be extended to a linear map  $f_{\mathbb{C}}: E_{\mathbb{C}} \to E_{\mathbb{C}}$  defined such that

$$f_{\mathbb{C}}(u+iv) = f(u) + if(v).$$

For any basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  of E, the matrix M(f) representing f over  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  is identical to the matrix  $M(f_{\mathbb{C}})$  representing  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  over  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ , where we view  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  as a basis of  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$ .

As a consequence,  $\det(zI - M(f)) = \det(zI - M(f_{\mathbb{C}}))$ , which means that f and  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  have the same characteristic polynomial (which has real coefficients).

We know that every polynomial of degree n with real (or complex) coefficients always has n complex roots (counted with their multiplicity), and the roots of det $(zI - M(f_{\mathbb{C}}))$  that are real (if any) are the eigenvalues of f.

Next, we need to extend the inner product on E to an inner product on  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$ .

The inner product  $\langle -, - \rangle$  on a Euclidean space E is extended to the Hermitian positive definite form  $\langle -, - \rangle_{\mathbb{C}}$  on  $E_{\mathbb{C}}$  as follows:

$$\langle u_1 + iv_1, u_2 + iv_2 \rangle_{\mathbb{C}} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle + \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + i(\langle u_2, v_1 \rangle - \langle u_1, v_2 \rangle).$$

Then, given any linear map  $f: E \to E$ , it is easily verified that the map  $f^*_{\mathbb{C}}$  defined such that

$$f^*_{\mathbb{C}}(u+iv) = f^*(u) + if^*(v)$$

for all  $u, v \in E$ , is the *adjoint* of  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  w.r.t.  $\langle -, - \rangle_{\mathbb{C}}$ .

Assuming again that E is a Hermitian space, observe that Proposition 9.1 also holds.

**Proposition 9.2.** Given a Hermitian space E, for any normal linear map  $f: E \to E$ , a vector u is an eigenvector of f for the eigenvalue  $\lambda$  (in  $\mathbb{C}$ ) iff u is an eigenvector of  $f^*$  for the eigenvalue  $\overline{\lambda}$ .

The next proposition shows a very important property of normal linear maps: eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

**Proposition 9.3.** Given a Hermitian space E, for any normal linear map  $f: E \to E$ , if u and v are eigenvectors of f associated with the eigenvalues  $\lambda$ and  $\mu$  (in  $\mathbb{C}$ ) where  $\lambda \neq \mu$ , then  $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$ . We can also show easily that the eigenvalues of a selfadjoint linear map are real.

**Proposition 9.4.** Given a Hermitian space E, the eigenvalues of any self-adjoint linear map  $f: E \to E$  are real.

There is also a version of Proposition 9.4 for a (real) Euclidean space E and a self-adjoint map  $f: E \to E$ .

**Proposition 9.5.** Given a Euclidean space E, if  $f: E \to E$  is any self-adjoint linear map, then every eigenvalue of  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  is real and is actually an eigenvalue of f. Therefore, all the eigenvalues of f are real.

Given any subspace W of a Hermitian space E, recall that the *orthogonal*  $W^{\perp}$  of W is the subspace defined such that

$$W^{\perp} = \{ u \in E \mid \langle u, w \rangle = 0, \text{ for all } w \in W \}.$$

Recall that  $E = W \oplus W^{\perp}$  (construct an orthonormal basis of E using the Gram–Schmidt orthonormalization procedure). The same result also holds for Euclidean spaces.

As a warm up for the proof of Theorem 9.9, let us prove that every self-adjoint map on a Euclidean space can be diagonalized with respect to an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors.

**Theorem 9.6.** Given a Euclidean space E of dimension n, for every self-adjoint linear map  $f: E \to E$ , there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  of eigenvectors of f such that the matrix of f w.r.t. this basis is a diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & \\ & \lambda_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix},$$

with  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

One of the key points in the proof of Theorem 9.6 is that we found a subspace W with the property that  $f(W) \subseteq W$  implies that  $f(W^{\perp}) \subseteq W^{\perp}$ .

In general, this does not happen, but normal maps satisfy a stronger property which ensures that such a subspace exists.

The following proposition provides a condition that will allow us to show that a normal linear map can be diagonalized. It actually holds for any linear map.

**Proposition 9.7.** Given a Hermitian space E, for any linear map  $f: E \to E$ , if W is any subspace of Esuch that  $f(W) \subseteq W$  and  $f^*(W) \subseteq W$ , then  $f(W^{\perp}) \subseteq$  $W^{\perp}$  and  $f^*(W^{\perp}) \subseteq W^{\perp}$ .

The above Proposition also holds for Euclidean spaces. Although we are ready to prove that for every normal linear map f (over a Hermitian space) there is an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors, we now return to real Euclidean spaces. If  $f: E \to E$  is a linear map and w = u + iv is an eigenvector of  $f_{\mathbb{C}}: E_{\mathbb{C}} \to E_{\mathbb{C}}$  for the eigenvalue  $z = \lambda + i\mu$ , where  $u, v \in E$  and  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$ , since

$$f_{\mathbb{C}}(u+iv) = f(u) + if(v)$$

and

$$f_{\mathbb{C}}(u+iv) = (\lambda + i\mu)(u+iv)$$
  
=  $\lambda u - \mu v + i(\mu u + \lambda v),$ 

we have

$$f(u) = \lambda u - \mu v$$
 and  $f(v) = \mu u + \lambda v$ ,

from which we immediately obtain

$$f_{\mathbb{C}}(u - iv) = (\lambda - i\mu)(u - iv),$$

which shows that  $\overline{w} = u - iv$  is an eigenvector of  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  for  $\overline{z} = \lambda - i\mu$ . Using this fact, we can prove the following proposition:

**Proposition 9.8.** Given a Euclidean space E, for any normal linear map  $f: E \to E$ , if w = u + iv is an eigenvector of  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  associated with the eigenvalue  $z = \lambda + i\mu$  (where  $u, v \in E$  and  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$ ), if  $\mu \neq 0$ (i.e., z is not real) then  $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$  and  $\langle u, u \rangle = \langle v, v \rangle$ , which implies that u and v are linearly independent, and if W is the subspace spanned by u and v, then f(W) = W and  $f^*(W) = W$ . Furthermore, with respect to the (orthogonal) basis (u, v), the restriction of f to W has the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \mu \\ -\mu & \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $\mu = 0$ , then  $\lambda$  is a real eigenvalue of f and either uor v is an eigenvector of f for  $\lambda$ . If W is the subspace spanned by u if  $u \neq 0$ , or spanned by  $v \neq 0$  if u = 0, then  $f(W) \subseteq W$  and  $f^*(W) \subseteq W$ . **Theorem 9.9.** (Main Spectral Theorem) Given a Euclidean space E of dimension n, for every normal linear map  $f: E \to E$ , there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  such that the matrix of f w.r.t. this basis is a block diagonal matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & \dots & \\ & A_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & A_p \end{pmatrix}$$

such that each block  $A_j$  is either a one-dimensional matrix (i.e., a real scalar) or a two-dimensional matrix of the form

$$A_j = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_j & -\mu_j \\ \mu_j & \lambda_j \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda_j, \mu_j \in \mathbb{R}$ , with  $\mu_j > 0$ .

After this relatively hard work, we can easily obtain some nice normal forms for the matrices of self-adjoint, skewself-adjoint, and orthogonal, linear maps.

However, for the sake of completeness, we state the following theorem.

**Theorem 9.10.** Given a Hermitian space E of dimension n, for every normal linear map  $f: E \to E$ , there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  of eigenvectors of f such that the matrix of f w.r.t. this basis is a diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & \\ & \lambda_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda_j \in \mathbb{C}$ .

*Remark*: There is a *converse* to Theorem 9.10, namely, if there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  of eigenvectors of f, then f is normal.

## 9.2 Self-Adjoint, Skew-Self-Adjoint, and Orthogonal Linear Maps

**Theorem 9.11.** Given a Euclidean space E of dimension n, for every self-adjoint linear map  $f: E \to E$ , there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  of eigenvectors of f such that the matrix of f w.r.t. this basis is a diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & \\ & \lambda_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Theorem 9.11 implies that if  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_p$  are the distinct real eigenvalues of f and  $E_i$  is the eigenspace associated with  $\lambda_i$ , then

$$E = E_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus E_p,$$

where  $E_i$  and  $E_j$  are othogonal for all  $i \neq j$ .

**Theorem 9.12.** Given a Euclidean space E of dimension n, for every skew-self-adjoint linear map  $f: E \to E$ , there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  such that the matrix of f w.r.t. this basis is a block diagonal matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & \dots & \\ & A_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & A_p \end{pmatrix}$$

such that each block  $A_j$  is either 0 or a two-dimensional matrix of the form

$$A_j = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\mu_j \\ \mu_j & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\mu_j \in \mathbb{R}$ , with  $\mu_j > 0$ . In particular, the eigenvalues of  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  are pure imaginary of the form  $\pm i\mu_j$ , or 0.

**Theorem 9.13.** Given a Euclidean space E of dimension n, for every orthogonal linear map  $f: E \to E$ , there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$  such that the matrix of f w.r.t. this basis is a block diagonal matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & \dots & \\ & A_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & A_p \end{pmatrix}$$

such that each block  $A_j$  is either 1, -1, or a twodimensional matrix of the form

$$A_j = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_j & -\sin \theta_j \\ \sin \theta_j & \cos \theta_j \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $0 < \theta_j < \pi$ .

In particular, the eigenvalues of  $f_{\mathbb{C}}$  are of the form  $\cos \theta_j \pm i \sin \theta_j$ , or 1, or -1.

It is obvious that we can reorder the orthonormal basis of eigenvectors given by Theorem 9.13, so that the matrix of f w.r.t. this basis is a block diagonal matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & \dots & & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & \dots & A_r & & \\ & & & -I_q \\ \dots & & & & I_p \end{pmatrix}$$

where each block  $A_j$  is a two-dimensional rotation matrix  $A_j \neq \pm I_2$  of the form

$$A_j = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_j & -\sin \theta_j \\ \sin \theta_j & \cos \theta_j \end{pmatrix}$$

with  $0 < \theta_j < \pi$ .

The linear map f has an eigenspace E(1, f) = Ker(f - id)of dimension p for the eigenvalue 1, and an eigenspace E(-1, f) = Ker(f + id) of dimension q for the eigenvalue -1. If  $\det(f) = +1$  (*f* is a rotation), the dimension *q* of E(-1, f) must be even, and the entries in  $-I_q$  can be paired to form two-dimensional blocks, if we wish.

*Remark*: Theorem 9.13 can be used to prove a sharper version of the Cartan-Dieudonné Theorem.

**Theorem 9.14.** Let E be a Euclidean space of dimension  $n \ge 2$ . For every isometry  $f \in O(E)$ , if  $p = \dim(E(1, f)) = \dim(\operatorname{Ker}(f - \operatorname{id}))$ , then f is the composition of n - p reflections and n - p is minimal.

The theorems of this section and of the previous section can be immediately applied to matrices.

## 9.3 Normal, Symmetric, Skew-Symmetric, Orthogonal, Hermitian, Skew-Hermitian, and Unitary Matrices

First, we consider real matrices.

**Definition 9.3.** Given a real  $m \times n$  matrix A, the *transpose*  $A^{\top}$  of A is the  $n \times m$  matrix  $A^{\top} = (a_{ij}^{\top})$  defined such that

$$a_{i\,j}^{\top} = a_{j\,i}$$

for all  $i, j, 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$ . A real  $n \times n$  matrix A is

1. normal iff

$$A A^{\top} = A^{\top} A,$$

2. symmetric iff

$$A^{\top} = A,$$

3. skew-symmetric iff

$$A^{\top} = -A,$$

4. orthogonal iff

$$A A^{\top} = A^{\top} A = I_n.$$

**Theorem 9.15.** For every normal matrix A, there is an orthogonal matrix P and a block diagonal matrix D such that  $A = PDP^{\top}$ , where D is of the form

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} D_1 & \dots & \\ & D_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & D_p \end{pmatrix}$$

such that each block  $D_j$  is either a one-dimensional matrix (i.e., a real scalar) or a two-dimensional matrix of the form

$$D_j = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_j & -\mu_j \\ \mu_j & \lambda_j \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda_j, \mu_j \in \mathbb{R}$ , with  $\mu_j > 0$ .

**Theorem 9.16.** For every symmetric matrix A, there is an orthogonal matrix P and a diagonal matrix D such that  $A = PDP^{\top}$ , where D is of the form

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & \\ & \lambda_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 9.17.** For every skew-symmetric matrix A, there is an orthogonal matrix P and a block diagonal matrix D such that  $A = PDP^{\top}$ , where D is of the form

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} D_1 & \dots & \\ & D_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & D_p \end{pmatrix}$$

such that each block  $D_j$  is either 0 or a two-dimensional matrix of the form

$$D_j = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\mu_j \\ \mu_j & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\mu_j \in \mathbb{R}$ , with  $\mu_j > 0$ . In particular, the eigenvalues of A are pure imaginary of the form  $\pm i\mu_j$ , or 0.

**Theorem 9.18.** For every orthogonal matrix A, there is an orthogonal matrix P and a block diagonal matrix D such that  $A = PDP^{\top}$ , where D is of the form

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} D_1 & \dots & \\ & D_2 & \dots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \dots & D_p \end{pmatrix}$$

such that each block  $D_j$  is either 1, -1, or a twodimensional matrix of the form

$$D_j = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_j & -\sin \theta_j \\ \sin \theta_j & \cos \theta_j \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $0 < \theta_j < \pi$ .

In particular, the eigenvalues of A are of the form  $\cos \theta_j \pm i \sin \theta_j$ , or 1, or -1.

We now consider complex matrices.

**Definition 9.4.** Given a complex  $m \times n$  matrix A, the *transpose*  $A^{\top}$  of A is the  $n \times m$  matrix  $A^{\top} = (a_{ij}^{\top})$  defined such that

$$a_{i\,j}^{\top} = a_{j\,i}$$

for all  $i, j, 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$ . The conjugate  $\overline{A}$  of A is the  $m \times n$  matrix  $\overline{A} = (b_{ij})$  defined such that

$$b_{ij} = \overline{a}_{ij}$$

for all  $i, j, 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$ . Given an  $n \times n$  complex matrix A, the *adjoint*  $A^*$  of A is the matrix defined such that

$$A^* = \overline{(A^\top)} = (\overline{A})^\top.$$

A complex  $n \times n$  matrix A is

1. normal iff

$$AA^* = A^*A,$$

2. *Hermitian* iff

$$A^* = A,$$

3. skew-Hermitian iff

$$A^* = -A,$$

4. *unitary* iff

$$AA^* = A^*A = I_n.$$

Theorem 9.10 can be restated in terms of matrices as follows. We can also say a little more about eigenvalues (easy exercise left to the reader).

**Theorem 9.19.** For every complex normal matrix A, there is a unitary matrix U and a diagonal matrix D such that  $A = UDU^*$ . Furthermore, if A is Hermitian, D is a real matrix, if A is skew-Hermitian, then the entries in D are pure imaginary or null, and if A is unitary, then the entries in D have absolute value 1.