Inner Product Spaces Linear Algebra Notes

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1 Introduction

In this chapter we study the additional structures that a vector space over field of reals or complex vector spaces have. So, in this chapter, \mathbb{R} will denote the field of reals, \mathbb{C} will denote the field of complex numbers, and \mathbb{F} will denote one of them.

In my view, this is where algebra drifts out to analysis.

1.1 (Definition) Let \mathbb{F} be the field reals or complex numbers and V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} . An inner product on V is a function

$$(*,*): V \times V \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

such that

- 1. (ax + by, z) = a(x, z) + b(y, z), for $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ and $x, y, z \in V$.
- 2. $(x,y) = \overline{(y,x)}$ for $x, y \in V$.
- 3. (x, x) > 0 for all non-zero $x \in V$
- 4. Also define $||x|| = \sqrt{(x,x)}$. This is called **norm** of x.

Comments: Real Case: Assume $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$. Then

1. Item (2) means (x, y) = (y, x).

2. Also (1 and 2) means that the inner product is bilinear.

Comments: Complex Case: Assume $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$. Then

1. Items (1 and 2) means that the $(x, cy + dz) = \overline{c}(x, y) + \overline{c}(x, z)$.

1.2 (Example) On \mathbb{R}^n we have the standard inner product defined by $(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$, where $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

1.3 (Example) On \mathbb{C}^n we have the standard inner product defined by $(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \overline{y_i}$, where $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n$

1.4 (Example) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ OR \mathbb{C} and $V = \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. For $A = (a_{ij}), B = (b_{ij}) \in V$ define inner product

$$(A,B) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} \overline{b_{ij}}.$$

Define conjugate transpose $B^* = (\overline{B})^t$. Then

$$(A, B) = trace(B^*A)$$

1.5 (Example: Integration) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ *OR* \mathbb{C} and *V* be the vector space of all \mathbb{F} -valued continuous functions on [0, 1]. For $f, g \in V$ define

$$(f,g) = \int_0^1 f\overline{g}dt.$$

This is an inner product on V. In some distant future this will be called L^2 inner product space. This can be done in any "space" where you have an idea of integration and it will come under Measure Theory.

1.6 (Matrix of Inner Product) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ *OR* \mathbb{C} . Suppose *V* is a vector space over \mathbb{F} with an inner product. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be a basis of *V*. Let $p_{i,j} = (e_i, e_j)$ and $P = (p_{ij}) \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then for $v = x_1e_1 + \cdots + x_ne_n \in V$ and $W = y_1e_1 + \cdots + y_ne_n \in V$ we have

$$(v,w) = \sum x_i \overline{y_j} p_{ij} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) P \begin{pmatrix} \overline{y_1} \\ \overline{y_2} \\ \dots \\ \overline{y_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

- 1. This matrix P is called the **matrix of the inner product** with respect to the basis e_1, \ldots, e_n .
- 2. (Definition.) A matrix B is called hermitian if $B = B^*$.
- 3. So, matrix P in (1) is a hermitian matrix.
- 4. Since (v, v) > 0, for all non-zero $v \in V$, we have

$$XP\overline{X}^t > 0$$
 for all $non - zero$ $X \in \mathbb{F}^n$.

- 5. It also follows that P is non-singular. (Otherwise XP = 0 for some non-zero X.)
- 6. Conversely, if P is a $n \times n$ hermitian matrix satisfying such that $XP\overline{X}^t > 0$ for all $X \in \mathbb{F}^n$ then

$$(X,Y) = XP\overline{Y}^t \quad for \quad X \in \mathbb{F}^n.$$

defines an inner product on \mathbb{F}^n .

2 Inner Product Spaces

We will do calculus of inner produce.

2.1 (Definition) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ OR \mathbb{C} . A vector space V over \mathbb{F} with an inner product (*, *) is said to an inner product space.

- 1. An inner product space V over \mathbb{R} is also called a **Euclidean space**.
- 2. An inner product space V over \mathbb{C} is also called a **unitary space**.

2.2 (Basic Facts) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ *OR* \mathbb{C} and *V* be an inner product over \mathbb{F} . For $v, w \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{F}$ we have

- 1. || cv || = |c| || v ||,
- $2. \parallel v \parallel > 0 \quad if \quad v \neq 0,$
- 3. $|(v, w)| \leq ||v|| ||w||$, Equility holds if and only if $w = \frac{(w,v)}{||v||^2}v$. (It is called the Cauchy-Swartz inequality.)
- 4. $\|v+w\| \leq \|v\|+\|w\|$. (It is called the triangular inequality.)

Proof. Part 1 and 2 is obvious from the definition. To prove the Part (3), we can assume that $v \neq 0$. Write

$$z = w - \frac{(w, v)}{\|v\|^2}v.$$

Then (z, v) = 0 and

$$0 \le ||z||^2 = (z, w - \frac{(w, v)}{||v||^2}v) = (z, w) = (w - \frac{(w, v)}{||v||^2}v, w) = ||w||^2 - \frac{(w, v)(v, w)}{||v||^2}.$$

This establishes (3). We will use Part 3 to prove Part 4, as follows:

 $\|v+w\|^{2} = \|v\|^{2} + (v,w) + (w,v) + \|w\|^{2} = \|v\|^{2} + 2Re[(v,w)] + \|w\|^{2} \le \|v\|^{2} + 2|(v,w)| + \|w\|^{2} \le \|v\|^{2} + 2\|v\|\|w\| + \|w\|^{2} = (\|v\| + \|w\|)^{2}.$ This establishes Part 4.

2.3 (Application of Cauchy-Schwartz inequality) Application of (3) of Facts 2.2 gives the following:

1. Example 1.2 gives

$$|\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i| \le (\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2)^{1/2} (\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2)^{1/2}$$

for $x, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$.

2. Example 1.3, gives

$$|\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \overline{y_i}| \le (\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^2)^{1/2} (\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i|^2)^{1/2}$$

for $x, y_i \in \mathbb{C}$.

3. Example 1.4, gives

$$| trace(AB^*) | \leq trace(AA^*)^{1/2} trace(BB^*)^{1/2}$$

for $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$.

4. Example 1.5, gives

$$|\int_{0}^{1} f(t)\overline{g(t)}dt| \leq (\int_{0}^{1} |f(t)|^{2} dt)^{1/2} (\int_{0}^{1} |g(t)|^{2} dt)^{1/2}$$

for any two continuous \mathbb{C} -valued functions f, g on [0, 1].

2.1 Orthogonality

2.4 (Definition) Let \mathbb{F} be \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . Let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} .

- 1. Suppose $v, w \in V$. We say that v and w are **mutually orthogonal** if the inner product (v, w) = 0 (*OR equivalently if* (w, v) = 0. We use variations of the expression "mutually orthogonal" and sometime we do not mention the word "mutually".)
- 2. For $v, w \in V$ we write $v \perp w$ to mean v and w are mutually orthogonal.
- 3. A subset $S \subseteq V$ is said to be an **orthogonal set** if

$$v \perp w$$
 for all $v, w \in S$, $v \neq w$.

4. An othrhogonal set S is said to be an **orthnormal set** if

$$\parallel v \parallel = 1 \quad for \quad all \quad v \in S.$$

- 5. (Comment) Note the zero vector is otrhogonal to all elements of V.
- 6. (Comment) Geometrically, $v \perp w$ means v is perpendicular to w.
- 7. (Example) Let $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ or $V = \mathbb{C}^n$. Then the standard basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal set.
- 8. (Example) In \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{C}^2 , we have the ordered pairs v = (x, y) and w = (y, -x) are oththogonal. (Caution: Notation (x, y) here.)

2.5 (Example) Cosider the example 1.5 over \mathbb{R} . Here V is the inner product space of all real valued continuous functions on [0, 1]. Let

$$f_n(t) = \sqrt{2}\cos(2\pi nt) \qquad g_n(t) = \sqrt{2}\sin(2\pi nt)$$

Then

$$\{1, f_1, g_1, f_2, g_2, \ldots\}$$

is an orthonormal set.

Now consider the inner product space W in the same example 1.5 over \mathbb{C} . Let

$$h_n = \frac{f_n + ig_n}{\sqrt{2}} = exp(2\pi int).$$

Then

$${h_n: n = 0, 1, -1, 2, -2, \dots, \dots}$$

is an orthonormal set

2.6 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let S be an orthogonal set of non-zero vectors. Then S is linearly independent. (*Therefore, cardinality*(S) $\leq \dim V$.)

Proof. Let $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in S$ and

$$c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_nv_n = 0$$

where $c_i \in \mathbb{F}$. We will prove $c_i = 0$. For example, apply inner product $(*, v_1)$ to the above equation. We get:

$$c_1(v_1, v_1) + c_2(v_2, v_1) + \dots + c_n(v_n, v_1) = (0, v_1) = 0.$$

Since $(v_1, v_1) \neq 0$ and $(v_2, v_1) = (v_3, v_1) = \cdots = (v_n, v_1) = 0$, we get $c_1 = 0$. Similarly, $c_i = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$.

2.7 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Assume $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_r\}$ is a set of non-zero orthogonal vectors. Let $v \in V$ and

$$v = c_1 e_1 + c_2 e_2 + \dots + c_r e_r$$

where $c_i \in \mathbb{F}$. Then

$$c_i = \frac{(v, e_i)}{\parallel e_i \parallel^2}$$

for i = 1, ..., r.

Proof. For example, apply inner product $(*, e_1)$ to the above and get

$$(v, e_1) = c_1(e_1, e_1) = c_1 \parallel e_1 \parallel^2$$

So, c_1 is as asserted and, similarly, so is c_i for all i.

2.8 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_r be a set of linearly independent set. Then we can construct elements $e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_r \in V$ such that

- 1. $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_r\}$ is an orthonormal set,
- 2. $e_k \in Span(\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\})$

Proof. The proof is known as **Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization** process. Note $v_1 \neq 0$. First, let

$$e_1 = \frac{v_1}{\parallel v_1 \parallel}.$$

Then $||e_1|| = 1$. Now lat

$$e_2 = \frac{v_2 - (v_2, e_1)e_1}{\parallel v_2 - (v_2, e_1)e_1 \parallel}.$$

Note that the denominator is non-zero, $e_1 \perp e_2$ and $||e_2|| = 1$. Now we use the induction. Suppose we already constructed e_1, \ldots, e_{k-1} that satisfies (1) and (2) and $k \leq r$. Let

$$e_k = \frac{v_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (v_k, e_i) e_i}{\| v_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (v_k, e_i) e_i \|}.$$

Note that the denominator is non-zero, $||e_k|| = 1$. and $e_k \perp e_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, k-1$. From construction, we also have

$$Span(\{v_1,\ldots,v_k\}) = Span(\{e_1,\ldots,e_k\}).$$

So, the proof is complete.

2.9 (Corollary) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Then V has an orthonormal basis.

Proof. The proof is immediate from the above theorem 2.8.

Examples. Read examples 12 and 13, page 282, for some numerical computations.

2.10 (Definition) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let W be a subspace of V and $v \in V$. An element $w_0 \in W$ is said to be a **best approximation to** v or **nearest to** v **in** W, if

 $\|v - w_0\| \leq \|v - w\| \quad for \quad all \quad w \in W.$

(Try to think what it means in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{C}^n when W is line or a plane through the origin.)

Remark. I like the expression "nearest" and the textbook uses "best approximation". I will try to be consistent to the textbook.

2.11 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let W be a subspace of V and $v \in V$. Then

- 1. An element $w_0 \in W$ is best approximation to v if and only if $(v w_0) \perp w$ for all $w \in W$.
- 2. A best approximation $w_0 \in W$ to v, if exists, is unique.
- 3. Suppose W is finite dimensional and e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n is an orthonormal basis of W. Then

$$w_0 = \sum_{k=1}^n (v, e_k) e_k$$

is the best approximation to v in W. (The textbook mixes up orthogonal and orthonormal and have a condition the looks complex. We assume orthonormal and so $|| e_i || = 1$)

Proof. To prove (1) let $w_0 \in W$ be such that $(v - w_0) \perp w$ for all $w \in W$. Then, since $w - w_0 \in W$, we have

$$||v-w||^{2} = ||(v-w_{0})+(w_{0}-w)||^{2} = ||(v-w_{0})||^{2} + ||(w_{0}-w)||^{2} \ge ||(v-w_{0})||^{2}.$$

Therefore, w_0 is nearest to v. Conversely, assume that $w_0 \in W$ is nearest to v. We will prove that the inner product $(v - w_0, w) = 0$ for all $w \in W$. For convenience, we write $v_0 = v - w_0$. So, we have

$$|| v_0 ||^2 \le || v - w ||^2 \qquad Eqn - I$$

for all $w \in W$. Write $v - w = v - w_0 + (w_0 - w) = v_0 + (w_0 - w)$. Since any element in w van be written as $w_0 - w$ for some $w \in W$, Eqn-I can be rewritten as

$$||v_0||^2 \le ||v_0 + w||^2$$

for all $w \in W$. So, we have

$$|| v_0 ||^2 \le || v_0 + w ||^2 = || v_0 ||^2 + 2Re[(v_0, w)] + || w ||^2$$

and hence

$$0 \le 2Re[(v_0, w)] + \parallel w \parallel^2 \qquad Eqn - II$$

for all $w \in W$.

Fix $w \in W$ with $w \neq w_0$ and write

$$\tau = -\frac{(v_0, w_0 - w)}{\|w_0 - w\|^2}(w_0 - w).$$

Since, $\tau \in W$, we can substitute τ for w in Eqn-II and get

$$0 \le -\frac{\mid (v_0, w_0 - w) \mid^2}{\parallel w_0 - w \parallel^2}.$$

Therefore $(v_0, w_0 - w) = 0$ for all $w \in W$ with $w_0 - w \neq 0$. Again, since any non-zero element in W can be written as $w_0 - w$, it follows that $(v_0, w) = 0$ for all $w \in W$. So the proof of (1) is complete.

To prove Part 2, let w_0, w_1 be nearest to v. Then, by orthogonality (1), we have

$$||w_0 - w_1||^2 = (w_0 - w_1, w_0 - w_1) = (w_0 - w_1, [w_0 - v] + [v - w_1]) = 0.$$

So, Part 2 is established.

Let w_0 be given as in Part 3. Now, to prove Part 3, we will prove $(w_0-v) \perp e_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. So, for example,

$$(w_0 - v, e_1) = (w_0, e_1) - (v, e_1) = (v, e_1)(e_1, e_1) - (v, e_1) = 0.$$

So, Part 3 is established.

2.12 (Definition) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let S be a subset of V. The **otrhogonal complement** S^{\perp} of S is the set of all elements in V that are orthogonal to each element of S. So,

$$S^{\perp} = \{ v \in V : v \perp w \quad for \quad all \quad w \in S \}.$$

It is easy to check that

- 1. S^{\perp} is a subspace of V.
- 2. $\{0\}^{\perp} = V$ and
- 3. $V^{\perp} = \{0\}.$

2.13 (Definition and Facts) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let W be a subspace of V. Suppose $v \in V$, we say that $w \in W$ is the **orthogonal projection of** v **to** W, if w is nearest to v.

- 1. There is no guarantee that orthogonal projection exists. But by Part 2 of theorem 2.11, when it exists, orthogonal projection is unique.
- 2. Also, if $\dim(W)$ is finite, then by Part 3 of theorem 2.11, orthogonal projection always exists.
- 3. Assume $\dim(W)$ is finite. Define the map

$$\pi_W: V \to V$$

where $\pi(v)$ is the orthogonal projection of v in W. The map π_W is a linear operator and is called the **orthogonal projection of** V to W. Clearly, $\pi_W^2 = \pi_W$. So, π_W is , indeed, a projection.

4. For $v \in V$, let $E(v) = v - \pi_W(v)$. Then E is the othrogonal projection of V to W^{\perp} . **Proof.** By definition of π_W , we have, $E(v) = v - \pi_W(v) \in W^{\perp}$. Now, given $v \in V$ and $w^* \in W^{\perp}$ we have, $(v - E(v), w^*) = (\pi_W(v), w^*) = 0$. So, by theorem 2.11, E is the projection to W^{\perp} .

Example. Read Example 14, page 286.

2.14 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let W be a finite dimensional subspace of V. Then π_W is a projection and W^{\perp} is the null space of π_W . Therefore,

$$V = W \oplus W^{\perp}.$$

Proof. Obvious.

2.15 (Theorem: Bessel's inequality) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Suppose $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$ is an orthogonal set of non-zero vector. Then, for any element $v \in V$ we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{|(v, v_k)|^2}{\|v_k\|^2} \leq \|v\|^2.$$

Also, the equality holds if and only if

$$v = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(v, v_k)}{\|v_k\|^2} v_k.$$

Proof. We write,

$$e_k = \frac{v_k}{\parallel v_k \parallel}$$

and prove that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} |(v, e_k)|^2 \leq ||v||^2.$$

where $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal set. Write $W = Span(\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\})$. By theorem 2.11,

$$w_0 = \sum_{k=1}^n (v, e_k) e_k$$

is nearest to v in W. So, $(v - w_0, w_0) = 0$. Therefore,

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$$||v||^2 = ||(v - w_0) + w_0||^2 = ||(v - w_0)||^2 + ||w_0||^2.$$

So,

$$||v||^2 \geq ||w_0||^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n |(v, e_k)|^2.$$

Also note that the equality holds if and only if $|| (v - w_0) ||^2 = 0$ if and only if $v = w_0$. So, the proof is complete.

If we apply Bessel's inequality 2.15 to te example 2.5 we get the following inequality.

2.16 (Theorem: Application of Bessel's inequality) For and \mathbb{C} -valued continuous function f on [0, 1] we have

$$\sum_{k=-n}^{n} |\int_{0}^{1} f(t) exp(2\pi i kt) dt|^{2} \leq \int_{0}^{1} |f(t)|^{2} dt.$$

Homework: Exercise 1-7, 9, 11 from page 288-289. These are popular problems fro Quals.

3 Linear Functionals and Adjoints

We start with some preliminary comments.

3.1 (Comments and Theorems) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} .

1. Given an element $v \in V$ we can define a linear functional

$$f_v: V \to \mathbb{F}$$

by $f_v(x) = (x, v)$.

2. The association $F(v) = f_v$ defines a natural linear map

$$F: V \to V^*$$

- 3. In fact, F is injective. **Proof.** Suppose $f_v = 0$ Then (x, v) = 0 for all $x \in V$. so, (v, v) = 0 and hence v = 0.
- 4. Now assume that V has finite dimension. Then the natural map F is an isomorphism.
- 5. Again, assume V has finite dimension n and assume $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis. Let $f \in V^*$. Let

$$v = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \overline{f(e_i)} e_i.$$

Then $f = F(v) = f_v$. That means,

$$f(x) = (x, v)$$
 for all $x \in V$.

Proof. We will only check $f(e_1) = (e_1, v)$, which is obvious by orthonormality.

6. Assume the same as in Part 5. Then the association

$$G(f) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \overline{f(e_i)} e_i$$

defines the inverse

 $G: V^* \to V$

of F.

7. (**Remark.**) The map F fails to be isomorphism if V is not finite dimensional. Following is an example that shows F is not on to.

3.2 (Example) Let V be the vector space of polynomial over \mathbb{C} . For $f, g \in V$ define inner product:

$$(f,g) = \int_0^1 f(t)\overline{g(t)}dt.$$

Note $\int_0^1 t^j t^k dt = \frac{1}{j+k+1}$. So, if $f(X) = \sum a_k X^k$ and $g(X) = \sum b_k X^k$ we have

$$(f,g) = \sum_{j,k} \frac{1}{j+k+1} a_j \overline{b_k}.$$

Fix a complex number $z \in \mathbb{C}$. By evaluation at z, we define the functional $L: V \to \mathbb{C}$ as L(f) = f(z). for any $f \in V$. We claim that L is not in the image of tha map $F: V \to V^*$. In other words, there is no polynomial $g \in V$ such that

$$f(z) = L(f) = (f,g) = \int_0^1 f(t)\overline{g(t)}dt$$
 for all $f \in V$.

To prove this suppose there is such a g.

Write h = X - z. Given $f \in V$, we have $hf \in V$ and 0 = (hf)(z) = L(hf). So,

$$0 = L(hf) = (hf,g) = \int_0^1 h(t)f(t)\overline{g(t)}dt \quad for \quad all \quad f \in V.$$

By substituting $f = (X - \overline{z})g$ we have

$$0 = \int_0^1 |h(t)|^2 |g(t)|^2 dt.$$

Since $h \neq 0$ it follows g = 0. But $L \neq 0$.

3.1 Adjoint Operation

3.3 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Suppose $T \in L(V, V)$ is a linear operator. Then, there is a unique linear operator

$$T^*: V \to V$$

such that

$$(T(v), w) = (v, T^*(w)) \quad for \quad all \quad v, w \in V.$$

Definition. This operator T^* is called the **Adjoint** of T.

Proof. Fix and element $w \in V$. Let $\Gamma : V \to \mathbb{F}$, be defined by the diagram:

$$V \xrightarrow{T} V$$

$$\Gamma \qquad \bigvee \qquad \downarrow^{(*,w)}$$

$$\mathbb{F}$$

That means $\Gamma(v) = (T(v), w)$ for all $v \in V$.

By Part 2 of thorem 3.1, there is an unique element w' such that

$$\Gamma(v) = (v, w') \quad for \quad all \quad v \in V.$$

That means

$$(T(v), w) = (v, w')$$
 for all $v \in V$. $(Eqn - I)$

Now, define $T^*(w) = w'$. It is easy to check that T^* is linear (use Eqn-I). Uniqueness also follows from Eqn-I.

3.4 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Suppose $T \in L(V, V)$ is a linear operator. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be an orthomormal basis of V. Suppose $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator of V.

1. Write

 $a_{ij} = (T(e_j), e_i)$ and $A = (a_{ij}).$

Then A is the matrix of T with respect to e_1, \ldots, e_n .

2. With respect to e_1, \ldots, e_n , the matrix of the adjoint T^* is the conjugate transpose of the matrix A of T.

Proof. To prove Part 1, we need to prove that

$$(T(e_1), \dots, T(e_n)) = (e_1, \dots, e_n) \begin{pmatrix} (T(e_1), e_1) & (T(e_2), e_1) & \dots & (T(e_n), e_1) \\ (T(e_1), e_2) & (T(e_2), e_2) & \dots & (T(e_n), e_2) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ (T(e_1), e_n) & (T(e_2), e_n) & \dots & (T(e_n), e_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

This follows because, if $T(e_1) = \lambda_1 e_1 + \lambda_2 e_2 + \cdots + \lambda_n e_n$, then $\lambda_i = (T(e_1), e_i)$. So, the proof of Part 1 is complete.

Now, by Part 1, them matrix of the adjoint T^* is

$$B = ((T^*(e_j), e_i)) = (\overline{(e_i, T^*(e_j))}) = (\overline{(T(e_i), e_j)}) = A^*.$$

This completes the proof of Part 2.

3.5 (Theorem: Projection and Adjoint) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $E \in L(V, V)$ be an orthogonal projection. Then $E = E^*$.

Proof. For any $x, y \in V$, we have

$$(E(x), y) = (E(x), E(y) + [y - E(y)]) = (E(x), E(y))$$
 because $[y - E(y)] \perp W$.

Also

$$(E(x), E(y)) = (x + [E(x) - x], E(y)) = (x, E(y))$$
 because $[x - E(x)] \perp W$.

Therefore

$$(E(x), y) = (x, E(y))$$
 for all $x, y \in V$.

Hence $E = E^*$.

3.6 (Remarks and Examples) let $V = \mathbb{R}$ and $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ be a symmetric matrix. Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be defined by A. Then $T = T^*$. Also note that matrix of T with respect to some other basis may not be symmetric. Read Example 17-21 from page 294-296.

3.7 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T, U \in L(V, V)$ be two linear operator and $c \in \mathbb{F}$. Then

- 1. $(T+U)^* = T^* + U^*$,
- 2. $(cT)^* = \overline{c}T^*$,
- 3. $(TU)^* = U^*T^*$,
- 4. $(T^*)^* = T$.

Proof. The proof is direct consequence of the definition (theorem 3.3).

The theorem 3.7 can be phrased as the map

$$L(V,V) \to L(V,V)$$

that sends $T \to T^*$ is conjugate-linear, anti-isomorphism of period two.

3.8 (Definition) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator and $c \in \mathbb{F}$. We say T is self-adjoint or Hermitian if $T = T^*$.

Suppose $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of V. Let A be the matrix of T with respect to E. Then T is self-adjoint if and only if $A = A^*$.

4 Unitary Operators

Let me draw your attention that the expression "isomorphism" means different things in different context - like group isomorphism, vector space isomorphism, module isomorphism. In this section we talk about isomorphisms of inner product spaces.

4.1 (Definition and Facts) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V, W be two inner product spaces over \mathbb{F} . A linear map $T : V \to W$ is said to **preserve inner product** if

$$(T(x), T(y)) = (x, y)$$
 for all $x, y \in V$.

We say T is an **an isomorphism of inner product spaces** if T preserves inner product and is one to one and onto.

4.2 (Facts) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V, W be two inner product spaces over \mathbb{F} . Let $T: V \to W$ be a linear map.

1. If T preserves inner product, then

 $\parallel T(x) \parallel = \parallel x \parallel \quad for \quad all \quad x \in V.$

- 2. If T preserves inner product, then T is injective (i.e. one to one).
- 3. If T is an isomorphism of inner product spaces, then T^{-1} is also an isomorphism of inner product spaces.

Proof. Obvious.

4.3 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V, W be two finite dimensional inner product spaces over \mathbb{F} , with dim $V = \dim W = n$. Let $T : V \to W$ be a linear map. The the following are equivalent:

- 1. T preserves inner product,
- 2. T is an isomorphism of inner product spaces,
- 3. If $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of V than $\{T(e_1), \ldots, T(e_n)\}$ an orthonormal basis of W,

4. There is an orthonormal basis $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ of V such that $\{T(e_1), \ldots, T(e_n)\}$ also an orthonormal basis of W,

Proof. $(1 \Rightarrow 2)$: Since T preserves inner product, T is injective. Also since dim $V = \dim W$ it follows Hence T is also onto. So Part 2 is established.

 $(2 \Rightarrow 3)$: Suppose $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of V. Since also preserves preserves inner product, $\{T(e_1), \ldots, T(e_n)\}$ is an orthonormal set. Since dimW = n, and since orthonormal set are independent $\{T(e_1), \ldots, T(e_n)\}$ is a basis of W. So, Part 3 is established.

 $(3 \Rightarrow 4)$: Since V has an orthonormal basis Part 4 follows from Part 3.

 $(4 \Rightarrow 1)$: Let $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ be an orthonormal basis of V such that $\{T(e_1), \ldots, T(e_n)\}$ also an orthonormal basis of W. Since $(T(e_i), T(e_j)) = (e_i, e_j)$ for all i, j, it follows

$$(T(x), T(y)) = (x, y)$$
 for all $x, y \in V$.

So, Part 1 is established.

4.4 (Corollary) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V, W be two finite dimensional inner product spaces over \mathbb{F} . Then V and W are isomorphic (as inner product spaces) if and only is dim $V = \dim W$.

Proof. If V and W are isomorphic then clearly dim $V = \dim W$. Conversely, if dim $V = \dim W = n$ then we can find an orthonormal basis $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ of V an an orthonormal basis $\{E_1, \ldots, E_n\}$ of W. The association

$$T(e_i) = E_i$$

defines and isomorphism of V to W.

4.5 (Example) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product spaces over \mathbb{F} , with dim V = n. Fix a basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ of V. Consider the linear map

$$f: V \to \mathbb{F}^n$$

given by $f(a_1e_1 + \cdots + a_ne_n) = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. With respect to the usual inner product on \mathbb{F}^n this map is an isomorphism of of ineer product spaces if and only if $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis.

Proof. Note that f sends E to the standard basis. So, by theorem 4.3, E is orthonormal f is an isomorphism.

Homework: Read Example 23 and 25 from page 301-302.

Question: This refers to Example 25. Let V be the inner product space of all continuous \mathbb{R} -valued functions on [0, 1], with inner product

$$(f,g) = \int_0^1 f(t)g(t)dt.$$

Let $T: V \to V$ be any linear operator. What can we say about when T perserves inner product?

4.6 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V, W be two inner product spaces over \mathbb{F} . Let $T: V \to W$ be any linear tansformation. Then T perserves inner product if and only if

$$|| T(x) || = || x || \quad for \quad all \quad x \in V.$$

Proof. If perserves inner product then clearly the condition holds. Now suppose the condition above holds and $x, y \in V$. Then

$$|| T(x+y) ||^2 = || x+y ||^2.$$

Since

$$|| T(x) || = || x ||$$
 and $|| T(y) || = || y ||,$

it follows that

$$(T(x), T(y)) + (T(y), T(x)) = (x, y) + (y, x)$$

Hence

$$Re[(T(x), T(y))] = Re[(x, y)].$$

(If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$, then the proof is complete.) Also, since Similar arguments with x - y, will give

$$Im[(w,z)] = Re[(w,iz)]$$
 for all $w, z \in V$ or W

the proof is complete.

4.7 (Definition and Facts) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . An isomorphism $T: V \xrightarrow{\sim} V$ of inner product spaces is said to be an **unitary operator** on V.

- 1. Let $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U}(n) = \mathcal{U}(V)$ denote the set of all unitary operators on V.
- 2. The identity $I \in \mathcal{U}(V)$.
- 3. If $U_1, U_2 \in \mathcal{U}(V)$ then $U_1U_2 \in \mathcal{U}(V)$.
- 4. If $U \in \mathcal{U}(V)$ then $U^{-1} \in \mathcal{U}(V)$.
- 5. So, $\mathcal{U}(V)$ is a group under composition. It is a subgroup of the group of linear isomorphisms of V. Notationally

$$\mathcal{U}(V) \subseteq GL(V) \subseteq L(V, V).$$

6. If V is finited dimensional then a linear operator $T \in L(V, V)$ is unitary if and only if T preserves inner product.

4.8 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be an inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $U \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator. Then U is unitary if and only if the adjoint U^* of U exists and $UU^* = U^*U = I$.

Proof. Suppose U is unitary. Then U has an inverse U^{-1} . So, for $x, y \in V$ we have

$$(U(x), y) = (U(x), UU^{-1}(y)) = (x, U^{-1}(y)).$$

So, U^* exists and $U^* = U^{-1}$. Conversely, assume the adjoint U^* exists and $UU^* = U^*U = I$. We need to prove that U preserves inner product. For $x, y \in V$ we have

$$(U(x), U(y)) = (x, U^*U(y)) = (x, y).$$

So, the proof is complete.

Homework: Read example 27, page 304.

4.9 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and A be an $n \times n$ matrix. Let $T : \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^n$ be the linear operator defined by T(X) = AX. With usual inner product on \mathbb{F}^n , we have T is unitary if and only if $A^*A = I$.

Proof. Suppose $A^*A = I$. Then $A^*A = AA^* = I$. Therefore,

$$(T(x), T(y)) = (Ax, Ay) = y^*A^*Ax = y^*x = (x, y).$$

Conversely, suppose T is unitary. Then, $y^*A^*Ax = y^*x$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{F}^n$. With appropriate choice of x, y we can show that $A^*A = I$. So, the proof is complete.

4.10 (Definition) An $n \times n$ - matrix $A \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ is called an **orthogonal** matrix if $A^t A = I_n$. The subset $O(n) \subseteq \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ of all orthogonal matrices from a subgroup of $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$.

An $n \times n$ - matrix $B \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ is called an **unitary matrix** if $B^*B = I_n$. The subset $\mathcal{U}(n) \subseteq \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ of all unitary matrices from a subgroup of $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$.

4.11 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $U \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator. Then U is unitary if and only if the matrix of U in with respect to some (or every) orthonormal basis is unitary.

Proof. By theorem 4.8, U is unitary if and only if U^* exists and $UU^* = U^*UU = I$. Suppose $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of V and A be the matrix on U with respect to E. Assume U is unitary. Since $UU^* = U^*U = I$, we have $AA^* = A^*A = I$. So A is unitary.

Conversely, assume A is unitary. Then $AA^* = A^*A = I$. Write $A = (a_{ij})$. Therefore $(U(e_i), U(e_j)) =$

$$(\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki}e_k, \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj}e_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (a_{ki}e_k, a_{kj}e_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki}\overline{a_{kj}} = \delta_{ij} = (e_i, e_j).$$

So, the proof is complete.

- **4.12 (Exercise)** 1. A matrix $A \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ is orthogonal if and only if $A^{-1} = A^t$.
 - 2. A matrix $B \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ is unitary if and only if $B^{-1} = B^*$.

4.13 (Theorem) Suppose $A \in GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ be an invertible matrix. Then there is a lower triangular matrix $M \in GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ such that $MA \in U_n(\mathbb{C})$ and diagonal entries of M are positive. Further, such an M is unique.

Proof. Write

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{c} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \cdots \\ v_n \end{array}\right)$$

where $v_i \in \mathbb{C}^n$ are the rows of A. Use Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization (theorem 2.8) and define

$$e_k = \frac{v_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} (v_k, e_j) e_j}{\| v_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} (v_k, e_j) e_j \|}.$$

Note e_1, \ldots, e_n is an orthogonal normal basis of \mathbb{C}^n . Also

$$e_k = \sum_{j=1}^k c_{kj} v_j$$
 with $c_{kj} \in \mathbb{C}$ and $c_{jj} \neq 0$.

So, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \cdots \\ e_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33} & \cdots & 0 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & c_{n3} & \cdots & c_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \cdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Since

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} e_1\\ e_2\\ \cdots\\ e_n \end{array}\right)$$

unitary, the existance is established.

For uniqueness, assume

$$U = MB$$
 and $U_1 = NB$

where $U, U_i \in \mathcal{U}(n)$ and M, N are lower triangular with diagonal entries positive. Then $MN^{-1} = UU_1^{-1}$ is unitary. Note that N^{-1} is also a lower triangular matrix with positive diagonal entries. Therefore,

- 1. $MN^{-1} = \Delta \in \mathcal{U}((n),$
- 2. Δ is a diagonal matrix,
- 3. Diagonal entries of Δ are positive.

Therefore $\Delta = MN^{-1} = I$ and M = N. So, the proof is complete.

Homework: Read example 28, page 307.

4.14 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Suppose $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ and $\mathcal{E} = \{\epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n\}$ are two orthonormal bases V. Let $(e_1, \ldots, e_n) = (\epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n)P$ for some matrix P. Then P is unitary.

Proof. We have

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \cdots \\ e_n \end{pmatrix} (e_1, \dots, e_n) = \begin{bmatrix} P^t \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \cdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix} \left[(\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n) P \right]$$

Sorry, this approach is naive and fails because such products (of matrices of vectors and scalars - matrix products and inner products) are not associative. In any case, the correct proof is left as an exercise.

4.15 (Exercise) Consider $V = \mathbb{C}^n$, with the usual inner product. Think of the elements of V as row vectors.

Let $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in V$ and let

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{c} v_1\\v_2\\\ldots\\v_n\end{array}\right)$$

- 1. Prove that v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n forms a basis if and only if A invertible.
- 2. Prove that v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n forms an orthonormal basis if and only if A an unitary matrix (i.e. $A^*A = I$).
- 3. We can make similar statements about vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and orthogonal matrices.

5 Normal Operators

Let V be an inner product space and $T \in L(V, V)$. Main objective of this section is to find necessary and sufficient conditions for T so that there is an orthonormal basis $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ of V such that each e_i is an eigen vector of T.

5.1 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator. Suppose $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of V and each e_i is an eigen vector of T

- 1. So, we have $T(e_i) = c_i e_i$ for some scalars $c_i \in \mathbb{F}$.
- 2. So, the matrix of T with respect to E is the diagonal matrix

$$\Delta = diagonal(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n).$$

3. If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ then the matrix of the adjoint operator T^* is

$$\Delta^* = \Delta = diagonal(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n).$$

Therefore, in the real case, a sufficient condition is that T is self-adjoint.

4. If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, the matrix of the adjoint operator T^* is

$$\Delta^* = diagonal(\overline{c_1}, \overline{c_2}, \dots, \overline{c_n}).$$

Therefore

$$TT^* = T^*T.$$

So, in complex case, a necessary condition is that T commutes with the adjoint T^* .

(Compare with theorem 4.8.)

5.2 (Definition) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator. We say T is a **normal operator**, if

$$TT^* = T^*T.$$

Therefore, self-adjoint operators are normal.

5.3 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator. If T is self-adjoint then

- 1. Eigen values of T are real.
- 2. Eigen vectors associated to distinct eigen values are orthogonal.

Proof. Suppose $c \in \mathbb{F}$ be an eigen value and $e \in V$ be the corresponding eigen vector. Then T(e) = ce and

$$c(e, e) = (ce, e) = (T(e), e) = (e, T^*(e)) = (e, T(e)) = (e, ce) = \overline{c}(e, e).$$

So, $c = \overline{c}$ and c is real.

Now suppose T(e) = ce and $T(\epsilon) = d\epsilon$ where $c \neq d$ scalars and $e, \epsilon \in V$ be nonzero. Then

$$c(e,\epsilon) = (ce,\epsilon) = (T(e),\epsilon) = (e,T^*(\epsilon)) = (e,T(\epsilon)) = (e,d\epsilon) = d(e,\epsilon).$$

Since $d \neq c$, we have $(e, \epsilon) = 0$. So, the proof is complete.

5.4 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a self-adjoint operator. Assume dim V > 0. Then T has a (non-zero) eigen vector.

Proof. Let $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ be an orthonormal basis of V. Let A be the matrix of T. Since T is self-adjoint, $A = A^*$. Now, we deal with real and complex case separately.

Real Case: Obviously, $A \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ and $A = A^*$ means A is symmetric. In any case, consider the map

$$U: \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$$
 where $U(X) = AX$ for $X \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

Since $A = A^*$, by theorem 5.3, U has only real eigen values. So, det(XI - A) = 0 has ONLY real solution. Since \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed, we can pick a real solution $c \in \mathbb{R}$ so that det(cI - A) = 0. Therefore, (cI - A)X = 0 has a real non-zero solution $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^t \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Write $e = x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n$ then $e \neq 0$ and T(e) = ce.

(Note, we went up to \mathbb{C} to get a proof in the real case.)

Complex Case: Proof is same, only easier. Here we know det(XI - A) = 0 has a solution $c \in \mathbb{C}$ and the rest of the proof is identical.

5.5 (Exercise) Let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{C} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a self-adjoint operator. Let Q(X) be the characteristic polynomial of T. Then $Q(X) \in \mathbb{R}[X]$.

Proof. We can repeat some of the steps of theorem 5.4. Let $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ be an orthonormal basis of V. Let A be the matrix of T. Since T is self-adjoint, $A = A^*$. The $Q(X) = \det(XI - A)$. Then

$$Q(X) = (X - c_1)(X - c_2) \cdots (X - c_n) \quad where \quad c_i \in \mathbb{C}.$$

By arguments in theorem 5.4, $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

5.6 (Example 29, page 313) Let V be the vector space of continuous \mathbb{C} -valued functions on the interval [0.1]. As usual, for $f, g \in V$, define inner product

$$(f,g) = \int_0^1 f(t)\overline{g(t)}dt.$$

Let $T: V \to V$ be the operator defined by T(f)(t) = tf(t).

1. Then T is self-adjoint. This is true because

$$(tf,g) = (f,tg)$$
 for all $f,g \in V$.

- 2. T has no non-zero eigen vector. **Proof.** Suppose $f \in V$ and T(f) = cf, for some $c \in \mathbb{C}$. Then tf(t) = cf(t) for all $t \in [0, 1]$. Since f is continuous, f = 0.
- 3. This example shows that theorem 5.4 fails, if V is infinite dimensional.

5.7 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator. Suppose W is a T-invariant subspace of V. Then the orthogonal complement W^{\perp} , of W, is invariant under T^* .

Proof. Let $x \in W$ and $y \in W^{\perp}$. Since, $T(x) \in W$, we have $(x, T^*(y)) = (T(x), y) = 0$. So, $T^*(y) \in W^{\perp}$.

5.8 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a self-adjoint linear operator. Then V has an orthonormal basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ such that each e_i is an eigen vector of T.

Proof. We assume that dim V = n > 0. By theorem 5.4, T has an eigen vector v. Let

$$e_1 = \frac{v}{\parallel v \parallel}.$$

If dim V = 1, we are done. Now we will use induction and assume that the theorem to true for inner product spaces of dimension less than dim V. Write $W = \mathbb{F}e_1$ and $V_1 = W^{\perp}$. Since W is invariant under T, by theorem 5.7, W^{\perp} is invariant under $T^* = T$. Therefore, V_1 has a orthonormal basis $\{e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ such that e_2, \ldots, e_n are eigen vectors of $T_{|V_1}$ hence of T. Therefore $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of V and each e_i is eigen vectors of of T. So, the proof is complete.

- **5.9 (Theorem)** 1. Let $A \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ be a Hermitian (self-adjoint) matrix. Then there is unitary matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP = \Delta$ is a diagonal matrix.
 - 2. Let $A \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ be a symmetric matrix. Then there is orthogonal real matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP = \Delta$ is a diagonal matrix.

Proof. To prove Part 1, consider the operator

$$T: \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n \quad where \quad T(X) = AX \quad for \quad X \in \mathbb{C}^n.$$

Since A is Hermitian, so is T. By theorem 5.8, there is an orthonormal basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{C}^n such that each e_i is an eigen vector of T. So, we have

$$(T(e_1), T(e_2), \ldots, T(e_n)) = (e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n)\Delta$$

where $\Delta = diagonal(c_1, \ldots, c_n)$ is a diagonal matrix and $T(e_i) = c_i e_i$. Suppose $\epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n$ is the standard basis of \mathbb{C}^n , and

$$(e_1,\ldots,e_n)=(\epsilon_1,\ldots,\epsilon_n)P$$

for some matrix $P \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then P is unitary. We also have

$$(T(\epsilon_1),\ldots,T(\epsilon_n))=(\epsilon_1,\ldots,\epsilon_n)A.$$

Combining all these, we have

$$A = P\Delta P^{-1}.$$

So, the proof of Part 1 is complete. The proof of Part 2 is similar.

5.1 Regarding Normal Operators

5.10 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a normal operator.

- 1. Then $||T(x)|| = ||T^*(x)||$ for all $x \in V$.
- 2. Suppose $v \in V$. Then v is an eigen vector of T with eigen value c if and only if v is an eigen vector of T^* with eigen value \overline{c} . In other words,

$$T(v) = cv \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad T^*(v) = \overline{c}v.$$

Proof. We have $TT^* = T^*T$ and $||T(x)||^2 =$

$$(T(x), T(x)) = (x, T^*T(x)) = (x, TT^*(x)) = (T^*(x), T^*(x)) = ||T^*(x)||^2.$$

So, Part 1 is established. To prove Part 2, for a $c \in \mathbb{F}$ write U = T - cI. So, $U^* = T^* - \overline{c}I$. Since $T^*T = TT^*$, we have $U^*U = UU^*$. Therefore, by 1,

$$|| (T - cI)(v) || = || (T^* - \overline{c}I)(v) ||$$
.

Therefore the proof of Part 2 is complete.

5.11 (Definition) A matrix $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ is said to be normal if $AA^* = A^*A$.

5.12 (Theorem) Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ and let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator on V. Let $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ be an orthonormal basis and let A the matrix of T with respect to E. Assume A is upper triangular. Then T is normal if and only if A is diagonal.

Proof. Since E is orthonormal, matrix of T^* is A^* . Assume A is diagonal. Then $A^*A = AA^*$. Therefore $T^*T = TT^*$ and T is normal.

Conversely, assume T is normal. So, $T^*T = TT^*$ and hence $A^*A = AA^*$. First, we will assume n = 2 and prove A is diagonal. Write

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ 0 & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad and \quad so \quad A^* = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{a_{11}} & 0 \\ \overline{a_{12}} & \overline{a_{22}} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have

$$AA^* = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} |a_{11}|^2 + |a_{12}|^2 & a_{12}\overline{a_{22}} \\ a_{22}\overline{a_{12}} & |a_{22}|^2 \end{array}\right)$$

and

$$A^*A = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} |a_{11}|^2 & \overline{a_{11}}a_{12} \\ \overline{a_{12}}a_{11} & |a_{12}|^2 + |a_{22}|^2 \end{array}\right)$$

Since $AA^* = A^*A$ we have

$$a_{11} |^2 + |a_{12}|^2 = |a_{11}|^2$$

Hence $a_{12} = 0$ and A is diagonal.

For n > 2, we finish the proof by similar computations. To see this, write

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Comparing the diagonal entries of the equation $AA^* = A^*A$ we get,

$$\sum_{k=i}^{n} |a_{ik}|^{2} = |a_{ii}|^{2}$$

for i = 1, ..., n. So we have $a_{ik} = 0$ for all k > i. Therefore, A is a diagonal matrix.

5.13 (Theorem) Let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{C} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a linear operator on V. Then there is an orthonormal basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ such that the matrix of T with respect to E is upper triangular.

Proof. We will use induction on dim V. Note that theorem is true when dim V = 1.

Since \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed, the adjoint T^* has an eigen vector $v \neq 0$. Write e = v/ ||v||. The *e* is an eigen vector of T^* , and

$$T^*(e) = ce$$
 for some $c \in \mathbb{C}$.

Let

$$W = \mathbb{C}e$$
 and $V_1 = W^{\perp}$.

Since W is T^* -invariant, by theorem 5.7, V_1 is T-invariant. Let $T_1 = T_{|V_1|}$ be the restriction of T. Then $T_1 \in L(V_1, V_1)$.

By induction, there is an orthonormal basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_{n-1}\}$ of V_1 such that the matrix of T_1 with respect to E is upper triangular. Write $e_n = e$, then the matrix of T with respet to $E_0 = \{e_1, \ldots, e_{n-1}, e_n\}$ is upper triangular.

5.14 Let $A \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ be any matrix. Then there is an unitary matrix $U \in \mathcal{U}((n) \subseteq \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C}))$, such that $U^{-1}AU$ is upper-triangular.

Proof. Proof is an immediate application of theorem 5.13 to the map $\mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$ defined by the matrix A.

5.15 (Theorem) Let V be a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{C} . Let $T \in L(V, V)$ be a normal operator on V. Then there is an orthonormal basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ such that each e_i is an eigen vector of T.

Proof. By theorem 5.13, V has an orthonormal basis $E = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ such that that matrix A of T with respect to E is upper-triangular.

Since T is normal, by therem 5.12, A is diagonal. Therefore e_i is an eigen vector of T.

The following is the matrix version of this theorem 5.15.

5.16 Let $A \in \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ be a NORMAL matrix. Then there is an unitary matrix $U \in \mathcal{U}(n) \subseteq \mathbb{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$, such that $U^{-1}AU$ is diagonal.

Proof. Proof is an immediate application of theorem 5.15 to the map $\mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$ defined by the matrix A.