

**Sections to be covered:** part of 6.3 (definition of adjoint operator, **Theorem 6.10**, its **Corollary**, and **Theorem 6.11**), part of 6.4 (definition of self-adjoint operators, of Hermitian matrices, **Theorem 6.17**), part of 6.5 (definition of unitary/orthogonal operators/matrices, **Theorem 6.18**, **Theorem 6.23** and applications to conic sections), part of 6.6 (definition and property of orthogonal projection).

Much of what is done in **6.3 – 6.6** is a conceptualization and generalization of what one learns about real symmetric and orthogonal matrices in elementary linear algebra courses. Let's first recall a few key facts about these two objects.

Orthogonal matrices: An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  with real entries is called an orthogonal matrix if its columns form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The following are equivalent descriptions for  $A$  to be an orthogonal matrix.

- (i)  $A^t A = I_{n \times n}$ .
- (ii)  $A^{-1}$  exists and equals  $A^t$ .
- (iii) The rows of  $A$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- (iv)  $\|A\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$  for any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- (v)  $A\mathbf{x} \cdot A\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$  for any pairs of vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $\cdot$  refers to the standard dot product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- (vi) If  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\{A\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, A\mathbf{v}_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Real symmetric matrices: An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  with real entries is called symmetric if  $A^t = A$ . The following are known about the eigenvalues and eigenspaces of a real symmetric matrix  $A$ .

- (i) All the eigenvalues of  $A$  are real.
- (ii) If  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to eigenvalue  $\lambda$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to eigenvalue  $\mu$ , with  $\mu \neq \lambda$ , then  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ .
- (iii) For each eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $A$ , its eigenspace  $E_\lambda$  equals its generalized eigenspace  $K_\lambda$ .
- (iv) There is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  consisting of eigenvectors of  $A$ .
- (v) There is an  $n \times n$  orthogonal matrix  $P$  such that  $P^t A P = P^{-1} A P$  is diagonal.

For an orthogonal matrix  $A$ , we are particularly interested in properties (iv) and (v). (iv) says that  $L_A : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$  (defined by  $L_A(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ ) preserves the length (norm) of all vectors, while (v) says that  $L_A$  preserves inner product between any vectors. To see how (v) relates to (i), one views  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  as column vectors, then

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^t \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^t \mathbf{x}.$$

Thus

$$(1) \quad A\mathbf{x} \cdot A\mathbf{y} = (A\mathbf{y})^t A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}^t A^t A\mathbf{x} = A^t A\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}.$$

In order for  $A\mathbf{x} \cdot A\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we first arbitrarily fix an  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and allow  $\mathbf{y}$  vary arbitrarily. Then by (1) and property (e) of **Theorem 6.1** on p. 333, we must have  $A^t A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ . Since this relation holds for every  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , by taking  $\mathbf{x}$  to be the standard basis vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ , we see that column  $j$  of  $A^t A$  must match  $\mathbf{e}_j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, n$ , which implies that  $A^t A = I_{n \times n}$ .

Property (ii) for a real symmetric matrix  $A$  also follows from this line of argument: Since  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  and  $A\mathbf{y} = \mu\mathbf{y}$ , we find

$$\lambda\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = (A\mathbf{x})^t \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^t A^t \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot A^t \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot A\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot (\mu\mathbf{y}) = \mu\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}.$$

Since  $\lambda \neq \mu$ , we must have  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ .

Property (iii) for a real symmetric matrix  $A$  can be argued as follows. It suffices to prove that  $N((A - \lambda I)^2) \subset N(A - \lambda I)$ . Take a vector  $\mathbf{x} \in N((A - \lambda I)^2)$ . Then  $(A - \lambda I)^2 \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , which implies  $(A - \lambda I)^t (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , since  $(A - \lambda I)^t = A - \lambda I$  for a real symmetric  $A$ . Then by the same computations used in proving (1) applied to  $A - \lambda I$  now,

$$(A - \lambda I)^t (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x} \cdot (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x} = 0,$$

from which we conclude that  $(A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , namely,  $\mathbf{x} \in N(A - \lambda I)$  — this is the same proof as for Lemm 2 on p. 362, replacing the  $A$  there by  $A - \lambda I$ .

Sections 6.3 – 6.6 generalize the notions and ideas here to a general inner product space. Let's first see how to generalize these notions to  $\mathbb{C}^n$  with the standard inner product:  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^t \bar{\mathbf{y}} = \bar{\mathbf{y}}^t \mathbf{x}$ . Then, we still have

$$(2) \quad \langle A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = (A\mathbf{x})^t \bar{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{x}^t A^t \bar{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{x}^t \overline{(A^t \mathbf{y})} = \mathbf{x}^t \overline{A^* \mathbf{y}} = \langle \mathbf{x}, A^* \mathbf{y} \rangle.$$

This is the defining property for  $A^*$ .

From this we see that, if  $\langle A\mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , then  $\langle \mathbf{x}, A^* A \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , from which we imply that  $A^* A = I_{n \times n}$ . Thus the generalization of an orthogonal  $n \times n$  real valued matrix is a complex valued matrix  $A$  satisfying  $A^* A = I_{n \times n}$ . Such a matrix is called a unitary matrix, in analogy with complex numbers  $z$  having unit norm when satisfying  $z^* z = 1$ . Checking the algebra, one finds that  $A^* A = I_{n \times n}$  is equivalent to saying that the columns of  $A$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , and the other properties generalize in a straight forward fashion. For instance, (ii) changes to  $A^{-1} = A^*$ . See **Theorem 6.18** for more details.

An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is called self-adjoint (or Hermitian) if  $A^* = A$ . From the defining property (2) of  $A^*$ , this means

$$\langle A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{y} \rangle$$

for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ . For a Hermitian matrix  $A$ , properties of real symmetric matrices generalize over in a straight forward fashion, simply changing the orthogonal matrix  $P$  in (v) into a unitary matrix  $P$ . For instance, in proving (iii) for a Hermitian matrix  $A$ , let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $A$ , then  $\lambda$  is real by (i), and  $(A - \lambda I)^* = A - \bar{\lambda} I = A - \lambda I$ , since  $A^* = A$ , and  $\bar{\lambda} = \lambda$ . Thus

$$\langle (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x}, (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, (A - \lambda I)^* (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, (A - \lambda I)^2 \mathbf{y} \rangle.$$

So if  $\mathbf{y} \in N((A - \lambda I)^2)$ , we would have

$$\langle (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{x}, (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$$

for all  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ . In particular, taking  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ , we find

$$\langle (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{y}, (A - \lambda I) \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0,$$

which implies that  $(A - \lambda I) \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{y} \in N(A - \lambda I)$ .

Our next task is to generalize these notions to a general inner product space over  $\mathbb{C}$ . The questions you should keep in mind are: (a) how to define the notion of an adjoint operator,

(ii) how to define the notion of a unitary operator, and (c) how to define the notion of a self-adjoint operator.

The discussions above suggest that for each linear operator  $T : V \mapsto V$  of an inner product space  $V$ , the adjoint  $T^* : V \mapsto V$  should be defined similar to property (2):

$$\langle T(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, T^*(\mathbf{y}) \rangle, \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V.$$

**Theorems 6.8, 6.9** provide the proper argument to make such a definition possible. **Theorem 6.10** says that the matrix representation  $[T^*]_\beta$  of  $T^*$  in an orthonormal basis  $\beta$  of  $V$  relates to  $[T]_\beta$  through the relation  $[T^*]_\beta = [T]_\beta^*$ . **Theorem 6.11** says that the  $*$  operation on linear operators is very much like that of complex conjugation operation on complex numbers.