Adjoints, normal and unitary operators, consequences for eigenvalues

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In particular, if  $V = W$ , then both A and  $A^{\dagger}$  are square matrices.

This gives us some key definitions. Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional real or complex vector space with an inner product and let  $A: V \to V$  be a linear map.

- 1. The map A is called **self-adjoint** if  $A = A^{\dagger}$ . In the real case this is also called **symmetric**; in the complex case it is also called Hermitian.
- 2. The map A is called **unitary** if  $A^{-1} = A^{\dagger}$ . In the real case, we also call this orthogonal.

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The geometric meaning of a unitary/orthogonal matrix is that it preserves the inner product:

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\langle A(\vec{v}), A(\vec{w}) \rangle = \langle \vec{v}, A^{\dagger}(A(\vec{w})) \rangle = \langle \vec{v}, \vec{w} \rangle.
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Another way to say this is that the rows/columns of an orthogonal/unitary matrix are an orthonormal basis.

Apology for notation: We really should call these "orthonormal matrices". Sorry.

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- 2. The map A is called **unitary** if  $A^{-1} = A^{\dagger}$ . In the real case, we also call this orthogonal.
- 3. There is a useful condition which includes both "self-adjoint" and "unitary": The map A is called **normal** if  $AA^T = A^T A$ .

Here is where we are heading:

Theorem: A matrix is normal if and only if it has an orthonormal basis over C.

A normal matrix is self-adjoint if and only if it has real eigenvalues.

A normal matrix is unitary if and only if it has eigenvalues on the unit circle:  $\{\cos \theta + i \sin \theta\}.$ 



# Example:

The matrix

$$
\left[\begin{smallmatrix}0.6&0.8\\-0.8&0.6\end{smallmatrix}\right]
$$

is unitary (and orthogonal). Its characteristic polynomial is

$$
\det\begin{bmatrix} x-0.6 & -0.8 \ 0.8 & x-0.6 \end{bmatrix} = (x-0.6)^2 + (0.8)^2 = x^2 - 1.2x + 1.
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The  $0.6 + 0.8i$  eigenvector is

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\text{Ker}\left[\begin{smallmatrix} (0.6+0.8i)-0.6 & -0.8 \\ 0.8 & (0.6+0.8i)-0.6 \end{smallmatrix}\right] = \text{Ker}\left[\begin{smallmatrix} 0.8i & -0.8 \\ 0.8 & 0.8i \end{smallmatrix}\right] = \mathbb{C}\left[\begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{smallmatrix}\right].
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Similarly, the  $0.6 - 0.8i$  eigenvector is  $\left[\frac{1}{2}\right]$  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$ .

## Example continued:

The vectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$  are orthogonal, and we can scale them to be orthonormal. So

$$
\begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.8 \\ -0.8 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix} = U \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 + 0.8i & 0 \\ 0 & 0.6 - 0.8i \end{bmatrix} U^{-1} = U \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 + 0.8i & 0 \\ 0 & 0.6 - 0.8i \end{bmatrix} U^{\dagger}
$$
  
for  $U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{bmatrix}$ 

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Theorem: A matrix is normal if and only if it has an orthonormal basis over C. A normal matrix is self-adjoint if and only if it has real eigenvalues. A normal matrix is unitary if and only if it has eigenvalues on the unit circle:  $\{\cos \theta + i \sin \theta\}.$ 

The easy parts: If  $A = UDU^{\dagger}$ , then  $A^{\dagger} = (U D U^{\dagger})^{\dagger} = U^{\dagger \dagger} D^{\dagger} U^{\dagger} = U \overline{D} U^{\dagger}$ , so

 $AA^{\dagger} = UDU^{\dagger}U\overline{D}U^{\dagger} = UD\overline{D}U^{\dagger} = U\overline{D}DU^{\dagger} = U\overline{D}U^{\dagger}UDU^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger}A.$ 

If the eigenvalues are real, we have  $\overline{D} = D$ , so this shows that  $A^{\dagger} = U\overline{D}U^{\dagger} = UDU^{\dagger} = A.$ 

If the eigenvalues are on the unit circle, then we have  $\overline{D} = D^{-1}$ , so this shows that  $A^{\dagger} = U\overline{D}U^{\dagger} = UD^{-1}U^{\dagger} = A^{-1}$ .

#### The hard part:

Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional complex vector space with an inner product. Let  $A: V \to V$  be normal. We want to show that A has an orthonormal basis.

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We do know that  $\chi_A(x)$  has a root, since every polynomial over the complex numbers has a root. So let  $\vec{v}$  be a nonzero eigenvector of A, with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . We want to show that A takes  $\vec{v}^{\perp}$  to  $\vec{v}^{\perp}$ . Then we will just induct.

Take an orthonormal basis  $\vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \ldots, \vec{v}_n$  of  $\vec{v}^\perp$ , so  $\vec{v}, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \ldots, \vec{v}_n$ is an orthonormal basis of  $V$ . In this basis,

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & A_{12} & A_{13} & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ 0 & * & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & * & * & \cdots & * \\ & & & \ddots & & \\ 0 & * & * & \cdots & * \end{bmatrix}.
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The  $(1,1)$  entry of  $AA^{\dagger}$  is

$$
\overline{\lambda}\lambda + A_{12}\overline{A}_{12} + A_{13}\overline{A}_{13} + \cdots + A_{1n}\overline{A}_{1n} = |\lambda|^2 + \sum_{j=2}^n |A_{1j}|^2.
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So  $|\lambda|^2 + \sum_{j=2}^n |A_{1j}|^2 = |\lambda|^2$  and  $A_{12} = A_{13} = \cdots = A_{1n} = 0$ . So A is of the form  $\left[ \begin{array}{cccc} \lambda & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & * & * & \cdots & * \end{array} \right]$ 



We see that A takes  $\vec{v}^{\perp}$ , and now we can induct. QED