

# MATH 7320 Lecture Notes

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**Warm up:** Given an isometry  $V : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ , show that  $VV^*$  is an orthogonal projection.

**Proof:** Consider

$$(VV^*)^* = (V^*)^*V^* = VV^* .$$

This implies that  $VV^*$  is Hermitian. Since  $V$  is an isometry, then by previous Lemma, we have

$$V^*V = id_{\mathcal{H}} ,$$

we see that,

$$(VV^*)^2 = VV^*VV^* = VV^*$$

$\implies VV^*$  is a projection.

Now

$$\langle VV^*x, y \rangle = \langle V^*x, V^*y \rangle = \langle x, VV^*y \rangle, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathcal{H} .$$

Thus,  $VV^*$  is an orthogonal projection.

## Motivation: Characterize unitaries as "onto isometries"

**Theorem 1.** For a bounded linear map  $A : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$ , the following are equivalent:

1.  $A$  is unitary.
2.  $A$  is onto and preserves the inner product, i.e. for  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$\langle Ax, Ay \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle .$$

3.  $A$  is a bijection and preserves the inner product.

4.  $A$  is onto and an isometry.

**Proof:** (1)  $\implies$  (2) For each  $x \in \mathcal{H}_2$ , we know that  $AA^*x = x$ . So  $A(A^*x) = x$  and  $A^*x \in \mathcal{H}_1$ . Hence  $A$  is surjective (onto).

The inner product is invariant by

$$\langle Ax, Ay \rangle = \langle A^*Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathcal{H}_1$$

as  $A^*A = id_{\mathcal{H}_1}$ .

(2)  $\implies$  (3) Suppose  $A$  is onto and preserves the inner product. Then

$$\|Ax\|^2 = \langle Ax, Ax \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle = \|x\|^2.$$

So  $Ax = 0$  if and only  $x = 0$ . Hence  $A$  is one-to-one (injective).

So  $Ax = 0 \iff x = 0$ . Hence,  $A$  is one to one. (3)  $\implies$  (4) From  $A$  being a bijection, it is onto. The isometry property follows from preservation of the inner product by

$$\|Ax\|^2 = \langle Ax, Ax \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle = \|x\|^2.$$

(4)  $\implies$  (1) from the isometry assumption  $A^*A = id_{\mathcal{H}_1}$ , then  $AA^*A = A$  and since  $A$  is onto, then for each  $x \in \mathcal{H}_2$  there exists  $y \in \mathcal{H}_1$  such that  $Ay = x$ . Now,

$$\begin{aligned} (AA^*A)y &= Ay \implies (AA^*)Ay = Ay \\ (AA^*)x &= x, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{H}_2 \end{aligned}$$

So, we have  $AA^* = id_{\mathcal{H}_1}$ , We could, if needed, extend these equivalences to bijections between inner product spaces.  $\square$

Next we characterise **normality**.

## Geometric characterization of normality

**Lemma 2.** An operator  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  is normal if and only if for each  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\|Ax\| = \|A^*x\|$ .

**Proof:** We have, assuming that  $\|Ax\| = \|A^*x\|$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle (AA^* - A^*A)x, x \rangle &= \langle AA^*x - A^*Ax, x \rangle \\ &= \langle AA^*x, x \rangle - \langle A^*Ax, x \rangle \\ &= \langle A^*x, A^*x \rangle - \langle Ax, Ax \rangle \\ &= \|A^*x\|^2 - \|Ax\|^2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

By  $AA^* - A^*A$  being Hermitian, we can deduce that  $AA^* - A^*A = 0$ , because it is quadratic form vanishes. Conversely, if  $AA^* - A^*A = 0$  then we can see this is true, which implies that  $\|Ax\|^2 = \|A^*x\|^2$ .

We write  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  for the **null space**,  $\mathcal{N} = A^{-1}(\{0\})$  and  $\mathcal{R}(A)$  for the **range**  $\mathcal{R}(A) = A(\mathcal{H})$ .

## Relationships between adjoints, null space and range

**Lemma 3.** For  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$

1.  $\mathcal{N}(A) = (\mathcal{R}(A^*))^\perp$ .
2. A closed subspace  $E$  is invariant under  $A$ , i.e.  $A(E) \subset E$ , if and only if  $E^\perp$  is invariant under  $A^*$ .

**Proof:** (1) By  $\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle$ . Let  $Ax = 0$ , this implies that

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = 0 \implies \langle x, A^*y \rangle = 0 \text{ i.e. } x \perp A^*y.$$

Thus,  $Ax = 0$  is equivalent to  $x \in (\mathcal{R}(A^*))^\perp$ . So  $\mathcal{N}(A) = (\mathcal{R}(A^*))^\perp$ .

(2) Assuming  $A(E) \subset E$ , then for  $v \in E^\perp$ ,  $y \in E$

$$\langle A^*v, y \rangle = \langle v, Ay \rangle = 0, \forall y \in E$$

$\implies \forall v \in E^\perp$ ,  $A^*v \in E^\perp$  So,  $A^*(E^\perp) \subset E^\perp$ .

Conversely, if  $A^*(E^\perp) \subset E^\perp$ , then by  $E$  being a closed subspace  $E = (E^\perp)^\perp$  and  $A = (A^*)^*$ , so then switching  $A$  and  $A^*$  in the preceding result gives  $A(E) \subset E$ .  $\square$

Next we want to characterise orthogonal projection.

## Characterization of orthogonal projection

**Theorem 4.** Let  $0 \neq P \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  be a projection i.e.  $P^2 = P$ , then the following are equivalent:

1.  $P$  is an orthogonal projection, so  $\mathcal{N}(P) \perp \mathcal{R}(P)$ .
2.  $\|P\| = 1$ .
3.  $\langle Px, x \rangle \geq 0 \forall x \in \mathcal{H}$ .
4.  $P = P^*$ .
5.  $P$  is normal.

**Proof:** We recall that  $P^2 = P$ , then  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{R}(P) \oplus \mathcal{N}(P)$ . So for each  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $x = P(x) + (I - P)x$  as  $(I - P)x \in \mathcal{N}(P)$ . Since  $P$  is bounded, both subspaces are closed which is proved as follows: Let  $x$  be a limit point of  $\mathcal{N}(P)$ , then there is a sequence  $x_n$  in space  $\mathcal{N}(P)$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x$ . Then for each  $y \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\langle P(x_n), y \rangle = \langle x_n, P(y) \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, P(y) \rangle ,$$

$\implies \langle x, P(y) \rangle = 0$  as  $P(x_n) = 0$ . That is  $\langle P(x), y \rangle = 0 \forall y \in \mathcal{H}$ . This implies that  $P(x) = 0$  i.e.  $x \in \mathcal{N}(P)$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{N}(P)$  is closed.

Next we prove that  $\mathcal{R}(P)$  is closed. Let  $x \in \mathcal{R}(P)$  and  $z \in \mathcal{N}(P)$ , then there exists  $y \in \mathcal{H}$  such that  $P(y) = x$ . Now consider

$$\langle x, z \rangle = \langle P(y), z \rangle = \langle y, P(z) \rangle = 0 ,$$

$\implies \mathcal{R}(P) \perp \mathcal{N}(P)$ . Thus  $\mathcal{H}$  can be expressed as a direct sum of  $\mathcal{R}(P)$  and  $\mathcal{N}(P)$  and hence  $\mathcal{R}(P) = (\mathcal{N}(P))^\perp$ . Thus  $\mathcal{R}(P)$  is closed.

(1)  $\implies$  (2) Suppose  $E = \mathcal{R}(P)$ , then by the assumption  $\mathcal{H} = E \oplus E^\perp$ , with  $\mathcal{N}(P) = E^\perp$ . Since  $P \neq O \implies E \neq \{0\}$ .

Thus there is  $x \in E$  with  $\|x\| = 1$ . Then, by  $P^2 = P$  and  $x \in \mathcal{R}(P)$ ,  $P(x) = x$ . In other words,  $\|Px\| = \|x\| = 1$ . So  $\|P\| \geq 1$  because  $\|P\| = \sup \frac{\|Px\|}{\|x\|}$ .

On the other hand, invoking Pythagoras we see, if  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ , then  $x = y + z$  with  $y \in E$  and  $z \in E^\perp$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \|Px\|^2 &= \|y\|^2 \\ &= \|x\|^2 - \|z\|^2 \\ &\leq \|x\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

We see  $\|P\| \leq 1$  and conclude  $\|P\| = 1$ .

(2)  $\implies$  (1) Assume  $\|P\| = 1$ . let  $x \in \mathcal{N}(P)$ ,  $y \in \mathcal{R}(P)$ , then for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\lambda y\|^2 &= |\lambda|^2 \|y\|^2 \\ &= \|P(x + \lambda y)\|^2 \\ &\leq \|x + \lambda y\|^2 \\ &\leq \|x\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}[\bar{\lambda} \langle x, y \rangle] + \lambda^2 \|y\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Subtracting  $|\lambda|^2 \|y\|^2$  from both side gives

$$\|x\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}[\bar{\lambda} \langle x, y \rangle] \geq 0,$$

Now choosing  $\lambda = t \langle x, y \rangle$  gives for each  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , gives that

$$\|x\|^2 + 2t |\langle x, y \rangle|^2 \geq 0, \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$$

$\implies |\langle x, y \rangle| = 0$ , then we conclude  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ .

So  $\mathcal{N}(P) \perp \mathcal{R}(P)$ . Also we know that  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{N}(P) \oplus \mathcal{R}(P)$ ,

so it is orthogonal decomposition when  $\|P\| = 1$ .

Thus,  $P$  is orthogonal projection.