

Lecture Notes from September 15, 2022

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Last time

- Characterization of unitaries
- Characterization of isometries (unitaries + a condition)
- Geometric characterization of normal operators
- Analogue of rank-nullity for $A \in \mathbb{B}(\mathcal{H})$
- Characterization of orthogonal projections (proof in today's class)

Warm up:

1.47 Question. If \mathcal{H} is a finite-dimensional Hilbert space and $A : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ a linear map satisfying $A^*A = \text{id}_{\mathcal{H}}$. Then A is unitary.

We will see that A is onto, then (onto + isometry) \implies unitary. A^* is onto since $A^*A = \text{id}_{\mathcal{H}}$ so given any $x \in \mathcal{H}$, $A^*Ax = x$ hence there exists $y = Ax \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $A^*y = x$. We also know that $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{R}(A)^\perp = \{0\}$ and so A is one-one. Next, using Rank-Nullity we have that $\dim \mathcal{H} = \dim \mathcal{N}(A) + \dim \mathcal{R}(A) = \dim \mathcal{R}(A)$, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{R}(A)$ and so A is onto and hence A is unitary.

We continue the proof of the theorem from last time that characterized orthogonal projections. Let us recall the theorem

1.48 Theorem. Suppose $P \in \mathbb{B}(\mathcal{H})$ be a non-zero projection, i.e., $P^2 = P$, then TFAE:

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

Last time we saw that given any projection (not necessarily orthogonal), we always have the direct sum $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{N}(P) + \mathcal{R}(P)$, $x = Px + (I - P)x$. Here $\mathcal{N}(P) = P^{-1}(\{0\})$ and $\mathcal{R}(P) = (I - P)^{-1}(\{0\})$ (since $x \in (I - P)^{-1}(\{0\}) \iff (I - P)x = 0 \iff Px = x \iff x \in \mathcal{R}(P)$) are both closed subspaces since P is bounded. We prove the following chain of equivalences: (1. \iff 2. and 1. \implies 3. \implies 4. \implies 5. \implies 1.) We already proved that (1. \implies 2.). Now we prove the rest of the equivalences.

Proof. (2. \implies 1.) We have $\|P\| = 1$. Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(P), y \in \mathcal{R}(P)$. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\lambda y\|^2 &= |\lambda| \|y\|^2 \\ &= \|P(x + \lambda y)\|^2 \quad (\text{since } Px = 0 \text{ and } P\lambda y = \lambda Py = \lambda y) \\ &\leq \|x + \lambda y\|^2 \quad (\text{since } \|P\| = 1 \implies P \text{ is contractive}) \\ &= \langle x + \lambda y, x + \lambda y \rangle \\ &= \|x\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(\bar{\lambda})\langle x, y \rangle + \|\lambda y\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Then $\|\lambda y\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(\bar{\lambda})\langle x, y \rangle + \|\lambda y\|^2$ which gives $\|x\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(\bar{\lambda})\langle x, y \rangle \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Set $\lambda = t\langle x, y \rangle$ for $t \in \mathbb{R}$ so that $\bar{\lambda} = t\langle y, x \rangle$. Then

$$\|x\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(t\langle x, y \rangle)^2 \geq 0.$$

This inequality holds for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, hence if we choose t to be a small enough negative number ($t < \frac{-\|x\|^2}{2|\langle x, y \rangle|^2}$) then the inequality does not hold unless $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$. Since we began with $x \in \mathcal{N}(P), y \in \mathcal{R}(P)$, we have $\mathcal{N}(P) \perp \mathcal{R}(P)$.

(1. \implies 3.)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Px, x \rangle &= \langle Px, x - Px + Px \rangle \\ &= \langle Px, x - Px \rangle + \langle Px, Px \rangle \\ &= \langle Px, (I - P)x \rangle + \|Px\|^2 = \|Px\|^2 \quad \text{since } \mathcal{N}(P) = \mathcal{R}(I - P) \perp \mathcal{R}(P) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\langle Px, x \rangle = \|Px\|^2 \geq 0$

(3. \implies 4.) We saw earlier, in the theorem on sesquilinear and quadratic forms, that an operator P is Hermitian if, and only if $\forall x \in \mathcal{H}, x \mapsto \langle Px, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$ which holds since $\langle Px, x \rangle \geq 0$.

(4. \implies 5.) P is Hermitian $P = P^* \implies P$ is normal, $PP^* = P^*P = P^2$.

(5. \implies 1.) If P is normal, then for each $x \in \mathcal{H}, \|Px\| = \|P^*x\|$ hence $Px = 0 \iff P^*x = 0$. We thus get that

$$\mathcal{N}(P) = \mathcal{N}(P^*) = \mathcal{R}(P^{**})^\perp = \mathcal{R}(P)^\perp.$$

Hence $\mathcal{N}(P) \perp \mathcal{R}(P)$. □

A good way of summarizing the properties of an orthogonal projection is $P = PP^*$ since this implies $P = P^*$ and $P = P^2$.

1.49 Examples (The left shift operator). Let

$$S : \ell^2 \longrightarrow \ell^2 \quad (Sx)_j = x_{j+1}.$$

It takes the element $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in \ell^2$ to $(x_2, x_3, \dots) \in \ell^2$. ℓ^2 is spanned by the orthonormal basis $\{\delta_s : s \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $\langle Sx, x \rangle = \langle x, S^*x \rangle$ for all $x \in \ell^2$. For the basis vectors, we have for $s \geq 2$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle S\delta_s, \delta_t \rangle &= \langle \delta_s, S^*\delta_t \rangle \\ \langle \delta_{s+1}, \delta_t \rangle &= \langle \delta_s, S^*\delta_t \rangle \\ \langle \delta_{s+1}, \delta_t \rangle &= 1 \text{ for } s+1 = t \text{ and } 0 \text{ otherwise} \\ \text{Thus } \langle \delta_s, S^*\delta_t \rangle &= 1 \text{ for } s+1 = t \text{ and } 0 \text{ otherwise,} \\ (S^*\delta_{s+1})_s &= 1 \implies S^*\delta_s = \delta_{s-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\langle S\delta_1, \delta_t \rangle = 0 = \langle \delta_s, S^*\delta_t \rangle$ for all t thus $S^*\delta_1 = 0$. By extending linearly, we see that the adjoint is given by the right shift operator

$$S^* : \ell^2 \longrightarrow \ell^2 \quad (S^*x)_1 = 0; (S^*x)_j = x_{j-1} \text{ for } j \geq 2$$

It takes the element $(x_1, x_2, \dots) \in \ell^2$ to $(0, x_1, x_2, \dots) \in \ell^2$. The map S^* is an isometry ($S^*S = \text{id}$) and is not onto since (thus not unitary) the element $(x, 0, 0, \dots)$ has no preimage under S^* . The map S^*S given by $(S^*Sx)_1 = 0; (S^*Sx)_j = x_j$ for $j \geq 2$ projects orthogonally onto $\mathcal{R}(S^*)$.

2 Spectral Theory

Recall, from linear algebra, the concept of eigenvalues and eigenvectors. These gave us a lot of information about matrices (or operators on finite dimensional vector spaces). In general, for studying operators on Hilbert spaces, a generalized notion called the *spectrum* is introduced and studied. It is defined as follows. Given an operator A , consider $T_z = A - z\text{Id}_{\mathcal{H}}$ for $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and ask if T_z has a bounded inverse. The resolvent is the set of $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : T_z \text{ invertible}\}$ and the spectrum is the complement of the resolvent. If T_z is invertible, the inverse is given by a polynomial in powers of A . Thus the Neumann series $\sum_i \lambda_i A^{i-1}$ associated with A , are studied to understand the resolvent and spectrum. However, we will take a slightly different approach in this course to introduce these notions. The main goal here is to understand the behaviour of normal operators, especially unitary and Hermitian ones. Representation theory offers a good framework for generating insight. A representation is a map from some 'structured space' to operators on a Hilbert space. We start with a definition of involutive semigroups.

2.1 Definition (Involutive semigroup). A pair $(\pi : S, *)$ of a semigroup S with an involutive anti-automorphism $s \mapsto s^*$ is called an *involutive semigroup*.

Note:

- The anti-automorphism gives $(st)^* = t^*s^*$, i.e., it reverses the order of the semigroup operation.

¹https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neumann_series

- If 1 is a unit, then $1s = s \forall s \in S$. In particular, $11^* = 1^*$. Thus, $(11^*)^* = (1^*)^*$ gives $11^* = 1$ and so $1^* = 1$.

2.2 Definition (Hermitian and unitaries). Elements in $S_h = \{s \in S : s = s^*\}$ are called *hermitian*, and elements in $S_u = \{s \in S : ss^* = s^*s = 1\}$ are called *unitaries*. S_u forms a group, the unitary group of S .

2.3 Examples. 1. If S is an abelian semigroup and $s^* = s$, $s \in S$, then $(S, *)$ is an involutive semigroup.

2. If G is a group, and $g^* = g^{-1}$, $g \in G$ then $(G, *)$ is an involutive semigroup.

3. $\mathbb{B}(\mathcal{H})$ with the adjoint operation $A \mapsto A^*$, $A \in \mathbb{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is an involutive semigroup.

4. The multiplicative semigroup $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ with $z^* = \bar{z}$, $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is an involutive semigroup.

5. If X is any set then define $\mathbb{C}^X := \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\}$, the set of all maps from X to \mathbb{C} with semigroup operation $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$ and involution $f^*(x) = \overline{f(x)}$, $x \in X$. $(\mathbb{C}^X, *)$ is an involutive semigroup.

- The Hermitian elements are precisely those functions satisfying $f(x) = \overline{f(x)} \forall x \in X$, i.e., the real-valued functions ($\mathbb{C}_h^X = \mathbb{R}^X$).
- The identity 1 satisfies $f(x)1(x) = f(x) \forall x \in X$. $1(x) = 1 \forall x \in X$.
- The unitaries are $\mathbb{C}_u^X = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : |f(x)| = 1 \forall x \in X\}$. orthogonal projections given by $f(x) = |f(x)|^2 \forall x \in X$ are precisely the functions with values 0 and 1.