

① Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors, & Inner Products

$L \in \text{Hom}(V, V)$, V of dimension $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\text{char. eq'n of } L = \det(L - zI)$$

$$\text{If } k \text{ is algebraically closed, } \det(L - zI) = (\lambda_1 - z)(\lambda_2 - z) \cdots (\lambda_n - z)$$

Each term of the c.e. is a symmetric function of the eigenvalues

$$\text{coeff of } z^0 = \text{prod of eigenvalues} = \det L$$

$$\text{coeff of } z^1 = -(z_1 z_2 z_3 \cdots z_n) - (z_1 z_3 z_5 \cdots z_n) - \cdots - (z_1 z_3 \cdots z_{n-1})$$

$$\text{coeff of } z^{n-1} = (-1)^{n-1} (z_1 + \cdots + z_n)$$

$$\text{coeff of } z^n = (-1)^n$$

$$\text{Define trace : } \text{tr}(L) = \text{coeff of } (-1)^{n-1} z^{n-1}$$

Manifestly coordinate-independent

But in coords, $\text{tr}(L) = \text{sum of diagonal elements}$

$$\text{Since } \text{tr}(ALA^{-1}) = \text{tr}(L) \quad [\text{adjoint action, coord-indep}]$$

$$(1) \quad \text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA) \quad [B = LA^{-1}]$$

(2) tr is a linear map from $\text{Hom}(V, V)$ to \mathbb{K} .

Above properties (1), (2) define tr , up to a scale factor.

Note $\text{tr}(AB) \neq \text{tr}(A)\text{tr}(B)$.

E1

Common operators & eigenvectors [operator \equiv linear transf.]

Say $A, B \in \text{Hom}(V, V)$, and $AB = BA$, and
 $Av = \lambda v$.

$$\text{Then } A(Bv) = B(Av) = B\lambda v = \lambda(Bv)$$

So, Bv is also an eigenvector for A , with eigenvalue λ .

For the "typical" operator, in a finite-dim. space,
each eigenspace is 1-dimensional + is associated with a
distinct eigenvalue. [characteristic eq'n has distinct roots;

if $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$, then

$$Av - \lambda v = 0 \text{ for some } v;$$

distinct eigenvalues must have distinct eigenvectors
since $\lambda v = \mu v$ only if $v = 0$;

counting argument shows that there are n
distinct eigenspaces of dimension 1]

For the "typical" operator,

the eigenvectors form a basis (unique upto individual
scalar multiplication),

so if Bv and v are both eigenvectors in eigenspace λ ,
it follows that $Bv = \mu v$, and v is an
eigenvector for B .

"Typical": $AB = BA \Rightarrow$ common eigenvectors, common basis
in which they are diagonal.

When is typicality guaranteed? What about infinite-dimensional?

Nub of the problem: $V \neq V^*$.

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One more piece of structure: inner product

(v, w) is an inner product if:

$(v, v) \geq 0$ and $(v, v) = 0$ only if $v = 0$

$$(v, w) = \overline{(w, v)}$$

$$(\lambda v, w) = (v, \bar{\lambda}w) = \bar{\lambda}(v, w) \text{ and } (v_1 + v_2, w) = (v_1, w) + (v_2, w)$$

$[(v, \cdot) \text{ is linear in } v]$

A Hilbert space is a vector space with an inner product, for which $(v, v) < \infty$.

Example: Square-integrable functions $\left(\int |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty \right)$

$$(f, g) = \int f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx. \quad "L^2"$$

One typically writes $\|f\|^2 = (f, f)$.

(\cdot, \cdot) is a linear map from V into V^* , namely,

for each $w \in V$, $v \mapsto (v, w)$ is in V^* .

In a Hilbert space, one can find basis sets - in the sense that

$$v = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n c_k v_k \text{ means } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|v - \sum_{k=1}^n c_k v_k\|^2 = 0$$

$(v, w) = 0 \Leftrightarrow "v \text{ and } w \text{ are orthogonal}"$

Self-adjoint operators

Def A is self-adjoint if, for all v, w , $(Av, w) = (v, Aw)$

Example. In L^2 : say $(Af)(t) = \int f(u) A(u, t) du$

When is A self-adjoint?

$$(Af, g) = \left(\int (f(u) A(u, t) du) g(t) dt \right) = \int f(u) g(t) \overline{A(u, t)} du$$

$$(f, Ag) = \int f(t) \left(\int g(u) A(u, t) du \right) dt = \int f(t) \overline{g(u) A(u, t)} dt du$$

$$\text{So need } A(u, t) = \overline{A(t, u)}$$

Self-adjoint operators have real eigenvalues. Say $Av = \lambda v$.

$$\text{Then } \lambda(v, v) = (\lambda v, v) = (Av, v) = (v, Av) = (v, \lambda v) = \lambda(v, v)$$

Self-adjoint operators have orthogonal eigenvectors, if evals are distinct

Say $Av = \lambda v$, $Aw = \mu w$.

$$\lambda(v, w) = (Av, w) = (v, Aw) = (v, \mu w) = \mu(v, w) = \mu(v, w)$$

$$\text{So } (v, w) = 0.$$

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But eigenvectors may not exist.

$f(t) \rightarrow i \frac{df}{dt}$ is self-adjoint in L^2

$i \frac{df}{dt} = If \Rightarrow f = e^{-itf}$, but this is not square integrable.

[Fine point: modify L^2 to ensure $\frac{df}{dt}$ is in L^2]

Unitary operators

Unitary operators preserve the structure of a Hilbert space, i.e.,

U is unitary means

$$(Uv, Uw) = (v, w)$$

Eigenvalues of unitary operators must have magnitude 1:

$$\text{If } Uv = \lambda v, \text{ then } (Uv, Uv) = (\lambda v, \lambda v)$$

$$= \lambda \bar{\lambda} (v, v)$$

$$\text{But } (Uv, Uw) = (v, w). \text{ So } |\lambda|^2 = \lambda \bar{\lambda} = 1.$$

Eigenvectors of distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal:

Say $Uv = \lambda v, Uw = \mu w$.

$$(v, w) = (Uv, Uw) = (\lambda v, \mu w) = \lambda \bar{\mu} (v, w)$$

If $\lambda \neq \mu$, $\lambda \bar{\mu} \neq 1$ so $(v, w) = 0$.

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The unitary operators form a group

For \mathbb{F}^2 the unitary operator $D_\gamma: f(t) \rightarrow f(t-\gamma)$
 \Rightarrow "natural"

① studying input-output systems:

$$s(t) \xrightarrow{\quad X \quad} r(t)$$

X should be "stationary" ("time-invariant") - namely

$$X D_\gamma = D_\gamma X$$

② studying signals

the statistics should be indep. of absolute time

i.e., elements of $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{F} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{F}, \mathbb{F})$ that
 commute in D_γ .

So we'll see how D_γ acts in \mathbb{F}^2 :

This will define a basis. That is natural for the above problem

Rather than solve $D_\gamma f = \gamma f$ directly,
 we will do it in the general context of
 a group represented by unitary op's in $\text{Hom}(V, V)$.

E1

Self-adjoint op's \leftrightarrow full set of real eigenvalues
 $\leftrightarrow A^T = \bar{A}$

Unitary op's \leftrightarrow full set of eigenvalues of magnitude 1
 $\leftrightarrow U^{-1} = \bar{U}^T$

$$U = e^{iAt}$$

Special class of SA op's : projections. A projection is a SA operator
 P s.t. $P^2 = P$. ["Idempotent"]

All eigenvalues of a projecn must be 0 or 1.

For if

$$Pv = \lambda v, \text{ then } P^2v = P^2v = P(Pv) = P(\lambda v) = \lambda^2 v \\ \text{so } \lambda^2 = \lambda^2, \Rightarrow \lambda = 0 \text{ or } 1.$$

If P is a projection, so is $Q = I - P$. $Q^2 = I - 2P + P^2 = I - P$

For any w ,

$$w = Pw + Qw \quad \text{and} \\ (Pw, Qw) = 0.$$

$$[(Pw, Qw) = (Pw, (I - P)w) = (w, (P - P^2)w) = 0]$$

So Pw is a projection of w into the subspace spanned by the 1-eigenvectors of P , and Qw is a projection of w into the orthogonal complement.