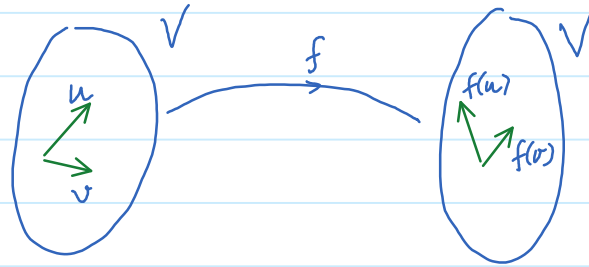


Lecture 26

Monday, March 9, 2020

We know that linear maps are compatible with the structure of a vector space. If vector space V is equipped with an inner product, making it an inner product space, one can ask: what kind of linear maps is "compatible" with the inner product on V ?



The most natural answer is probably the linear maps that preserve inner products: $(f(u), f(v)) = (u, v)$ for all $u, v \in V$. Such a map is called a unitary map. We will analyze some geometric consequences of unitary maps as follows.

Let $f: V \rightarrow V$ be a unitary map. Then $(f(u), f(u)) = (u, u)$ for all $u \in V$. That is

$$\|f(u)\|^2 = \|u\|^2 \quad \forall u \in V.$$

Therefore, $\|f(u)\| = \|u\|$ for all $u \in V$. We see that a unitary map is length-preserving. In other words, the length of a vector doesn't change after applying f .

The "angle" between two abstract vectors u and v can be defined as θ satisfying

$$\cos \theta = \frac{(u, v)}{\|u\| \|v\|}.$$

The angle between vectors $f(u)$ and $f(v)$ is γ satisfying

$$\cos \gamma = \frac{(f(u), f(v))}{\|f(u)\| \|f(v)\|}.$$



Because $(f(u), f(v)) = (u, v)$ and $\|f(u)\| = \|u\|$, $\|f(v)\| = \|v\|$, we have $\cos \gamma = \cos \theta$. If we only allow angles to be between 0 and π then $\gamma = \theta$. Hence, a unitary map is **angle preserving**. In other words, the angle between two vectors doesn't change after applying f .

Ex: Let V be an inner product space and $f: V \rightarrow V$ be a linear map given by $f(v) = 2v$. Is f a unitary map?

Intuitively, one can perceive that f is not unitary because it doesn't preserve lengths (although it does preserve angles). In general, the scaling is not unitary unless the scaling factor is a complex number with modulus 1. One can of course write a more rigorous proof as follows.

$$(f(u), f(u)) = (2u, 2u) = 4(u, u)$$

which is not equal to (u, u) for any $u \neq 0$. Therefore, f is not unitary.

Unitary maps behave like rotations. In the context of \mathbb{R}^2 (or \mathbb{R}^n in general), unitary maps are exactly the geometric rotations about the origin (which we are already familiar with).

The inner product on V gives any linear map $f: V \rightarrow V$ a companion operator, which we call **adjoint operator**, $f^*: V \rightarrow V$. Adjoint operators are a very helpful tool to study spectral theory (i.e. eigenvalue, eigenspace, ...) on inner product spaces.

Definition:

Let V be an inner product space and $f: V \rightarrow V$ be a linear map. Then a map $f^*: V \rightarrow V$ is called the **adjoint operator of f** if it satisfies the following property:

$$(f(u), v) = (u, f^*(v)) \quad \forall u, v \in V.$$

One can define adjoint operator of a linear map $f: V \rightarrow W$. But for now we are only interested in the case $V=W$ for simplicity. Let us consider a few examples of finding the adjoint of a linear map.

Ex: $V = \mathbb{R}^2$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, \quad f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ x-2y \end{bmatrix}.$$

Find f^* .

Let $u = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ and $v = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ be two general vectors.

Because f^* is a map from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R}^2 , we only need to know what $f^*(v)$ is. Let us write

$$f^*(v) = f^*\left(\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix}$$

where c and d are to be determined in terms of a and b . By the definition of adjoint operators, we have

$$(f(u), v) = (u, f^*(v)).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= \left(f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right), \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \right) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ x-2y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= (x+y)a + (x-2y)b. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{RHS} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} \right) = xc + yd.$$

We want to find c and d such that

$$(x+y)a + (x-2y)b = xc + yd.$$

One can rearrange terms on the left hand side as $x(a+b) + y(a-2b)$.

Therefore,

$$\begin{cases} c = a+b \\ d = a-2b \end{cases}$$

We conclude that f^* is the map given by $f^*\left(\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a-2b \end{bmatrix}$.

In this example, f^* is exactly the same as f .

Ex: $f: M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{C})$

$$f\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} ib & a \\ c & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find f^* .

Let $u = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and $v = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix}$ be general vectors in $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{C})$.

We want to find $f^*(v) = f^*\left(\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix}\right)$.

Let us write $f^*\left(\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{bmatrix}$

where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{C}$ are to be determined in terms of x, y, z, t . By the definition of adjoint operators,

$$(f(u), v) = (u, f^*(v)).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= \left(f\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}\right), \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix} \right) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} ib & a \\ c & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= ib\bar{x} + a\bar{y} + c\bar{z} + 0\bar{t} \\ &= ib\bar{x} + a\bar{y} + c\bar{z}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{RHS} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{bmatrix} \right) = a\bar{\alpha} + b\bar{\beta} + c\bar{\gamma} + d\bar{\delta}.$$

In order to have

$$ib\bar{x} + a\bar{y} + c\bar{z} = a\bar{\alpha} + b\bar{\beta} + c\bar{\gamma} + d\bar{\delta}$$

we need

$$\begin{cases} i\bar{x} = \bar{\beta}, \\ \bar{y} = \bar{\alpha} \\ \bar{z} = \bar{\gamma} \\ 0 = \bar{\delta} \end{cases} \quad \text{which implies} \quad \begin{cases} \beta = \bar{\beta} = \overline{i\bar{x}} = \overline{i\bar{x}} = -ix \\ \alpha = y \\ \gamma = z \\ \delta = 0. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, $f^* \left(\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} y & -ix \\ z & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Ex: $P_2(\mathbb{R})$ is equipped with inner products $(u, v) = \int_0^1 u(x)v(x)dx$.

Consider the linear map

$$G: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow P_2(\mathbb{R})$$

$$G(u)(x) = u(x+1)$$

Find G^* .

Let $u = ax^2 + bx + c$ and $v = \alpha x^2 + \beta x + \gamma$ be general vectors in $P_2(\mathbb{R})$.

We want to find $G^*(v)$. Let us write

$$G^*(v)(x) = mx^2 + nx + p$$

where $m, n, p \in \mathbb{R}$ are to be determined in terms of α, β, γ .

By the definition of adjoint operators,

$$(G(u), v) = (u, G^*(v)).$$

$$\text{LHS} = (a(x+1)^2 + b(x+1) + c, \alpha x^2 + \beta x + \gamma)$$

$$= (ax^2 + (2a+b)x + a+b+c, \alpha x^2 + \beta x + \gamma)$$

$$= \int_0^1 (ax^2 + (2a+b)x + a+b+c)(\alpha x^2 + \beta x + \gamma) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left\{ \alpha ax^4 + [(2a+b)\alpha + a\beta] x^3 + [a\gamma + (2a+b)\beta + (a+b+c)\alpha] x^2 \right.$$

$$\left. + [(a+b+c)\alpha + (2a+b)\gamma] x + (a+b+c)\gamma \right\} dx$$

$$\text{LHS} = \frac{1}{5} a\alpha + [(2a+b)\alpha + a\beta] \frac{1}{4} + [a\gamma + (2a+b)\beta + (a+b+c)\alpha] \frac{1}{3}$$

$$+ [(a+b+c)\alpha + (2a+b)\gamma] \frac{1}{2} + (a+b+c)\gamma.$$

$$\text{RHS} = (ax^2 + bx + c, mx^2 + nx + p)$$

$$= \int_0^1 (ax^2 + bx + c)(mx^2 + nx + p) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 [amx^4 + (an+bm)x^3 + (a\gamma + b\beta + c\alpha)x^2 + (b\gamma + c\beta)x + c\gamma] dx$$

$$RHS = \frac{1}{5}am + (an+bm)\frac{1}{4} + (a\gamma + b\beta + c\alpha)\frac{1}{3} + (b\gamma + c\beta)\frac{1}{2} + c\gamma.$$

We know that LHS = RHS for any a, b, c . Let us take $a=1, b=c=0$. The equation LHS = RHS becomes

$$\frac{23}{15}\alpha + \frac{11}{12}\beta + \frac{7}{3}\gamma = \frac{m}{5} + \frac{n}{4} + \frac{p}{3}. \quad (1)$$

Let us take $a=0, b=1, c=0$. The equation LHS = RHS becomes

$$\frac{13}{12}\alpha + \frac{1}{3}\beta + \frac{3}{2}\gamma = \frac{m}{4} + \frac{n}{3} + \frac{p}{2}. \quad (2)$$

Let us take $a=0, b=0, c=1$. The equation LHS = RHS becomes

$$\frac{5}{6}\alpha + \gamma = \frac{m}{3} + \frac{n}{2} + p. \quad (3)$$

The system of equations (1), (2), (3) can be written in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 23/15 & 11/12 & 7/3 \\ 13/12 & 1/3 & 3/2 \\ 5/6 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/5 & 1/4 & 1/3 \\ 1/4 & 1/3 & 1/2 \\ 1/3 & 1/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \\ p \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \\ p \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1/5 & 1/4 & 1/3 \\ 1/4 & 1/3 & 1/2 \\ 1/3 & 1/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 23/15 & 11/12 & 7/3 \\ 13/12 & 1/3 & 3/2 \\ 5/6 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 106 & 105 & 180 \\ -98 & -101 & -168 \\ 29/12 & 31/12 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

From here one can easily express m, n, p in terms of α, β, γ .