

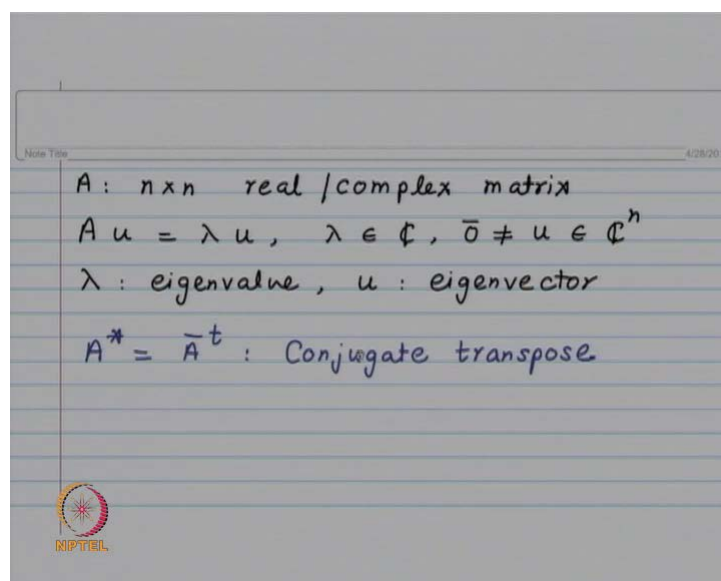
Elementary Numerical Analysis
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Lecture No. # 36
Spectral Theorem

In our last lecture, we have considered Eigen values of some special matrices like, if matrix is self adjoint, then we saw that Eigen values are real. If A is Q self adjoint, that means, the conjugate transpose is equal to minus of the matrix A , then the Eigen values are purely imaginary or they are 0. Then, for normal matrix; that means, if $A^* A$ is equal to $A A^*$, we saw that if λ is an Eigen value of A , then $\bar{\lambda}$, the complex conjugate is Eigen value of A^* , whereas Eigen vector, it remains the same.

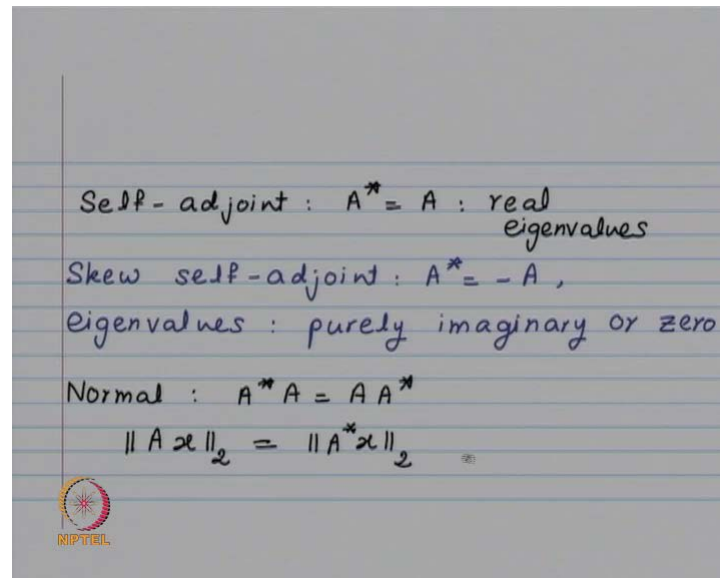
Now, using this result, we are going to show that for a normal matrix, Eigen vectors corresponding to distinct Eigen values; they are going to be perpendicular to each other. If we are looking at a general matrix, then Eigen values corresponding to distinct Eigen values, they are linearly independent. For normal matrices, we have got something more. So, we are going to look at this and then, we will consider Eigen values of unitary matrices.

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So, our notation is, A is n by n , either real or complex matrix. Au is equal to λu , where λ is a complex number and u is a non 0 vector in \mathbb{C}^n . A^* is equal to \bar{A}^T , that is the conjugate transpose.

(Refer Slide Time: 02:10)



Self-adjoint matrix, that means, A^* is equal to A , they have real Eigen values. Skew self-adjoint A^* is equal to minus A , then the Eigen values are either purely imaginary or 0. For a normal matrix, A^*A is equal to AA^* and using this, one shows that norm of Ax 2 norm, Euclidian norm is going to be equal to norm of A^*x 2 norm and as a consequence of this result, Au is equal to λu if and only if A^*u is equal to $\bar{\lambda}u$. Now, let us look at a unitary matrix, that means, A^*A is equal to AA^* is equal to identity.

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{A normal:} \\ & Au = \lambda u \Leftrightarrow A^* u = \bar{\lambda} u \\ & \text{A: unitary, } A^* A = A A^* = I \\ & Au = \lambda u, u \neq \bar{0} \\ \Rightarrow & A^* A u = \lambda A^* u = \lambda \bar{\lambda} u \\ \Rightarrow & u = |\lambda|^2 u \Rightarrow |\lambda| = 1 \end{aligned}$$

So, we have in particular, unitary matrix is a normal matrix. So, Au is equal to λu apply A^* . So, we will have $A^* Au$ is equal to $\lambda A^* u$, but $A^* Au$ will be $\lambda \bar{\lambda} u$. So, it is going to be equal to $|\lambda|^2 u$ and thus, we get u is equal to $|\lambda|^2 u$. Since, u is a non 0 vector; it implies that $|\lambda|^2 = 1$. So, thus for a unitary matrix, all the Eigen values, they are going to lie on unit circle.

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{A normal: } A^* A = A A^* \\ & Au = \lambda u, Av = \mu v, \\ & \lambda \neq \mu, u \neq \bar{0}, v \neq \bar{0} \\ \Rightarrow & A^* v = \bar{\mu} v. \\ & \text{Consider} \\ & \lambda \langle u, v \rangle = \langle \lambda u, v \rangle \\ & = \langle Au, v \rangle = \langle u, A^* v \rangle \\ & = \langle u, \bar{\mu} v \rangle = \bar{\mu} \langle u, v \rangle \Rightarrow \langle u, v \rangle = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, now we look at the case of distinct Eigen values for normal matrices. So, A^* is equal to AA^* . Let $Au = \lambda u$, $Av = \mu v$. So, we look at 2 distinct Eigen values, λ and μ and u and v are associated Eigen vectors. So, we want to show that, inner product of u with v is going to be equal to 0. So, u is going to be perpendicular to v .

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$$A^*A = AA^*$$

$$Au = \lambda u, Av = \mu v$$

$$\lambda \neq \mu, u \neq \bar{0}, v \neq \bar{0}$$
 Consider

$$\lambda \langle u, v \rangle = \langle \lambda u, v \rangle$$

$$= \langle Au, v \rangle = \langle u, A^*v \rangle$$

$$= \langle u, \bar{\mu} v \rangle = \bar{\mu} \langle u, v \rangle$$

$$\lambda \neq \bar{\mu} : \langle u, v \rangle = 0.$$

So, we have A^* is equal to AA^* , $Au = \lambda u$, $Av = \mu v$, where λ is not equal to μ , u being a Eigen vector, it is not a 0 vector, v also is a non 0 vector. So, let us look at, so consider λ times inner product of u with v . This will be $\lambda \langle u, v \rangle$ using linearity of inner product in the first variable. So, this λ goes inside as λu . Now, $Au = \lambda u$, so this will be inner product of Au with v . We have seen that A will go to the second variable as A^* . So, it will be $\langle u, A^*v \rangle$. Now, since $Av = \mu v$, $A^*v = \bar{\mu} v$.

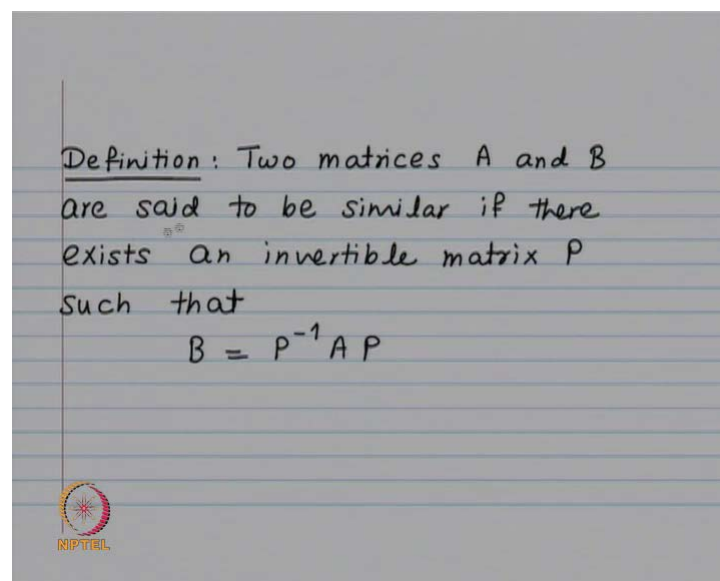
So, this will be equal to $\bar{\mu} \langle u, v \rangle$ and now, the inner product is conjugate linear in the second variable, so this $\bar{\mu}$ will come out as μ . So, this will be $\mu \langle u, v \rangle$. Since, λ is not equal to μ ; we get inner product of u with v to be equal to 0. So, if u and v are Eigen vectors corresponding to distinct Eigen values, then we get them to be perpendicular. So, this is property of normal matrices. In general, it will not be true.

Now, what we want to do is, we want to consider similar matrices. We want to show that similar matrices, they have the same set of Eigen values and algebraic multiplicity as well as geometric multiplicity that is going to be preserved.

So, let us first define what a similar matrix is. So, we have A and B, 2 matrices. They will be similar, if there exists an invertible matrix P, such that P inverse AP is equal to B. So, this is definition of similar matrices.

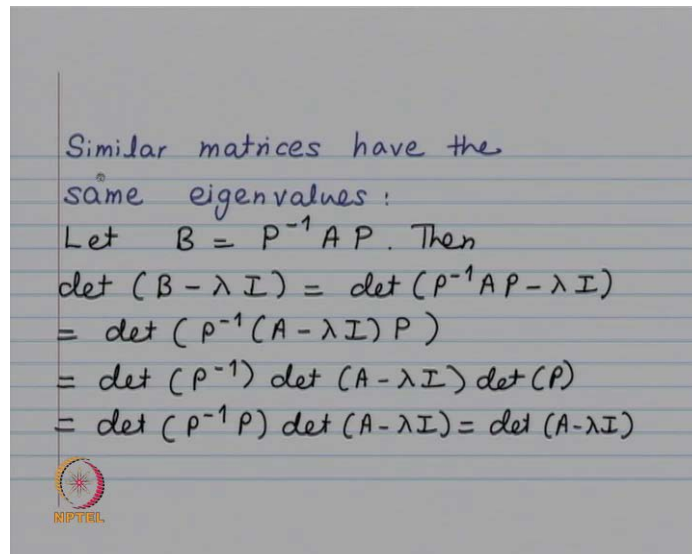
We are going to show that, **they have** they are going to have the same Eigen values. So, when you want to find Eigen values of A, if you want to simplify your matrix, then what is allowed, is similarity transformation elementary row transformations, which we used in Gauss Elimination method. They will change the Eigen values. So, they are not allowed, but similarity transformations, they will preserve Eigen values with algebraic multiplicity as well as geometric multiplicity.

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So, this is 2 matrices A and B of the same size are said to be similar, if there exists an invertible matrix P, such that B is equal to P inverse AP.

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Similar matrices have the same eigenvalues:
Let $B = P^{-1} A P$. Then
 $\det(B - \lambda I) = \det(P^{-1} A P - \lambda I)$
 $= \det(P^{-1} (A - \lambda I) P)$
 $= \det(P^{-1}) \det(A - \lambda I) \det(P)$
 $= \det(P^{-1} P) \det(A - \lambda I) = \det(A - \lambda I)$

Now, this is our claim that similar matrices, they have the same set of Eigen values. So, what we are going to do is, we are going to look at the characteristic polynomial. We will show that the characteristic polynomial of matrix B is same as the characteristic polynomial for matrix A.

The Eigen values are nothing, but roots of the characteristic polynomial. So, if we show that they have the same characteristic polynomial, it will mean that they will have the same Eigen values. Then, the algebraic multiplicity is defined as you factorize. So, you have got characteristic polynomial in that, suppose lambda 1 is one of the Eigen value, then you look at lambda 1 minus lambda raise to m 1. You factorize. So, whatever is the power that is the algebraic multiplicity.

So, once we show that matrix B and matrix A, they have the same characteristic polynomial. It will also follow that the algebraic multiplicities, they are preserved and showing the characteristic polynomial. They are the same is by using properties of determinant.

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$$\begin{aligned} B &= P^{-1} A P . \\ \det (B - \lambda I) &= \det (P^{-1} A P - \lambda I) \\ &= \det (P^{-1} A P - \lambda P^{-1} P) \\ &= \det (P^{-1} (A - \lambda I) P) \\ &= \det (P^{-1}) \det (A - \lambda I) \det (P) \\ &= \det (P^{-1} P) \det (A - \lambda I) \\ &= \det (A - \lambda I) \end{aligned}$$


The image shows a handwritten derivation on a whiteboard. The equations are written in black ink. A small logo for NPTEL is visible in the bottom left corner of the whiteboard image.

So, we have to look at say, we have got our B is equal to P inverse AP , then we look at determinant of B minus λI . That is the characteristic polynomial. This is going to be equal to determinant of P inverse AP minus λI substituting for B . This will be determinant P inverse AP minus λ times P inverse P . For the identity I write P inverse P . This is determinant P inverse A minus λI P .

Now, using the property of determinant, this is going to be equal to determinant P inverse determinant A minus λI and determinant P . Now, let me combine these two. So, that is going to be determinant P inverse P , determinant A minus λI , and determinant of identity matrix is 1. So, we get determinant of A minus λI . So, thus both B and A , they have the same characteristic polynomial and hence, the same set of Eigen values with preservation of algebraic multiplicity.


Now, let us look at geometric multiplicity. The definition of geometric multiplicity is number of linearly independent Eigen vectors associated with the Eigen value. So, now we want to show that, matrix B , which is P inverse AP and matrix A , they have Eigen values with the same geometric multiplicities. B is equal to P inverse $A P$. So, Bu will be equal to P inverse $AP u$.

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$$\begin{aligned} B &= P^{-1} A P . \\ B u &= P^{-1} A P u \\ \parallel \\ \lambda u &\Rightarrow A (P u) = \lambda (P u) \\ u \neq \vec{0} \quad P \text{ invertible} \\ &\Rightarrow P u \neq \vec{0} \\ u \vec{e}_v \text{ of } B &\Leftrightarrow P u \vec{e}_v \text{ of } A \end{aligned}$$


Suppose, Bu is equal to λu , then what we get is, so we have got $P^{-1}APu$ is equal to λu . So, that implies A of Pu is equal to λ times Pu . I am pre multiplying by P to get this. Now, u not equal to 0 vector, it is an Eigen vector. P invertible, it implies that P of u also not equal to 0 vector because if it were equal to 0 , we can multiply by P^{-1} and get u to be equal to 0 . So, that means, u Eigen vector of B implies Pu Eigen vector of A and converse also is true. So, this is going to be if and only if, let us look at the number of linearly independent Eigen vectors associated with B and λ .

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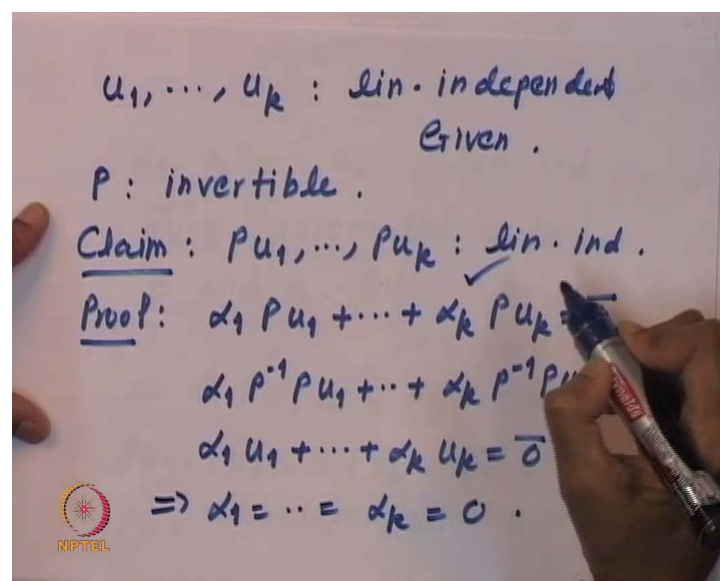
$$\begin{aligned} u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k &: \text{lin. ind.} \\ \vec{e}_v \text{'s associated with} \\ B \text{ and } \lambda. \quad B u_j &= \lambda u_j, \\ & \quad \quad \quad j=1, \dots, k. \\ \Rightarrow A P u_j &= \lambda P u_j \quad B = P^{-1} A P. \\ P u_1, P u_2, \dots, P u_k &: \vec{e}_v \text{'s} \\ & \text{associated with } A \text{ and } \lambda. \end{aligned}$$


Suppose, you have got u_1, u_2 up to u_k , these are linearly independent associated with B and λ . That means, $B u_j$ is equal to λu_j , j is equal to 1 to up to k . Now, just now we have seen that this implies that $A P u_j$ is equal to $\lambda P u_j$. Our B was $P^{-1} A P$. So, this will mean that $P u_1, P u_2$ up to $P u_k$, these will be Eigen vectors associated with A and λ . So, I am assuming that λ is Eigen value of B with geometric multiplicity k . Then, I got k Eigen vectors associated with A and λ . If I can show that these are linearly independent, then that will mean that geometric multiplicity of λ as an Eigen value of A also is going to be k .

So, see there is a one to one correspondence between Eigen vectors of B and Eigen vectors of A . $P u$ is Eigen vector of B . That will mean that u is Eigen vector associated with A and conversely. So, now, we are assuming that λ is Eigen value of B with geometric multiplicity, say k . Then, you look at k linearly independent Eigen vectors associated with B and λ . Then, $P u_1, P u_2, P u_k$, these will be Eigen vectors of A . So, only thing which remains to show is that $P u_1, P u_2, P u_k$, they are linearly independent.

Now, they will be linearly independent because P is invertible matrix. If P is not invertible, then such a result is not true. So, let me show quickly the linear independence.

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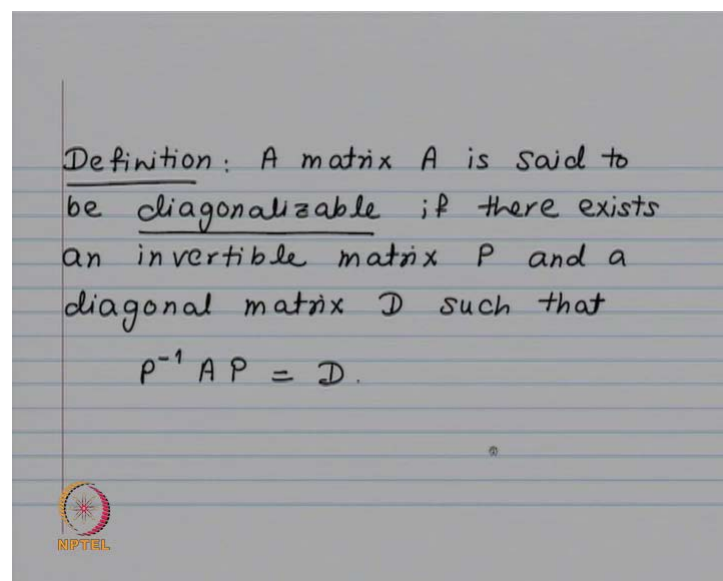


So, we have got our assumption is u_1, u_2, u_k , these are linearly independent. This is given. Then, P is invertible. Claim $P u_1, P u_k$ are linearly independent and for the proof

of this claim, we start with $\alpha_1 P u_1 + \alpha_k P u_k = 0$ vector. If this implies that α_1, α_2 and α_k , they all have to be 0, then that will mean that these are linearly independent. Now, in order to show that I am going to make use of the fact, that u_1, u_2, u_k , are linearly independent and P is invertible. So, multiply by P^{-1} . So, we will have $\alpha_1 P^{-1} P u_1 + \alpha_k P^{-1} P u_k = 0$ vector. You are multiplying by P^{-1} P^{-1} into 0 vector is 0 vector. Now, this is nothing, but $\alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_k u_k = 0$ vector and by using the fact, that this is linearly independent, it follows that $\alpha_1 = \alpha_k = 0$. So, this proves our claim.

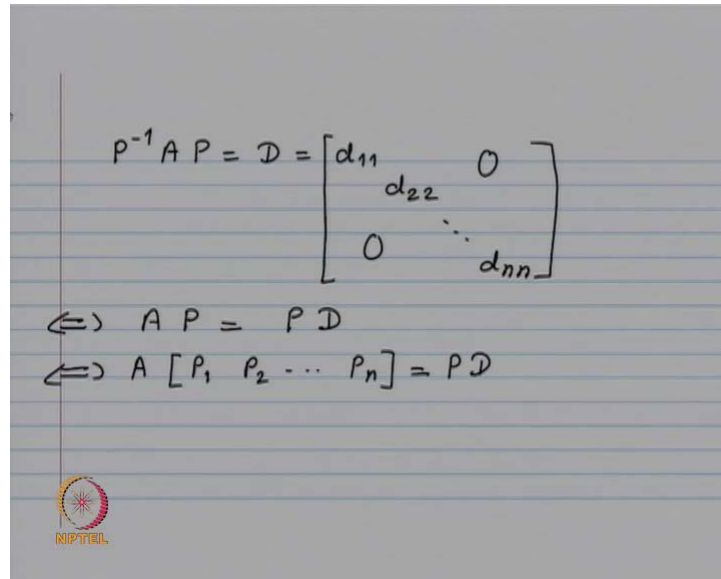
Similar matrices, they have got the same Eigen values with preservation of algebraic multiplicity and geometric multiplicity. So, if we have got matrices which are upper triangular matrices or diagonal matrices, we can calculate their Eigen values. In these two cases, the Eigen values, they are nothing but the diagonal entries. So, it will be good if I can find an invertible matrix P , such that $P^{-1} A P$ is either a diagonal matrix or an upper triangular matrix. Now, $P^{-1} A P = D$. Such matrices, they are known as diagonalizable matrices. That given a matrix A , if you can find the invertible matrix P , such that $P^{-1} A P = D$, then the matrix is called diagonalizable. All matrices, they are not diagonalizable.

(Refer Slide Time: 21:08)



So, what we are going to do is, we are going to prove a characterization for the diagonalizable matrices and then, using that the characterization, one can give a counter example to show that not all matrices are diagonalizable. So, a matrix A is said to be diagonalizable, if there exist an invertible matrix P and a diagonal matrix D , such that $P^{-1}AP$ is equal to D . So, this is the definition.

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$$P^{-1}AP = D = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & & 0 \\ & d_{22} & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & d_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow AP = PD$$
$$\Leftrightarrow A [P_1 \ P_2 \ \dots \ P_n] = PD$$

Now, what is $P^{-1}AP$ is equal to D diagonal matrix d_{11}, d_{22}, d_{nn} ? So, this will mean that A into P is equal to P into D . Let me write columns of P as P_1, P_2, P_n . So, we have got A times P_1, P_2, P_n is equal to P times D .

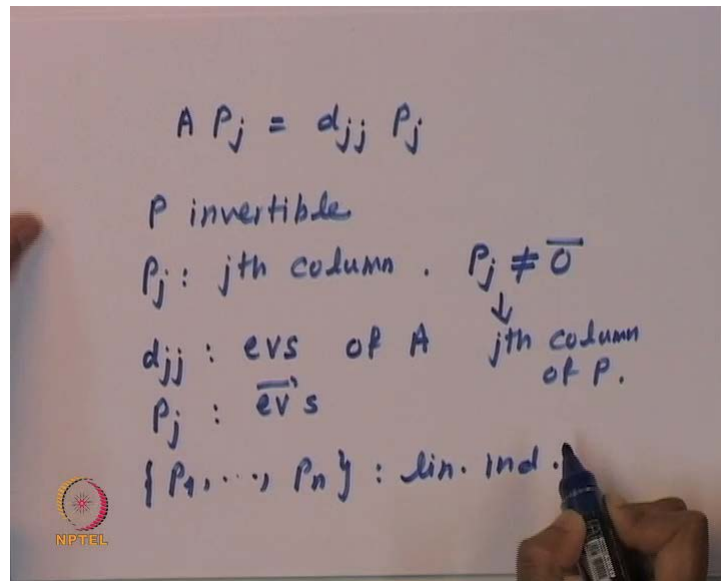
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$$\begin{aligned} A [P_1 \ P_2 \ \dots \ P_n] &= P D. \\ &= [AP_1 \ AP_2 \ \dots \ AP_n] \\ &= [P_1 \ P_2 \ \dots \ P_n] \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & & \\ & d_{22} & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & d_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= [d_{11} P_1 \ d_{22} P_2 \ \dots \ d_{nn} P_n]. \end{aligned}$$

So, when you consider A and then, P_1, P_2 up to P_n is equal to P into D . Now, this is nothing, but AP_1, AP_2 up to AP_n . That is the property of matrix multiplication. What will be P into D ? It will be P_1, P_2 up to P_n multiplied by diagonal matrix d_{11}, d_{22}, d_{nn} .

So, when you post multiply by a diagonal matrix, the first column will be $d_{11} P_1$. The first column will get multiplied by d_{11} , second one will be $d_{22} P_2$ and $d_{nn} P_n$. So, this is first column, second column and n th column. Here, you have got first column, second column, n th column and hence, what we have is AP_j is equal to $d_{jj} P_j$. P is invertible matrix. P_j is its j th column because it is invertible; P_j will not be a 0 vector. If you have got one column to be 0, then that matrix is not invertible. So, this will mean that d_{jj} , they are Eigen values of A and P_j , these are Eigen vectors. P_j is j th column of P and again, since P is invertible, $P_1 P_2$ up to P_n , this set is linearly independent.

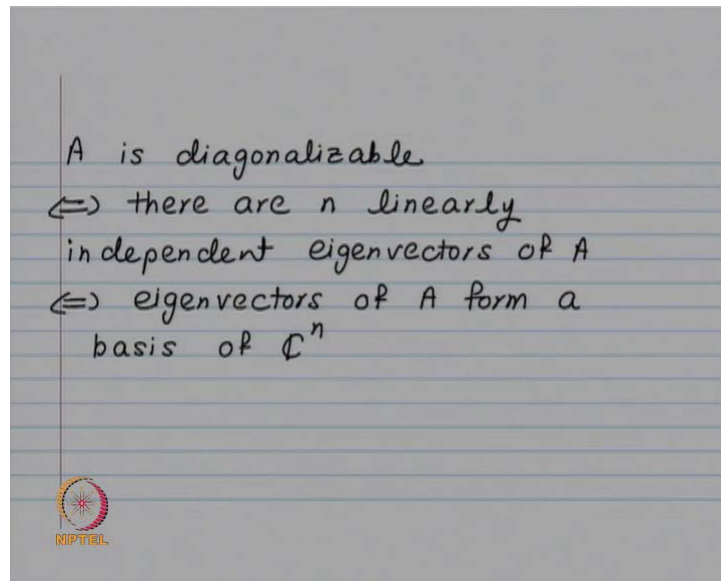
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So, thus our matrix A will be diagonalizable if and only if, you have got n Eigen vectors linearly independent associated with A . We have seen example of a 2 by 2 matrix. For that matrix, it was upper triangular matrix with all entries to be equal to 1. So, the only Eigen value is 1 and there was only one Eigen vector associated. So, this one Eigen value 1 had algebraic multiplicity to geometric multiplicity 1, so only 1 linearly independent Eigen vector. So, it is a 2 by 2 matrix and you have got only 1 linearly independent Eigen vector.

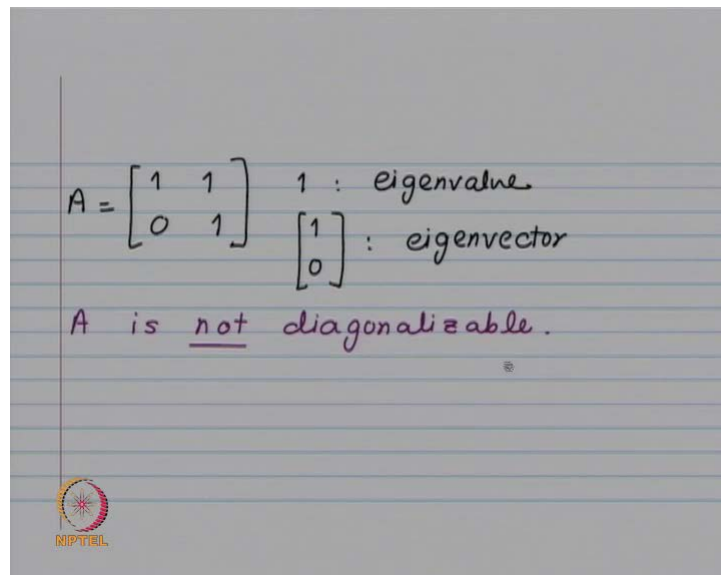
So, now we have seen that a matrix is diagonalizable if and only if, you are looking at a matrix of size n , then it should have n linearly independent Eigen vectors. So, thus not all matrices, they are going to be diagonalizable, but we will see there is a big class of matrices which is going to be diagonalizable.

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So, we have A is diagonalizable if and only if, there are n linearly independent Eigen vectors of A and that will mean that Eigen vectors of A , they will form a basis of \mathbb{C}^n because the dimension of \mathbb{C}^n is n . It is a finite dimensional space. So, if there are n independent Eigen vectors, they will also form a basis.

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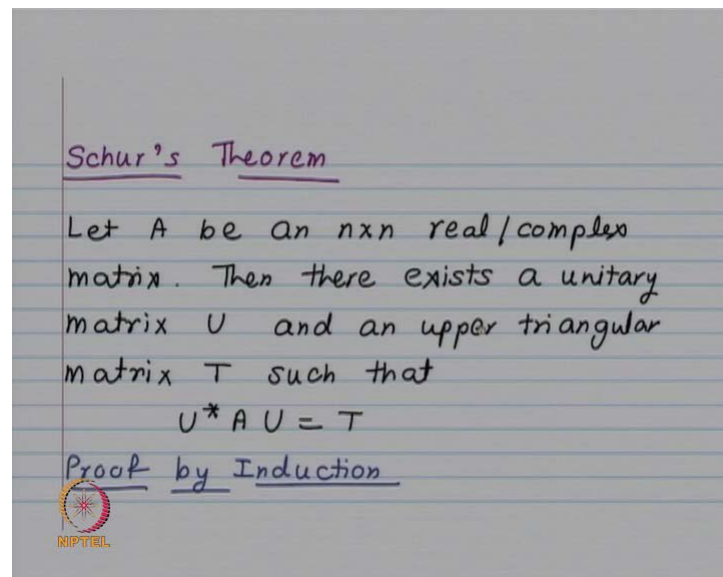


So, here is that example, A is equal to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 1 is the only Eigen value. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ or any non-0 multiple of it is going to be an Eigen vector. So, such a matrix is not diagonalizable. So, now not all matrices are diagonalizable, but when we are looking, we are interested in

Eigen values of matrix. So, even if I cannot reduce it to a diagonal form, if by using elementary, not elementary low transformations, by using similarity transformations, if I can reduce it to upper triangular form, then that will suffice because then I have got $P^{-1}AP$ is equal to upper triangular matrix.

The Eigen values of A , they are same as Eigen values of upper triangular matrix and Eigen values of upper triangular matrix, they are the diagonal entries. So, whether all matrices, they can be equivalent similarly or whether, they can be similar to an upper triangular matrix. So, the answer is yes and that is Schur's theorem.

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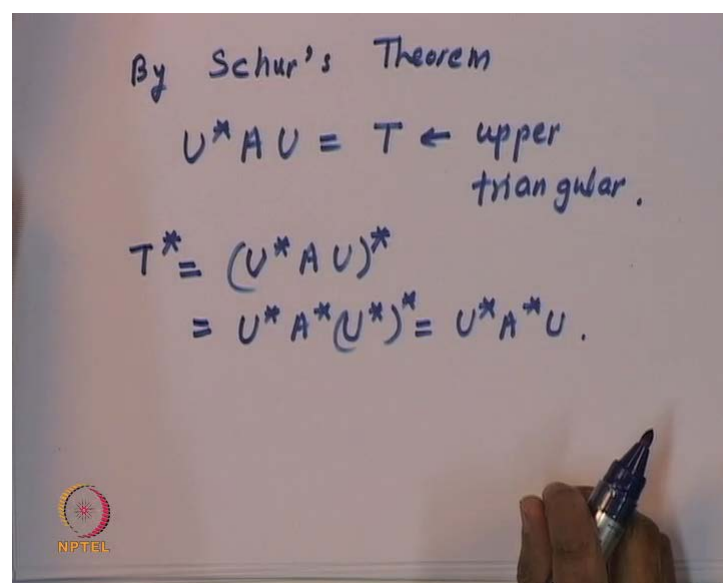
So, we have got, suppose A is n by n real or complex matrix. Then, there exist a unitary matrix u . So, not only invertible, but we have got something better. A unitary matrix U and an upper triangular matrix T , such that U^*AU is equal to T .

Now, look at the statement of Schur's theorem. It is very important that it says, then there exists. So, the statement which we are making is existential, that we are saying that there exist some U , which is unitary, such that U^*AU is equal to T . A and T , they are going to have the same Eigen values. There cannot be a constructive proof for this theorem because if you have got constructive proof, it will mean that you can find its Eigen values. Given any matrix A , you can find its Eigen values. Eigen values, they are related to finding the roots of the polynomial. Now, as soon as your polynomial is of degree bigger than or equal to 5, there cannot exist a formula. Like, if you have got a

quadratic polynomial, then we know how to write down its roots. So, such a thing is not possible, but still it is an important theorem and the proof is by induction, but I am going to skip the proof.

What we are going to do is we are going to look at the special cases. Like now we know that for any matrix U , you can write U^*AU is equal to T . So, what happens if your matrix is self-adjoint or if it is Q self-adjoint? So, let us see what one can deduce for these special matrices.

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By Schur's Theorem

$$U^*AU = T \leftarrow \text{upper triangular.}$$
$$T^* = (U^*AU)^*$$
$$= U^*A^*(U^*)^* = U^*A^*U.$$

So, we have got by Schur's theorem. U^*AU is equal to T , where T is upper triangular. So, what will be T^* ? T^* will be U^*AU its star. Now, this will be AB star is B^*A^* . So, it will be U^*A^* and then, U^* its star. So, it is going to be equal to U^*A^*U . So, thus we have got T is equal to U^*AU , then T^* will be equal to U^*A^*U . So, if a star is equal to A , this will imply that T^* is equal to T , T upper triangular. Then, T^* is going to be lower triangular.

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$$\begin{aligned} T &= U^* A U \\ T^* &= U^* A^* U \\ A^* &= A \Rightarrow T^* = T \\ T &\text{ upper triangular} \\ T^* &\text{ lower triangular} \\ \Rightarrow T &= D, \text{ diagonal.} \\ D &: \text{ real diagonal.} \end{aligned}$$

So, you have got a lower triangular matrix is equal to upper triangular matrix, and that will imply that T is going to be a diagonal matrix D because left hand side is lower triangular, right hand side is upper triangular. So, it has to be diagonal and because you have got D^* is equal to D , you are taking here conjugate transpose. So, that will mean that D is going to be real diagonal.

Now, it fits in our, whatever we have been saying. The Eigen values of A are same as the Eigen values of T . Now, we showed that T is going to be a diagonal matrix and the Eigen values of A are the diagonal entries. It is going to be a real diagonal matrix. So, for self-adjoint matrix, the Eigen values which are going to be diagonal entries, they are going to be real. This part we have seen earlier, that self-adjoint matrices, they have got real Eigen values.

Now, the same idea or the same proof, it tells us that if A is Skew self-adjointed, then your again T will be a diagonal matrix, but now the entries, diagonal entries, they will be either 0 or purely imaginary.

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$$U^*AU = T, \quad U^*A^*U = T^*$$
$$A^* = -A \Rightarrow T^* = -T = D.$$

\downarrow \downarrow
lower upper
tri. tri.

$$D^* = -D : \text{diagonal entries:}$$

0 or purely imaginary.

So, we have got U^*AU is equal to T , U^*A^*U is equal to T^* , A^* is equal to minus A implies T^* is equal to minus T . This is lower triangular, this is upper triangular. So, it has to be equal to a diagonal matrix D and D^* will be equal to minus D . So, diagonal entries will be 0 or purely imaginary.

Now, let us look at normal matrix. So, for the normal matrix, it is not (\circ) to see that in this case also T is, in fact a diagonal matrix. So, that we are going to do as a tutorial problem. So, that means, the self-adjoint matrices, then skew self-adjoint matrices and more generally, normal matrices, they are going to be diagonalizable.

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$$\begin{aligned}U^*AU &= T, \quad U^*A^*U = T^*. \\TT^* &= U^*AU \underbrace{U^*A^*U}_I \\&= U^*AA^*U \\&= U^*A^*AU \\&= U^*AUU^*AU \\&= TT^*. \Rightarrow T = D\end{aligned}$$

Tutorial problem.


For diagonalizability, what we wanted was existence of an invertible matrix, such that $P^{-1}AP$ is equal to D . Now, we have got something more. We have got a unitary matrix, where U^* is equal to U^{-1} . So, we have got U^*AU is equal to D for normal matrices and this is known as Spectral theorem. So, we have for the normal matrix, let me write down U^*AU is T , U^*A^*U is equal to T^* . So, consider TT^* , that is going to be equal to U^*AU and U^*A^*U . This is identity. So, this will be U^*AA^*U .

Now, normal matrix, so this will be U^*A^*AU and now, let me introduce UU^* here, which is identity, AU and this is nothing, but TT^* and this implies T to be a diagonal matrix, that is going to be a tutorial problem.

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$$\begin{aligned}U^*AU &= T, \quad U^*A^*U = T^* \\U^*U &= UU^* = I, \quad T: \text{upper triangular} \\TT^* &= U^*AUU^*A^*U \\&= U^*AA^*U \\&= U^*AUU^*A^*U \\&= TT^*\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow T = D$ Normal Matrices are diagonalizable




So, normal matrices, they are going to be diagonalizable. So, not all matrices are diagonalizable, but at least we have got a big class of matrices, which is the class of normal matrices, they are going to be all diagonalizable. Now, there is another class of matrix, that is, if your matrix has n distinct Eigen values. In that case, the corresponding Eigen vectors, they are going to be linearly independent. So, in \mathbb{C}^n , we will have n linearly independent vectors. They will form a basis and we saw that diagonalizability, it means existence of a basis of Eigen vectors.

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Spectral Theorem

A normal : $A^*A = AA^*$

There exists a unitary matrix U and a diagonal matrix D such that $U^*AU = D$



So, if you have got a matrix with distinct Eigen values, then you are going to have P inverse AP is equal to D. In this case, matrix P will be only invertible, it need not be unitary, the unitary matrix, that is for normal matrices. So, we have, this is the Spectral theorem. If A is normal, that means, A star A is equal to AA star, then there exists a unitary matrix U and a diagonal matrix D, such that U star AU is equal to D. So, once again, I want you to notice that they exist. We are not giving a recipe. If we could have done, that would have been ideal, but that is just not possible. So, we are going to have U star AU is equal to D.

Now, using Spectral theorem, I want to calculate or I want to get an expression for Euclidian norm of matrix A. We had defined matrix norms, induced matrix norm. So, we had norm A 1, norm A infinity and norm A 2. Norm A 1 is nothing, but column sum norm. Norm A infinity is the row sum norm. So, these 2 norms, you can compute. We have got a formula in terms of the elements of the matrix, whereas for norm A 2, we had only an upper bound. Upper bound is that Frobenius norm. We are going to show that if A is a normal matrix, then norm A 2 will be modulus of the biggest Eigen value.

(Refer Slide Time: 40:22)

$$\begin{aligned}
 U^*U &= I \\
 U &= [u_1 \ u_2 \ \dots \ u_n] \\
 U^* &= \begin{bmatrix} u_1^* \\ u_2^* \\ \vdots \\ u_n^* \end{bmatrix} \quad U^*U = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^*u_1 & u_1^*u_2 & \dots & u_1^*u_n \\ u_2^*u_1 & u_2^*u_2 & \dots & u_2^*u_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_n^*u_1 & u_n^*u_2 & \dots & u_n^*u_n \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= [u_i^*u_j] = [\langle u_j, u_i \rangle]
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, before we do that, I want you to notice that U star U is equal to identity. It means the columns of U, they are Orthonormal. So, we have got U is a matrix. I denote its columns by U 1 U 2 U n. U star will be U 1 star U 2 star and U n star. So, when I look at U star U, this is going to be this multiplied by this. So, it is going to be U 1 star U 1, U 1

star U_2 and U_2 star U_n . Then, U_2 star U_1 , U_2 star U_n and U_n star U_1 , U_n star U_n and this is equal to identity matrix. It will mean that U_1 star U_1 will be 1. So, that is nothing, but the Euclidian norm of U_1 . U_1 star U_2 will be 0, which we mean that U_1 and U_2 are perpendicular. Similarly, U_1 and U_n will be perpendicular. So, this U_1 U_2 U_n , which are columns of u , so we are going to have columns of U are Orthonormal.

(Refer Slide Time: 40:40)

Handwritten mathematical derivation showing the definition of matrix U , its conjugate transpose U^* , and the resulting identity matrix $U^*U = I$.

$$U = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \dots \ u_n]$$

$$U^* = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^* \\ u_2^* \\ \vdots \\ u_n^* \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Columns of } U \text{ are orthonormal.}$$

$$U^*U = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^*u_1 & u_1^*u_2 & \dots & u_1^*u_n \\ u_2^*u_1 & \dots & \dots & u_2^*u_n \\ \vdots & \dots & \dots & \vdots \\ u_n^*u_1 & \dots & \dots & u_n^*u_n \end{bmatrix} = I$$

So, if you have got an invertible matrix, then its columns, they are linearly independent. If you have got a unitary matrix, that means, the inverse of U is nothing, but its conjugate transpose. Then, the columns of U , they are Orthonormal. That means, any 2 distinct columns, they will be mutually perpendicular and the Euclidian length of each column vector is going to be equal to 1. Similar result is true for row vectors.

So, for the row vectors, we have to use the fact that UU star is equal to identity. Now, we have got by spectral theorem for normal matrix u star Au is equal to D . So, the entries on the diagonal of D , those are our Eigen values and columns of u , those are our Eigen vector. So, that means, for normal matrix, we have got Eigen vectors to be orthonormal. We already saw this for distinct Eigen values.

If you have got A to be a normal matrix, λ and μ to be distinct Eigen values corresponding Eigen vectors, they are mutually perpendicular. What we are saying now is, if A is a normal matrix, there is a basis of, there is an orthonormal basis which consists of Eigen vectors.


(Refer Slide Time: 44:22)

$$U^*U = [\langle u_j, u_i \rangle] = I$$
$$\Rightarrow \langle u_j, u_i \rangle = \begin{cases} 1, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

The columns of U are orthonormal

$$U^*AU = D \Rightarrow AU = UD$$

The columns of U are eigenvectors.



So, we have u^*u is equal to identity. That means, inner product of u_j with u_i is 1 if i is equal to j and 0, if i not equal to j . The columns, that means, the columns of u are orthonormal. u^*AU is equal to D . That means, AU is equal to u into D . So, the columns of u are nothing, but Eigen vectors.


(Refer Slide Time: 44:50)

$$U^*U = [\langle u_j, u_i \rangle] = I$$
$$\Rightarrow \langle u_j, u_i \rangle = \begin{cases} 1, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

The columns of U are orthonormal

$$U^*AU = D \Rightarrow AU = UD$$

The columns of U are eigenvectors.



So, we can state Spectral theorem as if A is normal, then A has n orthonormal Eigen vectors, not just vectors, but Eigen vector. So, you have got Au_j is equal to $\lambda_j u_j$,

j is equal to 1, 2 up to n . These λ_j 's, they need not be distinct. Those are the Eigen values which may be repeated.


Now, consider any z belonging to \mathbb{C}^n a vector in \mathbb{C}^n . u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n is going to form a basis. So, I can express z as a linear combination of u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n . So, z is summation j goes from 1 to n $\alpha_j u_j$. If you take inner product of z with u_k , this is going to be equal to summation j goes from 1 to n $\alpha_j u_j \cdot u_k$. Using linearity of inner product in the first variable, this will be summation j goes from 1 to n $\alpha_j \langle u_j, u_k \rangle$. This is going to be one only when j is equal to k . So, this is equal to α_k . So, any vector z can be written as summation j goes from 1 to n , $z = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j u_j$.

(Refer Slide Time: 46:15)

A normal, $A u_j = \lambda_j u_j, j=1, \dots, n,$
 $\|u_j\|_2 = \sqrt{\langle u_j, u_j \rangle} = 1,$
 Let $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$
 $z \in \mathbb{C}^n \Rightarrow z = \sum_{j=1}^n \langle z, u_j \rangle u_j$
 $A z = \sum_{j=1}^n \langle z, u_j \rangle A u_j$
 $= \sum_{j=1}^n \langle z, u_j \rangle \lambda_j u_j$

So, we have for normal matrix $A u_j$ is equal to $\lambda_j u_j$ norm u_j to be equal to 1. Let me arrange Eigen values λ_1 in the descending order of modulus, $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$. Then, just now we saw that z can be written like this, this combination. So, $A z$ will be take A inside $A u_j$ is equal to $\lambda_j u_j$. So, this is going to be for $A z$.

(Refer Slide Time: 46:54)

$$\begin{aligned}z &= \sum_{j=1}^n \langle z, u_j \rangle u_j \\ \langle z, z \rangle &= \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^n \langle z, u_j \rangle u_j, \sum_{k=1}^n \langle z, u_k \rangle u_k \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \langle z, u_j \rangle \overline{\langle z, u_k \rangle} \langle u_j, u_k \rangle \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n |\langle z, u_j \rangle|^2 = \|z\|_2^2\end{aligned}$$


Now, norm z square is going to be nothing, but summation j goes from 1 to n modulus of z, u_j square. So, we are going to look at what I am trying to show is Euclidian norm of A or norm A^2 is going to be equal to modulus of λ 1. So, for that, we make use of fact that if A is normal, there are n orthonormal Eigen vectors, write any vector z as a linear combination, consider Az because for norm A^2 , we have to look at maximum of norm Az by norm z . So, this proof, I will complete in the next lecture and then, we are going to look at some localization results for Eigen values and then approximate methods for calculating Eigen values. So, thank you