

Math 255A' Lecture 17 Notes

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1 Projections and Idempotents in Hilbert Spaces

1.1 Projections and idempotents

Let H be a Hilbert space over \mathbb{F} .

Definition 1.1. An operator $E \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ is **idempotent** if $E^2 = E$. E is a **projection** if $E^2 = E$ and $\ker E = (\operatorname{ran} E)^\perp$.

Proposition 1.1. Let $E \in \mathcal{H}$.

1. E is idempotent if and only if $1 - E$ is idempotent.
2. $\operatorname{ran} E = \ker(1 - E)$, $\ker E = \operatorname{ran}(1 - E)$, and these are closed subspaces of H .
3. $\ker E \cap \operatorname{ran} E = \{0\}$, and $\ker E + \operatorname{ran} E = H$.

Proof. 1. $(1 - E)^2 = 1 - 2E + E^2$.

2.

$$\begin{aligned} h \in \operatorname{ran} E &\iff hEk \text{ for some } k \\ &\iff Eh = E^2k = Ek = h \\ &\iff (1 - E)h = 0. \end{aligned}$$

3. $h = Eh + (1 - E)h$. □

Remark 1.1. This also holds for Banach spaces, but we will not use it in that generality.

Proposition 1.2. Let P be a nonzero idempotent in $\mathcal{B}(H)$. The following are equivalent:

1. P is a projection.
2. P is the projection onto $\operatorname{ran} P$.

3. $\|P\| = 1$.

4. $P = P^*$.

5. P is normal.

6. $\langle Ph, h \rangle \geq 0$ for all h (nonnegativity).

Proof. (1) \implies (2): Let $M = \text{ran } P$, which is closed. Then the projection $P_M h$ is characterized by $P_M h - h \perp M$; we show that P has this property. For any $h \in H$, $h - Ph = (1 - P)h \in \text{ran}(1 - P) = \ker P$, and $\text{ran } P \subseteq (\ker P)^\perp$. So $h - Ph \perp M$.

(2) \implies (3): Write $h_1 = Ph$, so $h = h_1 + (h - h_1)$. Then $\|h_1\| \leq \|h\|$ if $h \in M$.

(3) \implies (1): We want to show that $\ker P = (\text{ran } P)^\perp$. We will show that $(\ker P)^\perp = \text{ran } P$. Assume $h \perp \ker P$; we will deduce that $h \in \text{ran } P$. We get

$$0 = \langle h, h - Ph \rangle \implies \|h\|^2 = \langle h, Ph \rangle \implies \|h\|^2 \leq \|h\| \|Ph\| \leq \|P\| \|h\|^2 = \|h\|^2,$$

so all these are equal. Then

$$\|h - Ph\|^2 = \|h\|^2 + \|Ph\|^2 - 2 \text{Re} \langle h, Ph \rangle = 0,$$

so $h \in \text{ran } P$.

Suppose $h \in \text{ran } P$. Then $h = h_1 + h_2$, where $h_1 \in (\ker P)^\perp$, and $h_2 \in \ker P$. and is orthogonal to $\text{ran } P \cap (\ker P)^\perp$. This means $h_2 \in \text{ran } P \cap \ker P = \{0\}$. so $h = h_1$.

(2) \implies (4): Suppose $P = P_M$. Then $h = h_1 + h_2$ and $k = k_1 + k_2$, where $h_1, k_1 \in M$ and $h_2, k_2 \perp M$. Then

$$\langle Ph, k \rangle = \langle h_1, k_1 + k_2 \rangle = \langle h_1, k_1 \rangle = \langle h, Pk \rangle.$$

(4) \implies (5): if $P = P^*$, then P commutes with P^* .

(5) \implies (1): If $PP^* = P^*P$, then $\ker PP^* = \ker P^*P$. If $PP^*h = 0$, then

$$\langle PP^*h, h \rangle = \langle P^*h, P^*h \rangle = \|P^*h\|^2,$$

so multiplying by an adjoint does not change the kernel. So $\ker(PP^*) = \ker(P^*) = (\text{ran } P)^\perp$. On the other hand, the same argument gives $\ker P^*P = \ker P$.

(6) \implies (1): Suppose (1) does not hold, so there are an $h = Ph$ and $k \in \ker P$ such that $\langle h, k \rangle \neq 0$. Then

$$\langle P(\alpha h + \beta k), \alpha h + \beta k \rangle = \langle \alpha h, \alpha h + \beta k \rangle = \|\alpha h\|^2 + \alpha \bar{\beta} \langle h, k \rangle,$$

where $\langle h, k \rangle$ is not necessarily ≥ 0 . □

1.2 Invariant and reducible subspaces

If P is a projection, then the map $h \mapsto (Ph, h - Ph)$ is a Hilbert space isomorphism $H \rightarrow \text{ran } P \oplus \ker P$. So if we have an operator on H , we can think of it as an operator acting on this direct sum. More generally, if we have a closed subspace M , then $H \cong M \oplus M^\perp$. If $A \in \mathcal{B}(H)$, we identify it with

$$\begin{bmatrix} X & Y \\ W & Z \end{bmatrix}, \quad Ah = \begin{bmatrix} X & Y \\ W & Z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

where $X \in \mathcal{B}(M)$, $Z \in \mathcal{B}(M^\perp)$, $Y \in \mathcal{B}(M^\perp, M)$, and $W \in \mathcal{B}(M, M^\perp)$. This gets us partway to diagonalization if we can show that $W, Y = 0$.

Definition 1.2. A subspace $M \leq H$ is **invariant** for $A \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ if $AM \subseteq M$. $M \leq H$ is **reducing** for $A \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ if $AM \subseteq M$ and $AM^\perp \subseteq M^\perp$.

Here's how we find X, Y, Z, W :

$$A(h_1 + h_2) = PA(h_1 + h_2) + (1 - P)A(h_1 + h_2) = PAPh + PA(1 - P)h + (1 - P)APh + (1 - P)A(1 - P)h.$$

In other words,

$$\begin{bmatrix} X & Y \\ W & Z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} PA|_M & PA|_{M^\perp} \\ (1 - P)A|_M & (1 - P)A|_{M^\perp} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proposition 1.3. 1. M is invariant for $A \iff PAP = AP \iff W = 0$.

2. M is reducing for $A \iff PA = AP \iff W = 0, Y = 0$.

Proof. 1. If $PAP = AP$, then $W = (1 - PA)|_M = (1 - P)AP|_M = 0$.

If M is invariant, then

$$\begin{bmatrix} X & Y \\ 0 & Z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Xh_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

2. If $PA = AP$, then $PAP = AP$, so M is invariant. On the other hand $PA = PAP$, so $PA(1 - P) = 0$. So M^\perp is invariant, making M reducing. \square

Idea on the route to the spectral theorem for self-adjoint operators: Break A into

$$\begin{bmatrix} X & 0 \\ 0 & Y \end{bmatrix}$$

such that X, Y are both "simpler" than A was originally. Keep doing this to "diagonalize" A .