

Announcements:

- PS 3 due now  
→ solutions  $\approx$  2pm  
today

- PS 4 posted  
→ due Tuesday

- last year's exam  
posted  $\approx$  Sunday

# Econ 204 2018

## Lecture 10

### Outline

1. Diagonalization of Real Symmetric Matrices
2. Application to Quadratic Forms
3. Linear Maps Between Normed Spaces

## How Might This Matter

$$\begin{aligned}c_{t+1} &= b_{11}c_t + b_{12}k_t \\ k_{t+1} &= b_{21}c_t + b_{22}k_t \\ &\forall t\end{aligned}$$

- Why does diagonalizability matter?

Consider a two-dimensional linear difference equation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_{t+1} \\ k_{t+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_t \\ k_t \end{pmatrix} \quad \forall t = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

given an initial condition  $c_0, k_0$ , or, setting

$$y_t = \begin{pmatrix} c_t \\ k_t \end{pmatrix} \quad \forall t \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

we can rewrite this more compactly as

$$y_{t+1} = By_t \quad \forall t$$

where  $b_{ij} \in \mathbf{R}$  each  $i, j$ .

We want to find a solution  $y_t$ ,  $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  given initial condition  $y_0$ . (Why?)

Such a dynamical system will arise for example as a characterization of the solution to a standard infinite-horizon optimal growth problem (202a, lecture 2).

If  $B$  is diagonalizable, this can be easily solved after a change of basis. If  $B$  is diagonalizable, choose an invertible  $2 \times 2$  real matrix  $P$  such that

$$P^{-1}BP = D = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} y_{t+1} = By_t \quad \forall t &\iff P^{-1}y_{t+1} = P^{-1}By_t \quad \forall t && \text{(mult-by } P^{-1}) \\ &\iff \boxed{P^{-1}y_{t+1}} = \boxed{P^{-1}BP} \boxed{P^{-1}y_t} \quad \forall t && PP^{-1} = I \\ &\iff \bar{y}_{t+1} = D\bar{y}_t \quad \forall t \\ &&& = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 \end{pmatrix} \bar{y}_t \\ &&& \text{where } \bar{y}_t = P^{-1}y_t \quad \forall t \end{aligned}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \bar{y}_{it+1} = d_i \bar{y}_{it} \quad \forall t, i=1,2$$

where  $\bar{y}_t = P^{-1}y_t \quad \forall t$ .

Since  $D$  is diagonal, after a change of basis to  $\bar{y}_t$ , we need to solve two **independent** linear univariate difference equations, which is easy:

$$\bar{y}_{it} = d_i^t \bar{y}_{i0} \quad \forall t$$

- Not all real  $n \times n$  matrices are diagonalizable (not even all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices are)...so can we identify some classes that are? *yesterday:*
  - basis of eigenvectors ( $\Leftrightarrow$ )
  - $n$  distinct eigenvalues ( $\Rightarrow$ )
- Some types of matrices appear more frequently than others – especially real symmetric  $n \times n$  matrices (matrix representation of second derivatives of  $C^2$  functions, quadratic forms...). *e.g. second order conditions in optimization, checking concavity and convexity, Taylor series approximation of function*

- Recall that an  $n \times n$  real matrix  $A$  is *symmetric* if  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$  for all  $i, j$ , where  $a_{ij}$  is the  $(i, j)^{\text{th}}$  entry of  $A$ .

Rest of this section: work in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

- vector space
- norm
- inner product ( $x \cdot y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$ )

## Orthonormal Bases

**Definition 1.** Let

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

A basis  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is orthonormal if  $v_i \cdot v_j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$

In other words, a basis is orthonormal if each basis element has unit length ( $\|v_i\|^2 = v_i \cdot v_i = 1 \ \forall i$ ), and distinct basis elements are perpendicular ( $v_i \cdot v_j = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ ).

# Orthonormal Bases

**Remark:** Suppose that  $x = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j v_j$  where  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} x \cdot v_k &= \left( \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j v_j \right) \cdot v_k \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j (v_j \cdot v_k) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \delta_{jk} = \begin{cases} 1 & j=k \\ 0 & j \neq k \end{cases} \\ &= \alpha_k \end{aligned}$$

so

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^n (x \cdot v_j) v_j$$

# Orthonormal Bases

**Example:** The standard basis of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  is orthonormal.

$$e_i = (0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0) \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

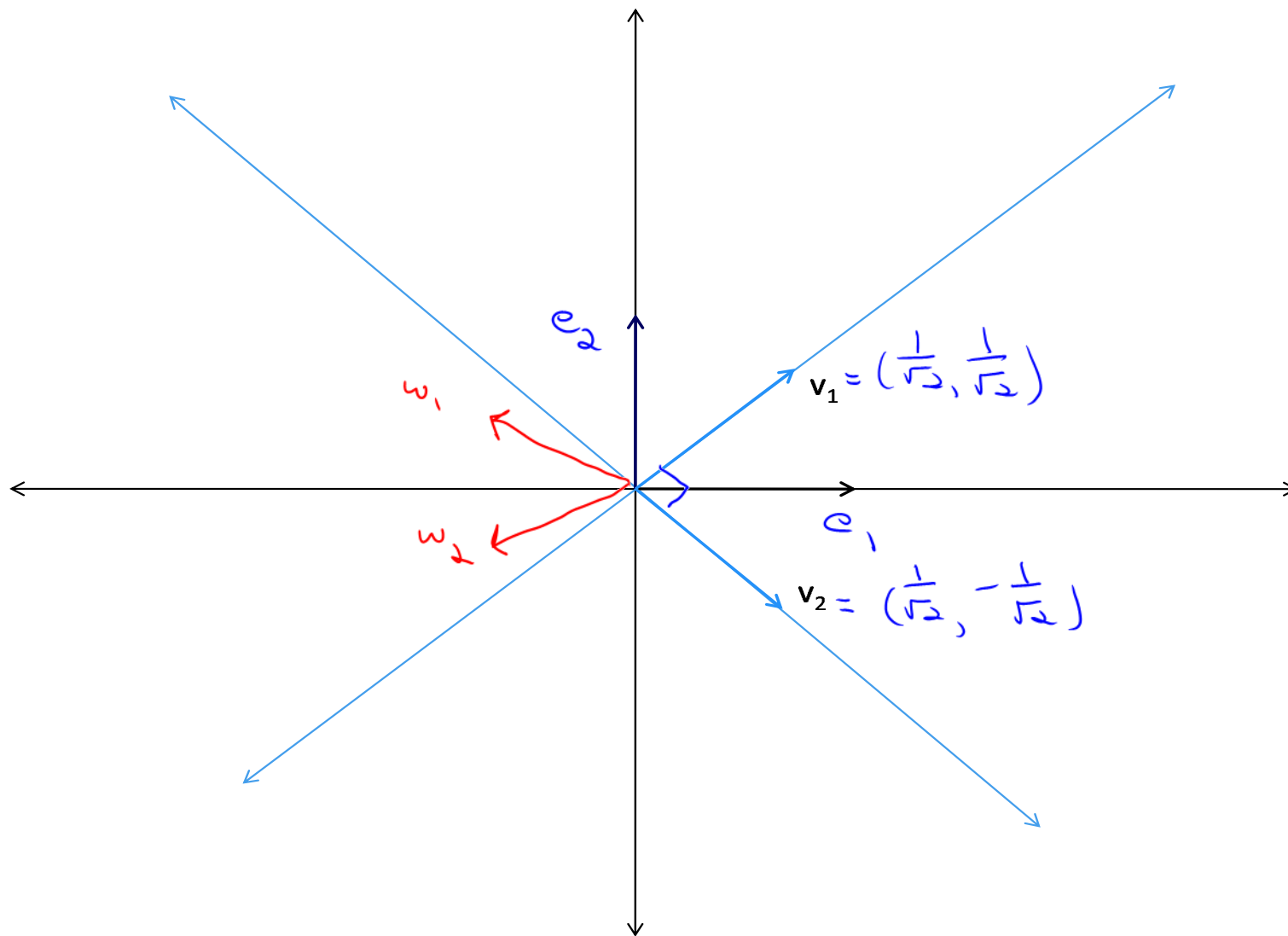
(Why?)

$$\text{e.g. } \mathbb{R}^2: \quad e_1 = (1, 0), \quad e_2 = (0, 1)$$

$$\text{others? e.g.} \quad v_1 = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right), \quad v_2 = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

also many bases that are not orthonormal





# Unitary Matrices

Recall that for a real  $n \times m$  matrix  $A$ ,  $A^\top$  denotes the transpose of  $A$ : the  $(i, j)^{th}$  entry of  $A^\top$  is the  $(j, i)^{th}$  entry of  $A$ .

So the  $i^{th}$  row of  $A^\top$  is the  $i^{th}$  column of  $A$ .

**Definition 2.** A real  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is unitary if  $A^\top = A^{-1}$ .

Notice that by definition every unitary matrix is invertible.

# Unitary Matrices

**Theorem 1.** *A real  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is unitary if and only if the columns of  $A$  are orthonormal.*

*Proof.* Let  $v_j$  denote the  $j^{th}$  column of  $A$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 A^T &= A^{-1} &\iff A^T A &= I = (\delta_{ij}) \quad \begin{matrix} 1 & & \\ & \swarrow & \searrow \\ & 0 & 0 \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} i=j \\ i \neq j \end{matrix} \\
 & &\iff v_i \cdot v_j &= \delta_{ij} \quad \forall i, j \\
 & &\iff \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} &\text{ is orthonormal}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

$A = (v_1 \dots v_n)$  - change of basis from  $V$  to standard basis in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  ( $W$ )  
 $\uparrow \quad \quad \uparrow$   
 $\text{ord}_W(v_1) \quad \text{ord}_W(v_n)$

## Unitary Matrices

If  $A$  is unitary, let  $V$  be the set of columns of  $A$  and  $W$  be the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Since  $A$  is unitary, it is invertible, so  $V$  is a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . ( $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  linearly independent)

$$A^T = A^{-1} = \text{Mtx}_{V,W}(\text{id}) = \text{change of basis from } W \text{ to } V$$

$\uparrow$   
 standard basis

Since  $V$  is orthonormal, the transformation between bases  $W$  and  $V$  preserves all geometry, including lengths and angles.

Thus : Let  $C$  be an  $n \times n$  real symmetric matrix.  
Then  $C$  is diagonalizable. In addition,

$$C = P^{-1} D P$$

where  $D$  is a diagonal matrix and  $P$  is unitary.

Note : The diagonal elements  $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\}$  of  $D$   
are the eigenvalues of  $C$

- $C$  has orthonormal eigenvectors  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$   
that are a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Diagonalization of Real Symmetric Matrices

**Theorem 2.** Let  $T \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $W$  be the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose that  $Mtx_W(T)$  is symmetric. Then the eigenvectors of  $T$  are all real, and there is an orthonormal basis  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  consisting of eigenvectors of  $T$ , so that  $Mtx_W(T)$  is diagonalizable:

$$\text{C- } Mtx_W(T) = \underbrace{Mtx_{W,V}(id)}_{\text{unitary}} \cdot \underbrace{Mtx_V(T)}_{\text{diagonal}} \cdot \underbrace{Mtx_{V,W}(id)}_{\text{unitary}}$$

where  $Mtx_V T$  is diagonal and the change of basis matrices  $Mtx_{V,W}(id)$  and  $Mtx_{W,V}(id)$  are unitary.

The proof of the theorem requires a lengthy digression into the linear algebra of complex vector spaces. A brief outline is in the notes.

# Quadratic Forms

**Example:** Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) = \alpha x_1^2 + \beta x_1 x_2 + \gamma x_2^2$$

Let

write as  $f(x) = x^T A x$ ,  $A$  symmetric

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \frac{\beta}{2} \\ \frac{\beta}{2} & \gamma \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x^T A x = (x_1 \ x_2) \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

so  $A$  is symmetric and

$$\begin{aligned}x^\top Ax &= (x_1, x_2) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \frac{\beta}{2} \\ \frac{\beta}{2} & \gamma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \\&= (x_1, x_2) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha x_1 + \frac{\beta}{2} x_2 \\ \frac{\beta}{2} x_1 + \gamma x_2 \end{pmatrix} \\&= \alpha x_1^2 + \beta x_1 x_2 + \gamma x_2^2 \\&= f(x)\end{aligned}$$

Notice  $f(0) = 0$ .

Can we determine anything about  
 $f(x)$  for  $x \neq 0$ ?

e.g.  $f(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$ ?

easy if  $\beta = 0 \dots$



# Quadratic Forms

general form:

Consider a quadratic form :

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i < j} \beta_{ij} x_i x_j \quad (1)$$

Let

$$\alpha_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta_{ij}}{2} & \text{if } i < j \quad \leftarrow \text{above diagonal} \\ \frac{\beta_{ji}}{2} & \text{if } i > j \quad \leftarrow \text{below diagonal} \end{cases}$$

Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \cdots & \alpha_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{n1} & \cdots & \alpha_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{so } f(x) = x^T A x$$

$\uparrow$   
real symmetric

# Quadratic Forms

$A$  is symmetric, so let  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of  $A$  with corresponding eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ .

$$\text{Then } A = U^\top D U \quad = \quad U^{-1} D U$$

$$\text{where } D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$U^{-1}$  and  $U = \text{Mtx}_{V,W}(\text{id})$  is unitary

The columns of  $U^\top$  (the rows of  $U$ ) are the coordinates of  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ , expressed in terms of the standard basis  $W$ . Given  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , recall

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i v_i \text{ where } \gamma_i = x \cdot v_i$$

# Quadratic Forms

So

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= f\left(\sum \gamma_i v_i\right) \\
 &= \left(\sum \gamma_i v_i\right)^\top A \left(\sum \gamma_i v_i\right) = \cancel{x}^\top A \cancel{x} \\
 &= \left(\sum \gamma_i v_i\right)^\top U^\top D U \left(\sum \gamma_i v_i\right) \\
 &= \left(U \sum \gamma_i v_i\right)^\top D \left(U \sum \gamma_i v_i\right) \quad ((EF)^\top = F^\top E^\top) \\
 &= \left(\sum \gamma_i U v_i\right)^\top D \left(\sum \gamma_i U v_i\right) \quad (U \text{ linear}) \\
 &= (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n) D \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_1 \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \leftarrow U \text{ is change of basis from } w \text{ to } v \Rightarrow \\
 &= \sum \lambda_i \gamma_i^2 \quad \text{for } U v_i = e_i = (0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots)
 \end{aligned}$$

$\uparrow$   
 eigenvalues  
 of  $A$

$14 \quad \text{ord}_V(v_i)$

# Quadratic Forms

The equation for a level set of  $f$  is

$$\{\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(\gamma) = C\} = \left\{ \gamma \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \gamma_i^2 = C \right\} \quad C \in \mathbb{R}$$

- If  $\lambda_i \geq 0$  for all  $i$ , the level set is an ellipsoid, with principal axes in the directions  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ . The length of the principal axis along  $v_i$  is  $\sqrt{C/\lambda_i}$  if  $C \geq 0$  (if  $\lambda_i = 0$ , the level set is a degenerate ellipsoid with principal axis of infinite length in that direction). The level set is empty if  $C < 0$ .

$\Rightarrow f$  has global min at 0,  $f(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$

- If  $\lambda_i \leq 0$  for all  $i$ , the level set is an ellipsoid, with principal axes in the directions  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ . The length of the principal

$\Rightarrow f$  has global max at 0,  $f(x) \leq 0 \quad \forall x$

axis along  $v_i$  is  $\sqrt{|C|/\lambda_i}$  if  $C \leq 0$  (if  $\lambda_i = 0$ , the level set is a degenerate ellipsoid with principal axis of infinite length in that direction). The level set is empty if  $C > 0$ .

- If  $\lambda_i > 0$  for some  $i$  and  $\lambda_j < 0$  for some  $j$ , the level set is a hyperboloid. For example, suppose  $n = 2$ ,  $\lambda_1 > 0$ ,  $\lambda_2 < 0$ . The equation is

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \lambda_1 \gamma_1^2 + \lambda_2 \gamma_2^2 \\ &= \left( \sqrt{\lambda_1} \gamma_1 + \sqrt{|\lambda_2|} \gamma_2 \right) \left( \sqrt{\lambda_1} \gamma_1 - \sqrt{|\lambda_2|} \gamma_2 \right) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow f$  has a saddle point at 0  
 min with respect to  $v_i$   
 max with respect to  $v_j$

This is a hyperbola with asymptotes

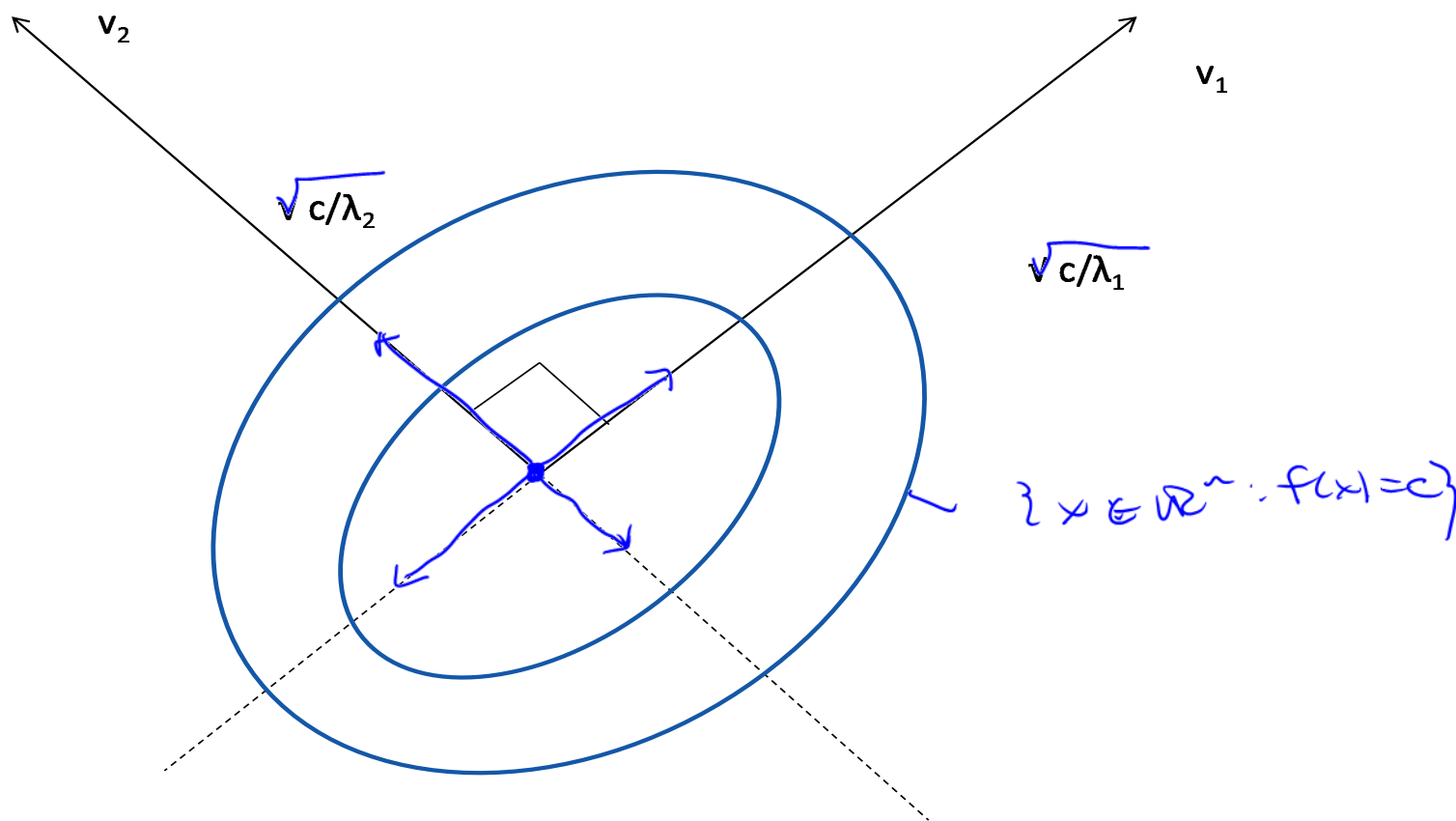
$$0 = \sqrt{\lambda_1}\gamma_1 + \sqrt{|\lambda_2|}\gamma_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_1 = -\sqrt{\frac{|\lambda_2|}{\lambda_1}}\gamma_2$$

$$0 = \left( \sqrt{\lambda_1}\gamma_1 - \sqrt{|\lambda_2|}\gamma_2 \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_1 = \sqrt{\frac{|\lambda_2|}{\lambda_1}}\gamma_2$$

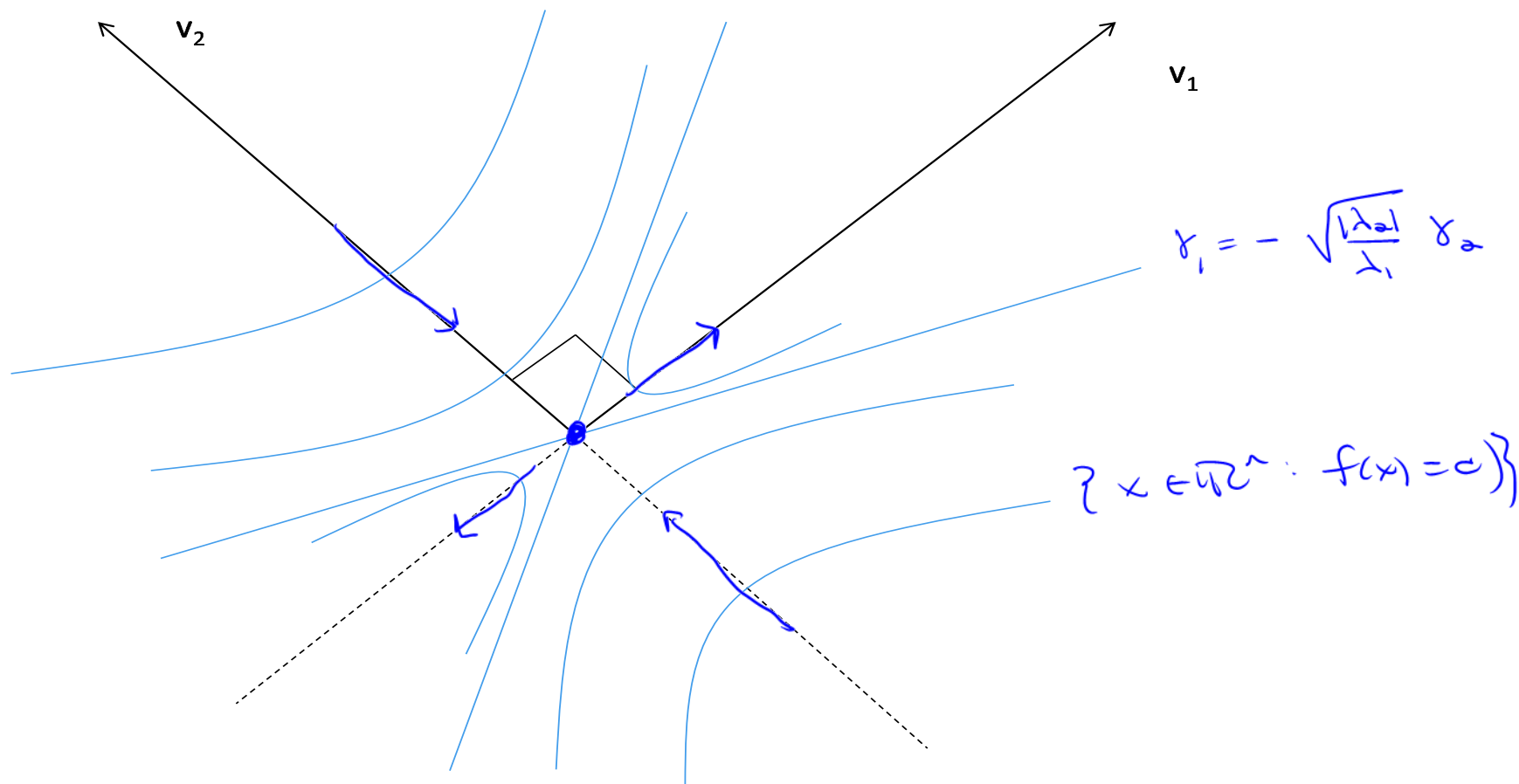
$$\lambda_1 > 0, \lambda_2 > 0$$



$f$  has a global min at 0

$$\lambda_1 > 0, \lambda_2 < 0$$

$$v_1 = \sqrt{|\lambda_2|/\lambda_1} \gamma_2$$



$f$  has a saddle point at 0



# Quadratic Forms

This proves the following corollary of Theorem 2.

**Corollary 1.** Consider the quadratic form (1). Let  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of  $A$  with corresponding eigenvalues  $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\}$ .

1.  $f$  has a global minimum at 0 if and only if  $\lambda_i \geq 0$  for all  $i$ ; the level sets of  $f$  are ellipsoids with principal axes aligned with the orthonormal eigenvectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ .
2.  $f$  has a global maximum at 0 if and only if  $\lambda_i \leq 0$  for all  $i$ ; the level sets of  $f$  are ellipsoids with principal axes aligned with the orthonormal eigenvectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ .

3. *If  $\lambda_i < 0$  for some  $i$  and  $\lambda_j > 0$  for some  $j$ , then  $f$  has a saddle point at  $0$ ; the level sets of  $f$  are hyperboloids with principal axes aligned with the orthonormal eigenvectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ .*

## Bounded Linear Maps

over  $\mathbb{R}$

**Definition 3.** Suppose  $X, Y$  are normed vector spaces and  $T \in L(X, Y)$ . We say  $T$  is bounded if

$$\exists \beta \in \mathbf{R} \text{ s.t. } \|T(x)\|_Y \leq \beta \|x\|_X \quad \forall x \in X$$

Note this implies that  $T$  is Lipschitz with constant  $\beta$ .

why not previous notion of bounded:

$$\exists B \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } \|T(x)\| \leq B \quad \forall x ??$$

$$T(\alpha x) = \alpha T(x) \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|T(\alpha x)\| = |\alpha| \|T(x)\| \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$

# Bounded Linear Maps

Much more is true:

**Theorem 3** (Thms. 4.1, 4.3). *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be normed vector spaces and  $T \in L(X, Y)$ . Then*

- $T$  is continuous at some point  $x_0 \in X$*
- $\iff$   *$T$  is continuous at every  $x \in X$*
- $\iff$   *$T$  is uniformly continuous on  $X$*
- $\iff$   *$T$  is Lipschitz*
- $\iff$   *$T$  is bounded*

*Proof.* Suppose  $T$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\|z - x_0\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|T(z) - T(x_0)\| < \varepsilon$$

Now suppose  $x$  is any element of  $X$ . If  $\|y - x\| < \delta$ , let  $z =$   
 $\underbrace{y - x + x_0}_{z - x_0 = y - x}$ , so  $\|z - x_0\| = \|y - x\| < \delta$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \|T(y) - T(x)\| \\
 &= \|T(y - x)\| && (T \text{ linear}) \\
 &= \|T(y - x + x_0 - x_0)\| && = \|T(z - x_0)\| \\
 &= \|T(z) - T(x_0)\| && (T \text{ linear}) \\
 &< \varepsilon
 \end{aligned}$$

which proves that  $T$  is continuous at every  $x$ , and uniformly continuous.

We claim that  $T$  is bounded if and only if  $T$  is continuous at 0. Suppose  $T$  is not bounded. Then

$$\exists \{x_n\} \text{ s.t. } \|T(x_n)\| > n\|x_n\| \quad \forall n$$

Note that  $x_n \neq 0$ . Let  $\varepsilon = 1$ . Fix  $\delta > 0$  and choose  $n$  such that  $\frac{1}{n} < \delta$ . Let

$$x'_n = \frac{x_n}{n\|x_n\|} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{x_n}{\|x_n\|}$$

$$\|x'_n - 0\| = \|x'_n\| = \frac{\|x_n\|}{n\|x_n\|}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} < \delta$$

$$\|T(x'_n) - T(0)\| = \|T(x'_n)\| = \frac{1}{n\|x_n\|} \|T(x_n)\|$$

$$> \frac{n\|x_n\|}{n\|x_n\|}$$

$$= 1$$

$$= \varepsilon$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(x'_n) &= T\left(\frac{x_n}{n\|x_n\|}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n\|x_n\|} T(x_n) \end{aligned}$$

(defn of  $x'_n$  +  
T linear)

(defn of  $x_n$ )

Since this is true for every  $\delta$ ,  $T$  is not continuous at 0. Therefore,  $T$  continuous at 0 implies  $T$  is bounded. Now, suppose  $T$  is bounded, so find  $M$  such that  $\|T(x)\| \leq M\|x\|$  for every  $x \in X$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta = \varepsilon/M$ . Then

$$\|x - 0\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|x\| < \delta$$

$$\Rightarrow \|T(x) - T(0)\| = \|T(x)\| < M\delta \quad (\text{defn of } M)$$

$$\Rightarrow \|T(x) - T(0)\| < \varepsilon = M\delta$$

so  $T$  is continuous at 0.

$$\|T(x)\| \leq M\|x\| < M\delta$$

since  $\|x\| < \delta$

Thus, we have shown that continuity at some point  $x_0$  implies uniform continuity, which implies continuity at every point, which implies  $T$  is continuous at 0, which implies that  $T$  is bounded, which implies that  $T$  is continuous at 0, which implies that  $T$  is

continuous at some  $x_0$ , so all of the statements except possibly the Lipschitz statement are equivalent.

Suppose  $T$  is bounded, with constant  $M$ .<sup>70</sup> Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|T(x) - T(y)\| &= \|T(x - y)\| && (T \text{ linear}) \\ &\leq M\|x - y\| \end{aligned}$$

so  $T$  is Lipschitz with constant  $M$ ; conversely, if  $T$  is Lipschitz with constant  $M$ , then  $T$  is bounded with constant  $M$ . So all the statements are equivalent.  $\square$

$$\forall x \in X: \|T(x) - T(0)\| = \|T(x)\| \leq M\|x - 0\| = M\|x\|$$



# Bounded Linear Maps

Every linear map on a finite-dimensional normed vector space is bounded (and thus continuous, uniformly continuous, and Lipschitz continuous).

**Theorem 4** (Thm. 4.5). *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be normed vector spaces, with  $\dim X = n$ . Every  $T \in L(X, Y)$  is bounded.*

*2  
n ∈ ℕ*

*Proof.* See de la Fuente.



# Topological Isomorphism

**Definition 4.** A topological isomorphism *between normed vector spaces  $X$  and  $Y$*  is a linear transformation  $T \in L(X, Y)$  that is invertible (one-to-one, onto), continuous, and has a continuous inverse.

*Two normed vector spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  are topologically isomorphic if there is a topological isomorphism  $T : X \rightarrow Y$ .*

# The Space $B(X, Y)$

$$\exists \beta > 0 \text{ s.t.} \\ \|T(x)\| \leq \beta \|x\| \quad \forall x$$

Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are normed vector spaces. We define

$$\begin{aligned} B(X, Y) &= \{T \in L(X, Y) : T \text{ is bounded}\} \\ \|T\|_{B(X, Y)} &= \sup \left\{ \frac{\|T(x)\|_Y}{\|x\|_X}, x \in X, x \neq 0 \right\} \\ &= \sup \{\|T(x)\|_Y : \|x\|_X = 1\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\|T(x)\|}{\|x\|} \leq \beta \quad \forall x \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \|T(x)\| \leq \|T\| \|x\| \quad \text{by defn.}$$

We skip the proofs of the rest of these results – read dIF.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\|T(x)\|}{\|x\|} &= \frac{1}{\|x\|} \|T(x)\| \\ &= \left\| \frac{1}{\|x\|} T(x) \right\| \\ &= \left\| T\left(\frac{x}{\|x\|}\right) \right\| \end{aligned}$$

## The Space $B(X, Y)$

**Theorem 5** (Thm. 4.8). *Let  $X, Y$  be normed vector spaces. Then*

$$\left( B(X, Y), \|\cdot\|_{B(X, Y)} \right)$$

*is a normed vector space.*

## The Space $B(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^m)$

**Theorem 6** (Thm. 4.9). *Let  $T \in L(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^m)$  ( $= B(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^m)$ ) with matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$  with respect to the standard bases. Let*

$$M = \max\{|a_{ij}| : 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$$

*Then*

$$M \leq \|T\| \leq M\sqrt{mn}$$

.

# Compositions

**Theorem 7** (Thm. 4.10). *Let  $R \in L(\mathbf{R}^m, \mathbf{R}^n)$  and  $S \in L(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^p)$ .  
Then*

$$\|S \circ R\| \leq \|S\| \|R\|$$

# Invertibility

Define  $\Omega(\mathbf{R}^n) = \{T \in L(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^n) : T \text{ is invertible}\}$

**Theorem 8** (Thm. 4.11'). *Suppose  $T \in L(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^n)$  and  $E$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . Then*

*$T$  is invertible*

$$\iff \ker T = \{0\}$$

$$\iff \det(Mtx_E(T)) \neq 0$$

$$\iff \det(Mtx_{V,V}(T)) \neq 0 \text{ for every basis } V$$

$$\iff \det(Mtx_{V,W}(T)) \neq 0 \text{ for every pair of bases } V, W$$

## Invertibility

**Theorem 9** (Thm. 4.12). *If  $S, T \in \Omega(\mathbf{R}^n)$ , then  $S \circ T \in \Omega(\mathbf{R}^n)$  and*

$$(S \circ T)^{-1} = T^{-1} \circ S^{-1}$$



## Invertibility

**Theorem 10** (Thm. 4.14). *Let  $S, T \in L(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^n)$ . If  $T$  is invertible and*

$$\|T - S\| < \frac{1}{\|T^{-1}\|}$$

*then  $S$  is invertible. In particular,  $\Omega(\mathbf{R}^n)$  is open in  $L(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^n) = B(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^n)$ .*

**Theorem 11** (Thm. 4.15). *The function  $(\cdot)^{-1} : \Omega(\mathbf{R}^n) \rightarrow \Omega(\mathbf{R}^n)$  that assigns  $T^{-1}$  to each  $T \in \Omega(\mathbf{R}^n)$  is continuous.*