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Chapter 0

Sample Chapter

`chapter:00`

0.1 Some recomendations

`sec:1:recomendaciones`

- Please use the environments `theorem`, `corollary`, `proposition` etc. and `proof`.
- In definitions, use `define{}` for what you want to define.
- For labels, please use the following conventions:
 - `\label{chapter:1}` for chapters
 - `\label{sec:1}` for sections
 - `\label{thm:number-of-chapter:something}` for theorems,
 - `\label{lem:number-of-chapter:something}` for lemmas,
 - `\label{prop:number-of-chapter:something}` for propositions
 - `\label{cor:number-of-chapter:something}` for corollaries
 - `\label{eq:number-of-chapter:something}` for equations
- If you refer to a formula, use `eqref{}`. If you refer to something in an enumerated list, use `enumiref{}`.
- Do not use `eqnarray`. Use `equation`, `align` `gather`, etc. (see, e.g., [amsl doc.pdf](#)).
- Use `\index` when appropriate.
- `\commentbox{}` may be useful. It takes as an optional argument colors.
- In proofs, you may want to use `\proofenumerate{}` instead of `\enumerate{}`.
- Use `\I` for the imaginary unit and `\e` for e .

Important comment!

Comment in teal!

Comment in cyan!

Comment in violet!

Comment in purple!

Comment in red!

- Use `\rd` to produce `d` in integrals:

$$\int_0^1 f(tz + (1-t)z_1) dt.$$
- Never ever use i as index in sums etc.
- Use punctuation in formulas.

0.2 Dictionary

`sec:dictionary`

	[AI89]	[Bog74]
V vector space	\mathcal{F}	\mathfrak{E}
linear subspace	lineal	
closed linear subspace	subspace	
$[\cdot, \cdot]$ indefinite inner product	$[\cdot, \cdot]$	$[\cdot, \cdot]$
$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ Hilbert space inner product	(\cdot, \cdot)	(\cdot, \cdot)
x is positive, $\langle x, x \rangle > 0$	strictly positive	positive
x is nonnegative, $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$	positive	nonnegative
x is negative, $\langle x, x \rangle < 0$	strictly negative	nonpositive
x is nonpositive, $\langle x, x \rangle \leq 0$	negative	nonpositive
$\mathcal{P}^{++} = \{x \in V : \langle x, x \rangle > 0\}$	\mathcal{P}^{++}	\mathfrak{P}^{++}
$\mathcal{P}^+ = \{x \in V : \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0\}$	\mathcal{P}^+	\mathfrak{P}^+
$\mathcal{P}^{--} = \{x \in V : \langle x, x \rangle < 0\}$	\mathcal{P}^{--}	\mathfrak{P}^{--}
$\mathcal{P}^- = \{x \in V : \langle x, x \rangle \leq 0\}$	\mathcal{P}^-	\mathfrak{P}^-
$\mathcal{P}^{00} = \{x \in V : \langle x, x \rangle = 0\}$	\mathcal{P}^{00}	\mathfrak{P}^{00}
$\mathcal{P}^0 = \{x \in V : \langle x, x \rangle \leq 0\}$	\mathcal{P}^0	\mathfrak{P}^0
\perp orthogonal in Hilbert space		
$[\perp]$ Q -orthogonal in inner product space		
$+$ algebraic sum: $U + V = \{u + v : u \in U, v \in V\}$		
$\dot{+}$ direct sum <code>\dplus</code> : $U \dot{+} V = U + V$ if $U \cap V = \emptyset$		
\oplus Hilbert space orthogonal sum: $U \oplus V = U + V$ if $U \perp V$		
$\dot{+}$ inner product space orthogonal sum <code>\operp</code> : $U \dot{+} V = U + V$ if $U [\perp] V$		
\square inner product space orthogonal sum <code>\dperp</code> : $U \square V = U + V$ if $U [\perp] V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$		

Chapter 1

Linear spaces with indefinite metric

chapter:01

Usually we denote vector spaces without any additional structure by V , and we assume all vector spaces to be complex vector spaces.

1.1 Bounded Hermitian forms

Definition 1.1. Let V be a complex vector space. A mapping $Q : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a *hermitian sesquilinear form* on V if for all $x, y, z \in V$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$

- (i) $Q(\alpha x + y, z) = \alpha Q(x, z) + Q(y, z)$ (linearity in the first component),
- (ii) $Q(x, z) = \overline{Q(z, x)}$ (symmetry)

We often write $[x, y]$ instead of $Q(x, y)$ if it is clear which form Q is considered.

Clearly, a hermitian sesquilinear form satisfies

$$Q(x, \alpha y + z) = \overline{\alpha} Q(x, y) + Q(x, z), \quad x, y, z \in V, \alpha \in \mathbb{C}.$$

An *inner product space* $(V, [,])$ is a vector space V with a sesquilinear form $[,]$. Clearly, if V is vector space with inner product $[,]$ and U is a subspace of V , then $(U, [,])|_{U \times U}$ is again an inner product space, usually denoted by $(U, [,])$ or simply U .

Example 1.2. (i) Let $V = \mathbb{C}^2$ and define the inner product

$$V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad \left[\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right] = x_1 \overline{y_1} - x_2 \overline{y_2}.$$

(ii) Let $V = \mathbb{C}^2$ and define the inner product

$$V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad \left[\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right] = x_1 \overline{y_2} + x_2 \overline{y_1}.$$

Example 1.3. Examples 1.1 and 1.2. from [AI89].

Definition 1.4. Let $[\cdot, \cdot]$ be a sesquilinear form on a vector space V and let $x \in V$.

- x is called *positive* if $[x, x] > 0$,
- x is called *non-negative* if $[x, x] \geq 0$,
- x is called *negative* if $[x, x] < 0$,
- x is called *non-positive* if $[x, x] \leq 0$,
- x is called *neutral* if $[x, x] = 0$.

Observe that $[x, x] = 0$ if $x = 0$, but the reverse is in general not true.

Definition 1.5. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an inner product space. Then $(V, -[\cdot, \cdot])$ is called its *antispace*.

Definition 1.6. Let V be a vector space with hermitian sesquilinear form $[\cdot, \cdot]$. We define the following sets:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{P}^{++}(V) &:= \{x \in V : [x, x] > 0\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^+(V) &:= \{x \in V : [x, x] \geq 0\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^{--}(V) &:= \{x \in V : [x, x] < 0\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^-(V) &:= \{x \in V : [x, x] \leq 0\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^{00}(V) &:= \{x \in V : x \neq 0, [x, x] = 0\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^0(V) &:= \{x \in V : [x, x] = 0\}.\end{aligned}$$

If the underlying space V is clear, we sometimes write $\mathcal{P}^{++}, \mathcal{P}^+, \mathcal{P}^{--}, \mathcal{P}^-, \mathcal{P}^{00}$ and \mathcal{P}^0 instead of $\mathcal{P}^{++}(V), \mathcal{P}^+(V), \mathcal{P}^{--}(V), \mathcal{P}^-(V), \mathcal{P}^{00}(V)$ and $\mathcal{P}^0(V)$.

Clearly $\mathcal{P}^+ = \mathcal{P}^{++} \cup \mathcal{P}^0$, $\mathcal{P}^- = \mathcal{P}^{--} \cup \mathcal{P}^0$ and $\mathcal{P}^0 = \mathcal{P}^+ \cap \mathcal{P}^-$. Moreover, if $x \in \mathcal{P}^{++}$, then $\alpha x \in \mathcal{P}^{++}$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$. The same is true for the other sets defined above.

Example 1.7. • Example 1.2(i) :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{P}^{++} &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : |x_1| > |x_2|\}, & \mathcal{P}^+ &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : |x_1| \geq |x_2|\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^{--} &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : |x_1| < |x_2|\}, & \mathcal{P}^- &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : |x_1| \leq |x_2|\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^0 &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : |x_1| = |x_2|\}.\end{aligned}$$

• Example 1.2(ii) :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{P}^{++} &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : \operatorname{Re}(x_1 \bar{x}_2) > 0\}, & \mathcal{P}^+ &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : \operatorname{Re}(x_1 \bar{x}_2) \geq 0\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^{--} &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : \operatorname{Re}(x_1 \bar{x}_2) < 0\}, & \mathcal{P}^- &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : \operatorname{Re}(x_1 \bar{x}_2) \leq 0\}, \\ \mathcal{P}^0 &= \{(x_1, x_2)^t : \operatorname{Re}(x_1 \bar{x}_2) = 0\}.\end{aligned}$$

def:mP **Definition 1.8.** . Let V be a vector space with hermitian sesquilinear form $[\cdot, \cdot]$ and let $U \subseteq V$ be a subspace.

- U is *positive* if $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^{++} \cup \{0\}$,
- U is *non-negative* if $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^+$,
- U is *negative* if $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^{--} \cup \{0\}$,
- U is *non-positive* if $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^-$,
- U is *semidefinite* if $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^+$ or $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^-$,
- U is *definite* if $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^{++} \cup \{0\}$ or $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^{--} \cup \{0\}$,
- U is *neutral* if $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}^0$,

The sesquilinear form $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is *positive*, *non-negative*, *etc.* if V is *positive*, *non-negative*, *etc.*. The sesquilinear form $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is called *indefinite* if it is not semidefinite.

Clearly, a neutral subspace is semidefinite. It is both non-negative and non-positive.

Note that \mathcal{P}^{++} and \mathcal{P}^{--} are not vector spaces (they do not contain 0). Next we show that if $\mathcal{P}^{++} \neq \emptyset$, then the span of $\mathcal{P}^{++} \cup \{0\}$ is all of V , in particular, in general the sets \mathcal{P}^+ and \mathcal{P}^- are not vector spaces too. Note however that \mathcal{P}^0 is a vector space, see Corollary 1.12.

Proposition 1.9. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an inner product space and let $x \in V$ with $[x, x] > 0$. Then every element of V is the sum of two positive vectors.

Clearly a similar statement is true if there exists $x \in V$ with $[x, x] < 0$.

Proof. Let $x \in V$ such that $[x, x] > 0$ and fix $z \in V$. Then we can choose $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ large enough such that

$$[z + \alpha x, z + \alpha x] = [z, z] + 2\alpha \operatorname{Re}[z, x] + \alpha^2[x, x] > 0.$$

Then $z = (z + \alpha x) + (-\alpha x)$ with $z + \alpha x, -\alpha x \in \mathcal{P}^{++}$. □

Proposition 1.10. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an inner product space. If $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is indefinite, then there exists $x \neq 0$ such that $[x, x] = 0$.

Proof. Let $y, z \in H$ such that $[y, y] > 0$ and $[z, z] < 0$. Clearly, y and z are linearly independent. Consider the continuous map $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(t) = [(1-t)y + tz, (1-t)y + tz]$. Since $f(0) > 0$ and $f(1) < 0$, there exists $t_0 \in (0, 1)$ such that $f(t_0) = 0$ and $x = (1-t_0)y + t_0z \neq 0$ does the job. □

Proposition 1.11 (Cauchy-Schwarz-Bunyakovski inequality). Let $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ be a semidefinite inner product space. Then for all $x, y \in V$

$$|\langle x, y \rangle|^2 \leq \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle. \tag{1.1} \text{eq:CSB}}$$

Proof. Without restriction we may assume that $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is non-negative. Observe that for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$

$$0 \leq [x - \alpha y, x - \alpha y] = [x, x] - 2 \operatorname{Re}(\alpha [x, y]) + \alpha^2 [y, y].$$

If $[x, x] = [y, y] = 0$, then clearly $[x, y] = 0$, otherwise the choice $\alpha = 2[x, y]^{-1}$ would lead to a contradiction. Now assume that at least one of the vectors x, y is not neutral, without restriction let $[y, y] > 0$. Choose $\alpha = \frac{[x, y]}{[y, y]}$. Then the above inequality gives

$$0 \leq [x, x] - 2 \frac{|[x, y]|^2}{[y, y]} + \frac{|[x, y]|^2}{[y, y]} = [x, x] - \frac{|[x, y]|^2}{[y, y]}.$$

Multiplication by $[y, y]$ completes the proof. \square

cor:1:P0 **Corollary 1.12.** $\mathcal{P}^0(V)$ is a subspace of V .

1.2 Orthogonality and isotropic subspaces

Definition 1.13. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an inner product space. We write $x[\perp]y$ if and only if $[x, y] = 0$. In this case x and y are called Q -orthogonal.

Let $M \subset V$ be a set. Then $x[\perp]M$ if and only if $x[\perp]y$ for all $y \in M$ and

$$M^{[\perp]} := \{x \in V : x[\perp]y \text{ for all } y \in M\}$$

is called the *orthogonal complement* of M . We set $M \subset M^{[\perp][\perp]} := (M \subset M^{[\perp]})^{[\perp]}$.

Remark 1.14. Let $x, y \in V$ and let $M, N \subset V$.

- (i) $x[\perp]y \iff y[\perp]x$.
- (ii) Then $M^{[\perp]}$ is a linear subspace of V .
- (iii) $M \subset M^{[\perp][\perp]}$.
- (iv) If $N \subset M$, then $M^{[\perp]} \subset N^{[\perp]}$.
- (v) $M^{[\perp]} \cap N^{[\perp]} \subset (M \cup N)^{[\perp]}$.
- (vi) $M^{[\perp]} + N^{[\perp]} \subset (M \cap N)^{[\perp]}$.
- (vii) If U, W are linear subspaces of V , then $U^{[\perp]} + NW[\perp] = (U \cap W)^{[\perp]}$.

Remark 1.15. Let $U \subset V$ be a subspace of V . In general $V + V^{[\perp]} \neq V$, even if V is closed, and $U \cap U^{[\perp]}$ may occur. For instance, let V as in example 1.2 i and let $U = \{(1, 1)^t\} \subset V$. Then $U^{[\perp]} = U$.

Definition 1.16. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an inner product space. A vector $x \in V, x \neq 0$, is called *isotropic* if $x[\perp]V$. If $U \subset V$, then a vector $x \in U, x \neq 0$, is called *isotropic for U* if $x[\perp]U$.

Clearly, linear combinations of isotropic vectors are again isotropic and a vector x is isotropic for a subspace U if and only if $x \in U \cap U^{[\perp]} \setminus \{0\}$.

Definition 1.17. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an inner product space and $U \subset V$ a linear subspace. Then $U^0 := U \cap U^{[\perp]}$ is called the *isotropic part of U* . The subspace U is called *degenerate* if $U^0 = \{0\}$, otherwise it is called *non-degenerate*.

Observe that by the Cauchy-Schwarz-Bunyakovski inequality $V^0 = \mathcal{P}^0(V)$ if the inner product is semidefinite.

Definition 1.18. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an indefinite inner product space. A subspace U is called *maximal positive* if it is a positive subspace of V and for every positive subspace $W \subset V$ with UW it follows that $U = W$. The definition of *maximal non-negative, maximal negative, maximal non-positive, maximal neutral, maximal non-degenerate subspace* is analogous.

Theorem 1.19. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an indefinite inner product space and $U \subset V$ a positive subspace. Then U is contained in a maximal positive subspace. Analogous statements are true for non-negative, negative, non-positive, neutral, non-degenerate subspace subspaces.

Proof. Zorn. See [AI89, Theorem 1.19]. □

1.3 Decomposition of subspaces

Definition 1.20. Let $(V, [\cdot, \cdot])$ be an inner product space. We write $x[\perp]y$ if and only if $[x, y] = 0$. In this case x and y are called *Q -orthogonal*. Let $M \subset V$ be a set. Then $x[\perp]M$ if and only if $x[\perp]y$ for all $y \in M$ and

$$M^{[\perp]} := \{x \in V : x[\perp]y \text{ for all } y \in M\}$$

is called the *orthogonal complement of M* . We set $M \subset M^{[\perp][\perp]} := (M \subset M^{[\perp]})^{[\perp]}$.

Remark 1.21. Let $x, y \in V$ and let $M, N \subset V$.

- (i) $x[\perp]y \iff y[\perp]x$.
- (ii) Then $M^{[\perp]}$ is a linear subspace of V .
- (iii) $M \subset M^{[\perp][\perp]}$.
- (iv) If $N \subset M$, then $M^{[\perp]} \subset N^{[\perp]}$.

- (v) $M^{[\perp]} \cap N^{[\perp]} \subset (M \cup N)^{[\perp]}$.
- (vi) $M^{[\perp]} + N^{[\perp]} \subset (M \cap N)^{[\perp]}$.
- (vii) If U, W are linear subspaces of V , then $U^{[\perp]} + W^{[\perp]} = (U \cap W)^{[\perp]}$.

Remark 1.22. Let $U \subset V$ be a subspace of V . In general $V + V^{[\perp]} \neq V$, even if V is closed, and $U \cap U^{[\perp]}$ may occur. For instance, let V as in example 1.2 i and let $U = \{(1, 1)^t\} \subset V$. Then $U^{[\perp]} = U$.

Definition 1.23. Let $(V, [,])$ be an inner product space. A vector $x \in V, x \neq 0$, is called *isotropic* if $x[\perp]V$. If $U \subset V$, then a vector $x \in U, x \neq 0$, is called *isotropic for U* if $x[\perp]U$.

Clearly, linear combinations of isotropic vectors are again isotropic and a vector x is isotropic for a subspace U if and only if $x \in U \cap U^{[\perp]} \setminus \{0\}$.

Definition 1.24. Let $(V, [,])$ be an inner product space and $U \subset V$ a linear subspace. Then $U^0 := U \cap U^{[\perp]}$ is called the *isotropic part of U* . The subspace U is called *degenerate* if $U^0 = \{0\}$, otherwise it is called *non-degenerate*.

Observe that by the Cauchy-Schwarz-Bunyakovski inequality $V^0 = \mathcal{P}^0(V)$ if the inner product is semidefinite.

Definition 1.25. Let $(V, [,])$ be an indefinite inner product space. A subspace U is called *maximal positive* if it is a positive subspace of V and for every positive subspace $W \subset V$ with UW it follows that $U = W$. The definition of *maximal non-negative, maximal negative, maximal non-positive, maximal neutral, maximal non-degenerate subspace* is analogous.

Theorem 1.26. *Let $(V, [,])$ be an indefinite inner product space and $U \subset V$ a positive subspace. Then U is contained in a maximal positive subspace. Analogous statements are true for non-negative, negative, non-positive, neutral, non-degenerate subspace subspaces.*

Proof. Zorn. See [AI89, Theorem 1.19]. □

1.4 Quotient spaces

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