

Lecture 13

Let $A(\beta)$ be a $n \times n$ real analytic self-adjoint

family of matrices for β in some region $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$.

We have shown that there are s functions $\lambda_1(\beta), \dots, \lambda_s(\beta)$, $1 \leq s \leq n$, that represent the eigenvalues of $A(\beta)$. Away

from a discrete set $D \subset \Omega$, the $\lambda_i(\beta)$'s are analytic, and at points d of D , the $\lambda_i(\beta)$'s have at worst

algebraic singularities. At real points $d \in D$, the

$\lambda_i(\beta)$'s are analytic: Hence the $\lambda_i(\beta)$'s are real analytic

functions on $L = \Omega \cap \mathbb{R}$. For $\beta \in \Omega \setminus D$, $\lambda_i(\beta) \neq \lambda_j(\beta)$ for $i \neq j$. But for $\beta \in D$, $\lambda_i(\beta) = \lambda_j(\beta)$ for some $i \neq j$, in other words the points of D where $A(\beta)$ has eigenvalues with multiplicity > 1 .

Now, what about the eigenvectors of $A(\beta)$?

Consider, for example, $A(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \beta \\ \beta & 1+\beta \end{pmatrix}$ which

has eigenvalues $\lambda_{\pm}(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} (1+\beta \pm \sqrt{(1+\beta)^2 + 4\beta^2})$. The eigenvalues are simple as long as $\beta \neq \frac{1}{(\pm 2i - 1)}$. In

particular $D \cap \mathbb{R} = \emptyset$ and $\lambda_{\pm}(\beta)$ are real analytic on \mathbb{R} , as they should be, and the normalized eigenvectors are

$$v_{\pm}(\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\beta^2 + \lambda_{\pm}^2(\beta)}} \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \lambda_{\pm}(\beta) \end{pmatrix}$$

which are real analytic, normalized and orthogonal.

Consider another example, $A(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \beta \\ \beta & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ with

eigenvalues $\lambda_{\pm}(\beta) = \pm\beta$ and associated eigenvectors

$v_{\pm}(\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm 1 \end{pmatrix}$ which are again real analytic, normalized

(in fact, constant here)

and orthogonal. Note that the projections onto the

eigenspaces for $\lambda_{\pm}(\beta)$ are given by

$$P_{\pm}(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

Here $D = \{\beta = 0\}$. It is important to note that not only are $\lambda_{\pm}(\beta)$ analytic at $\beta = 0$, as they should be, but also $P_{\pm}(\beta)$ are analytic $\forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. In particular

$$P_{\pm}(0) = \lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} P_{\pm}(\beta)$$

exist. But $P_{\pm}(0)$ is no longer the projection

onto the eigenspace for $\lambda_{+}(0) = 0$: the projection onto the eigenspace for $\lambda_{+}(0) = 0$ is $P_{+}(0) + P_{-}(0) = I$, as $\lambda = 0$ has multiplicity 2. The remarkable fact is that

these properties are preserved in the general $n \times n$ self-adjoint case.

We shall prove the following theorem

Theorem 180.1

Let $A(\beta)$ be a $n \times n$ real analytic self adjoint family of matrices for β in some region $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$. Let $L = \Omega \cap \mathbb{R}$.

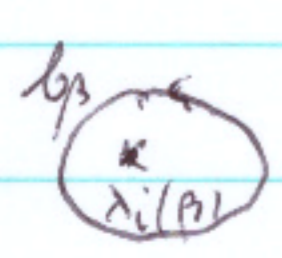
Then the eigenvalues of $A(\beta)$ are real analytic functions of $\beta \in L$ and the eigenvectors of $A(\beta)$ can be chosen to form a real analytic orthonormal basis for \mathbb{C}^n .

For any $i, 1 \leq i \leq s$, let $P_i(\beta)$ be the projection onto the eigenspace associated with $\lambda_i(\beta)$. Then

(180.2)
$$P_i(\beta) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_\beta} \frac{1}{z - A(\beta)} dz$$

where

C_β is a (small) circle centered at $\lambda_i(\beta)$ and all the other eigenvalues $\lambda_j(\beta)$ in its exterior



Now each $\lambda_i(\beta)$ is in general a branch of a multi-valued analytic function, but for $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$, and hence for β in a (narrow) strip about $\mathbb{R} \cap \Omega$, the $\lambda_i(\beta)$ are single valued analytic functions. Hence

$P_i(\beta)$ is a well defined analytic function for β in the strip, provided $\beta \notin D$. How does $P_i(\beta)$ behave as $\beta \rightarrow d \in D \cap \mathbb{R}$?

As $\beta \rightarrow d$, we have $\lim_{\beta \rightarrow d} \lambda_i(\beta) = \lim_{\beta \rightarrow d} \lambda_j(\beta) = \hat{\lambda}$

for some $j \neq i$ and so we have to make ϵ_β

small and smaller as $\beta \rightarrow d$ in order to exclude $\lambda_j(\beta)$

from the interior of ϵ_β . But as the integrand in

(180.2) is given using Cramers rule by
$$\frac{d(\beta, \beta)}{\prod_{i \neq j} (\beta - \lambda_i(\beta))^{m_i}}$$

(here m_i is the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i), $d(\beta, \beta)$ analytic,

it is clear that $P_i(\beta)$ could blow up as $|\beta - \lambda_i(\beta)| \rightarrow 0$.

The following result is basic.

Lemma 181.1 (see Kato pp 70-71)

$P_i(\beta)$ is analytic in the punctured disc $\epsilon_0 < |\beta - d| < \epsilon_1$

ϵ sufficiently small, and its Laurent expansion has only finitely many negative powers

(181.2)
$$P_i(\beta) = \frac{A_{-k}}{(\beta - d)^k} + \dots + \frac{A_{-1}}{(\beta - d)} + A_0 + A_1(\beta - d) + \dots$$

for some $0 \leq k < \infty$.

Proof: From (180.2), we have

$$\|P_i(\beta)\| \leq 2\pi \max_{z \in \mathcal{L}_\beta} \left\| \frac{1}{z - A(\beta)} \right\|$$

But as noted above $\frac{1}{z - A(\beta)} = \frac{q(z, \beta)}{\prod_i (z - \lambda_i(\beta))^{m_i}}$

and so for $z \in \mathcal{L}_\beta$, $\beta \rightarrow d$

$$(183.1) \quad \left\| \frac{1}{z - A(\beta)} \right\| \leq \frac{c}{\prod_i |z - \lambda_i(\beta)|^{m_i}}$$

for some constant $c < \infty$. Now each of the λ_i 's is

real analytic at $\beta = d$ and so $|\lambda_j(\beta) - \lambda_i(\beta)| \geq c|\beta - d|^p$

for some $p \geq 1$ for all $j \neq i$. So we choose the radius

δ of \mathcal{L}_β to be $(\beta - d)^q$, where $q > p$. This ensures

that all $\lambda_j(\beta)$, $j \neq i$, lie outside of \mathcal{L}_β . It

follows from (180.2) and (183.1) that as $\beta \rightarrow d$

$$(183.2) \quad \|P_i(\beta)\| \leq c |\beta - d|^{-(n-1)q}$$

Now $P_i(\beta)$ is already analytic in the punctured disc and (181.2) follows from (183.2) and the general theory of Laurent series. \square .

Remark 183.1

Every function $f(z)$ analytic in a punctured disk $0 < |z| < \rho$ and a Laurent series uniformly convergent in the punctured disk. In general $f(z)$ will have an infinite number of negative powers, e.g.,

$$e^{1/z} = 1 + \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{2z^2} + \dots, \quad z \neq 0$$

Now as $z \rightarrow 0$, $e^{1/z}$ blows up as $z \downarrow 0$, z real,

but goes to 0 as $z \uparrow 0$, z real. Also if $z \rightarrow 0$

along the imaginary axis, then $e^{1/z}$ oscillates and remains

bounded. The significance of the situation where

$f(z)$ has only a finite number of positive powers

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-n}}{z^n} + \dots + \frac{a_{-1}}{z} + a_0 + a_1 z + \dots, \quad k \geq 1$$

$a_{-n} \neq 0$, it then $f(z)$ blows up no matter how $z \rightarrow 0$,

Corollary to Lemma 181.1

For a self-adjoint family $A(p)$, $P_i(p)$ is analytic on $L = \Omega \cap \mathbb{R}$.

Proof: For β real, $\beta \notin D$, $P_i(\beta) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_\beta} \frac{dz}{z - A(\beta)}$

is self-adjoint. Hence $\|P_i(\beta)\| = 1$. But then

by (181.2) and Remark 183.1, we must have $k=0$, and

so $P_i(\beta)$ is an analytic function on \mathbb{R} . \square

Remark More precisely $P_i(\beta)$ extends from $L \setminus D$ to

the points d in $D \cap \mathbb{R}$, so that $P_i(\beta)$ becomes analytic

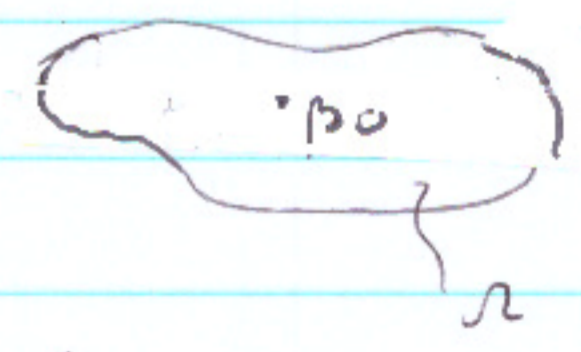
on L . Note $P_i(d) = \lim_{\beta \rightarrow d} P_i(\beta)$ is not the projection

associated with $\lambda_i(d)$: cf the example $A(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \beta \\ \beta & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ on p. 179.

Theorem 184.1 (see Kato pp. 104-106)

Suppose $A(\beta)$ is an $n \times n$ analytic self-adjoint

family, in a region $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ and suppose $\beta_0 \in \Omega$.



for all $i \in \{1, \dots, s\}$

Assume that $\{P_i(\beta)\}$, the projections onto the eigenspaces associated with $\lambda_i(\beta)$, are analytic in Ω .

Then there exists an analytic invertible matrix $U(\beta)$ such that

(184.2)

$$P_i(\beta) = U(\beta) P_i(\beta_0) U(\beta)^{-1} \text{ for all } \beta \in \Omega.$$

Proof We use the fact that

$$(185.1) \quad P_i'(\beta) P_j(\beta) = \delta_{ij} P_i(\beta)$$

which follows from the definitions of the $P_i(\beta)$'s. Also

$$(185.2) \quad \sum_{i=1}^s P_i(\beta) = I$$

$$(185.3) \quad \text{Let } Q(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^s [P_i'(\beta), P_i(\beta)]$$

where $[A, B] = AB - BA$ and $P_i'(\beta) = \frac{d}{d\beta} P_i(\beta)$

As $P_i^2(\beta) = P_i(\beta)$ we have $P_i' P_i + P_i P_i' = P_i'$

Thus $\sum_{i=1}^s P_i' P_i + \sum_{i=1}^s P_i P_i' = \sum_{i=1}^s P_i' = \frac{d}{d\beta} I = 0$

Hence

$$(185.4) \quad Q(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^s P_i'(\beta) P_i(\beta) = - \sum_{i=1}^s P_i(\beta) P_i'(\beta)$$

Let $X(\beta)$ solve

$$(185.5) \quad X'(\beta) = Q(\beta) X(\beta)$$

with initial condition $X(\beta_0)$

The solution $X(\beta)$ exists and is unique for all $\beta \in \Omega$

by the standard theory of linear ordinary differential equations.

$$(185.6) \quad \text{Now } P_i'(\beta) = [Q(\beta), P_i(\beta)] \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, s.$$

Indeed from (185.1) we have

$$P_i' P_j + P_i P_j' = \delta_{ij} P_i'$$

$$\Rightarrow P_i P_i' P_j + P_i P_j' = \delta_{ij} P_i P_i' = P_j P_i P_i'$$

$$\Rightarrow -[P_i P_i', P_j] = -P_i P_i' P_j + P_j P_i P_i' = P_i P_j'$$

Summing over i yields (185.6), by virtue of (185.2) and (185.4)

(186.1) Let $u(\beta)$ solve (185.5)
 $u' = \alpha(\beta)u$

with $u(\beta_0) = 1$. Then clearly $X(\beta) = u(\beta)X(\beta_0)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } (P_i u)' &= P_i' u + P_i u' \\ &= (P_i' + P_i \alpha) u \\ &= Q(P_i u), \quad \text{by (185.6)} \end{aligned}$$

Now $u(\beta) P_i(\beta_0)$ and $P_i(\beta) u(\beta)$

clearly solve the same differential equation as

$$\begin{aligned} u(\beta_0) P_i(\beta_0) &= P_i(\beta_0) (= X(\beta_0)) \\ \text{and } P_i(\beta_0) u(\beta_0) &= P_i(\beta_0) \end{aligned}$$

Hence by uniqueness

$$(186.2) \quad u(\beta) P_i(\beta_0) = P_i(\beta) u(\beta)$$

Let $V(\beta)$ solve

$$V'(\beta) = -V(\beta)\alpha(\beta), \quad V(\beta_0) = 1$$

$$\text{Then } (VU)' = V'u + Vu' = -V\alpha u + V\alpha u = 0$$

$$\text{Thus } V(\beta)u(\beta) = \text{const} = 1$$

$$\text{Thus } u(\beta)^{-1} \text{ exists, and equals } V(\beta)$$

The desired result (184.2) now follows from (186.2). \square

Finally we can prove Theorem 180.1

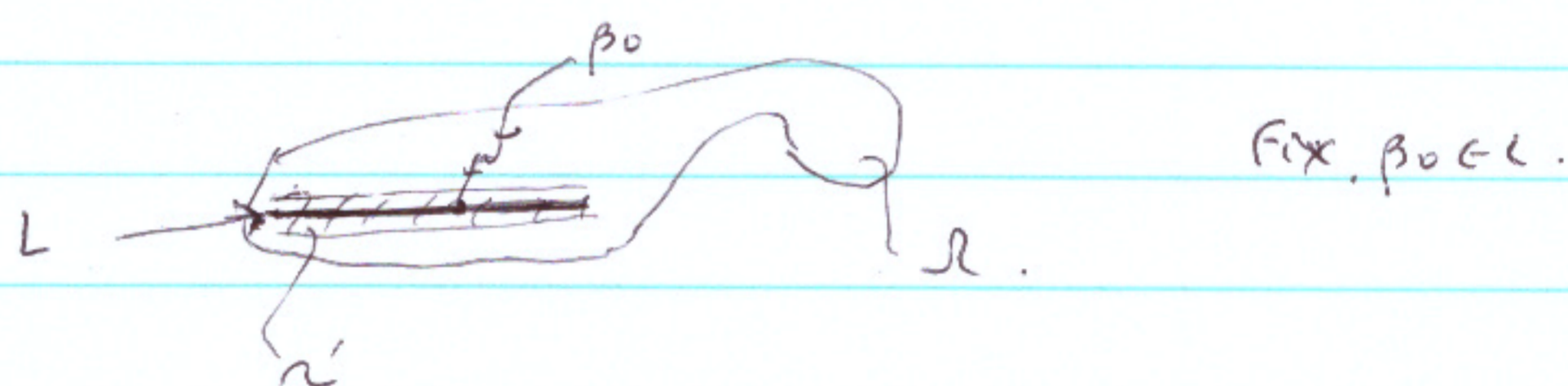
Proof: It is enough to consider that L is a real

interval in Ω . If $L = \Omega \cap \mathbb{R}$ is not connected



we proceed component by component.

Without loss we can restrict our considerations to a thin strip $\Omega' \subset \Omega$ containing L



Then by our previous results $P_i(\beta)$ is analytic in Ω'

and we can apply Th^m (184.1) to conclude that

for $\beta \in L \subset \mathbb{R}$ in particular

$$P_i(\beta) = U(\beta) P_i(\beta_0) U(\beta)^{-1}$$

Now U solves $U' = QU$, $U(\beta_0) = I$.

where $Q(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^s (P_i'(\beta), P_i(\beta))$. Now for β real,

$P_i(\beta)$ is self-adjoint (check this). Hence $P_i'(\beta)$ is self-adjoint

and so
$$Q^* = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i [P_i^*, P_i'^*] = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i [P_i, P_i'] = -Q$$

Hence
$$(U^*)' = U^* Q^* = -U^* Q$$

and it follows that
$$\begin{aligned} (U^* u)' &= (U^*)' u + U^* u' \\ &= -U^* Q u + U^* Q u = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence
$$U^*(\beta) U(\beta) = \text{constant} = 1$$

So $U(\beta)$ is unitary and $U^{-1}(\beta) = U^*(\beta)$

Using the relation
$$P_i(\beta) U(\beta) = U(\beta) P_i(\beta_0)$$

Fixing an orthonormal basis u_{i1}, \dots, u_{im_i} for $\text{Ran } P_i(\beta_0)$

($m_i =$ multiplicity of $\lambda_i(\beta_0)$)

we obtain an analytic orthonormal basis $u_{ij}(\beta) = U(\beta) u_{ij}$,

$j=1, \dots, m_i$ for the eigenspace $\text{Ran } P_i(\beta)$ of $A(\beta)$, $\beta \in L$.

Constructing similar orthonormal sets for all i , we

obtain the desired real analytic orthonormal basis for $A(\beta)$ on L . \square

Remark It is important to know what Theorem 180.1 does

(Consider $A(\beta) = A_0 + \beta B$, A_0 & B Hermitian.)

not say, if λ_0 is a degenerate eigenvalue of A_0 (multiplicity = m)

and if $w_0 \neq 0$ is an eigenvector of A_0 , $(A_0 - \lambda_0)w_0 = 0$,

The theorem does not say that \exists an analytic eigenvector $w(\beta)$

such that $(A(\beta) - \lambda(\beta))w(\beta) = 0$, $\lambda(0) = \lambda_0$, where $w(0) = w_0$

ie. not every vector in the null space of $A_0 - \lambda_0$ continues

analytically to $\beta \neq 0$.

For example, consider $A(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1+\beta & 0 \\ 0 & 1-\beta \end{pmatrix}$. A_0 has an eigenvalue $\lambda_0 = 1$ of multiplicity 2. The eigenvalues of $A(\beta)$ are $\lambda_1(\beta) = 1+\beta$, $\lambda_2(\beta) = 1-\beta$ with associated eigenvectors $v_1(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $v_2(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, for $\beta \neq 0$. Thus (essentially, apart from

scaling) the only eigenvectors of $\text{Nul}(A(0) - \lambda_0)$ that continue analytically are $v_1(0) = \lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} v_1(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$v_2(0) = \lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} v_2(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In the case $A(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \beta \\ \beta & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0 + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, we again have degeneracy at $\beta = 0$, but now the eigenvectors that continue are $v_1(0) = \lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} v_1(\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $v_2(0) = \lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} v_2(\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Thus the degeneracy at $\beta=0$ is resolved by the perturbation.

This is a very general phenomenon in the perturbation of singular/degenerate problems -

Finally we can ask what role does ~~the~~ analyticity play in perturbation theory. If $A(\beta)$ is no longer analytic in β , the general rule is that the eigenvalues will behave "reasonably", the eigenvectors, less so.

The following is Theorem 6.8 on p122 in Kato:

Th^m. Assume $A(\beta)$ is $n \times n$, self-adjoint and continuously differentiable on an interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ of β . Then there exist n continuously differentiable functions $\mu_i(\beta)$ on I that represent the eigenvalues of $A(\beta)$.

But with eigenvectors, everything can break down.

For example consider the self-adjoint matrices

$$A(\beta) = e^{-1/\beta^2} \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2/\beta & \sin^2/\beta \\ \sin^2/\beta & -\cos^2/\beta \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta \neq 0$$

$$A(0) = 0$$

Then $A(\beta)$ is infinitely differentiable, ^{but not analytic} on \mathbb{R} and one

verifies easily that the eigenvalues are $\pm e^{-2/\beta^2}$,

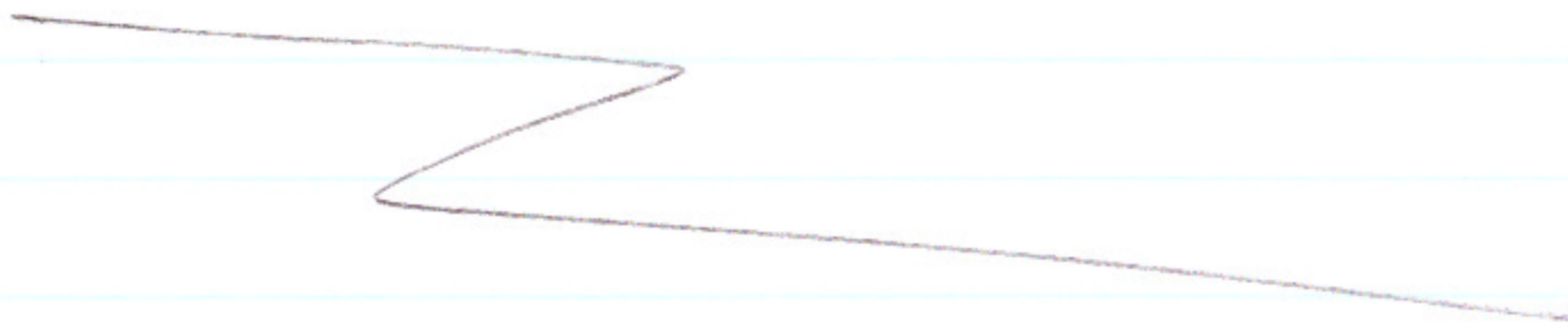
which are clearly also infinitely differentiable. But

the associated spectral projections are

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos^2(\frac{1}{\beta}) & \cos(\frac{1}{\beta}) \sin(\frac{1}{\beta}) \\ \cos(\frac{1}{\beta}) \sin(\frac{1}{\beta}) & \sin^2(\frac{1}{\beta}) \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} \sin^2(\frac{1}{\beta}) & -\cos(\frac{1}{\beta}) \sin(\frac{1}{\beta}) \\ -\cos(\frac{1}{\beta}) \sin(\frac{1}{\beta}) & \cos^2(\frac{1}{\beta}) \end{pmatrix}$$

and one sees that no eigenvectors of $A(\beta)$ are even

continuous at $\beta = 0$.



Regarding matrices which depend on more than one parameter, $A = A(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots)$ very little is known beyond the perturbation theory of simple eigenvalues discussed earlier.

For example for $A(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 & \beta_2 \\ \beta_2 & -\beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$, the eigenvalues

are $\lambda = \pm \sqrt{\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2}$ which are not analytic near $(\beta_1, \beta_2) = (0, 0)$, even though $A(\beta_1, \beta_2)$ is self-adjoint for $\beta_1, \beta_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.