

# M111 Spectral Theory

## Notes

Based on the 2012 autumn lectures by Prof L  
Parnovski

INCOMPLETE

The Author has made every effort to copy down all the content on the board during lectures. The Author accepts no responsibility what so ever for mistakes on the notes nor changes to the syllabus for the current year. The Author highly recommends that reader attends all lectures, making their own notes and to use this document as a reference only

# M 111 Spectral Theory

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office hour: Mon 4-5

Functional ~~and~~ books:

- (1) Kato *and*  $\neq$  *min*
- (2)  $\neq$  *Bohler*
- (3) *Kreyszig*

Func.

I for bounded operators, *regression*.

$\neq$



Not every nonzero linear map is an isomorphism  
 $A - \lambda I$  is not inj.  $\Rightarrow$   $\ker(A - \lambda I) \neq \{0\}$

1/10/2012

$A : V \rightarrow V$      $\dim V = n < +\infty$   
 Think of  $A$  as  $n \times n$  matrix.  
 $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ , if  
 $\exists v \neq 0 \in V$  s.t.  $Av = \lambda v$   
 $\Rightarrow v$  is called an eigenvector

$(A - \lambda I)v = 0$   
 $\Downarrow$   
 this is not injection  
 $(A - \lambda I)$   
 $\Downarrow$  if  $\dim V < +\infty$   
 ~~$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$~~

! linear Algebra page 5

$(A - \lambda I)$  is not a bijection

$\chi_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$   
 is characteristic polynomial of  $A$

$$\chi_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = (\lambda_1 - \lambda)^{a_1} (\lambda_2 - \lambda)^{a_2} \dots (\lambda_k - \lambda)^{a_k}$$

$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_k = n$        $a_j \geq 1$

$\sigma(A) = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$  spectrum of  $A$

$a_j$  is called the algebraic multiplicity of  $\lambda_j$ .

$V_{\lambda_j} = \{v, Av = \lambda_j v\}$  is a vector space

$V_{\lambda_j}$  is linear subspace of  $V$

$\dim V_{\lambda_j}$  is called the geometric multiplicity.

Consider  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\chi_A(\lambda) = \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda^2 = (\lambda - 0)^2$$

$\lambda_1 = 0$  is an eigenvalue with alg.  $m = 2$

$$V_{\lambda_1} = \{v, Av = 0\}$$

$$\text{eg } v \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow \dim(V_{\lambda_1}) = 1 = \text{geom. } m.$

alg.  $m \geq \text{geom. } m.$  if matr. is diag.  $\Rightarrow$  alg.  $m = \text{geom. } m$

mean conjugate

if  $A^* \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \overline{A^T}$   $\neq A$  then  $A$  is symmetric, and  
 if  $\text{alg. n.} = \text{geom. m.}$

Def-n.  $A$  is normal, if  $AA^* = A^*A$

Example Consider  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   $31$

$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & & & \\ & 0 & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   $31$

$$Ch_A(\lambda) = (-\lambda)^{31}$$

$$\sigma(A) = \{0\}$$

$$\sigma(B)$$

$$Ch_B(\lambda) = (-\lambda)^{31} + 1 = 0$$

$$\text{iff } -\lambda^{31} = -1$$

$$\lambda^{31} = 1$$



• spectrum of  $A$   
 • spectrum of  $B$   $\sigma(B)$

## Spaces

vector spaces over field  $F = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$

**Normed space** is a vector space with norm i.e.

$$\| \cdot \| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+, \text{ s.t.}$$

(1)  $\| \cdot \|$

(2)  $\| \lambda v \| = |\lambda| \|v\|$

(3)  $\|v + w\| \leq \|v\| + \|w\|$

**The Distance**  $d(v, w) = \|v - w\|$

if  $V$  becomes a complete m.s. with this distance, it is called a **Banach Space**

an inner product on a vector space  $\mathcal{H}$  is  $(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow F$ ,

s.t. (1)  $(\lambda x + \mu y, z) = \lambda(x, z) + \mu(y, z)$

(2)  $(x, y) = \overline{(y, x)}$

(3)  $(x, x) \geq 0 \quad (x, x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

Then  $\|x\| = \sqrt{(x, x)}$ , becomes a norm

**Remark:**  $|(x, y)| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$

**Cauchy - Schwarz - Buniakowski**

If  $\mathcal{H}$  becomes a Banach space with this norm, then it is called a Hilbert space.

**Recall.**

**Examples** [0] If  $\dim V < +\infty$  and  $V$  is normed, then  $V$  is Banach

1)  $\ell^p = \{x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots), x_j \in F\}$ ,

$$\|x\|_p = \left( \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |x_j|^p \right)^{1/p} < +\infty \quad \left. \vphantom{\|x\|_p} \right\} \quad 1 \leq p < +\infty$$

$\ell^p$  is a normed space (proved in functional analysis) and Banach space

$$l^\infty = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots), (x_j) \text{ is bounded}\}$$

$$\|x\|_\infty = \sup |x_j| < +\infty$$

Banach

In  $l^2$  we can introduce the inner product

$$(x, y) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j y_j$$

$$c_0 = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots), \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} x_j = 0\}$$

$$\|x\|_{c_0} = \sup |x_j| \text{ is Banach}$$

$$2) C[a, b] \quad a, b \in \mathbb{R} \quad a < b$$

$$\|f\| = \sup_{t \in [a, b]} |f(t)| \quad \| \cdot \|_\infty$$

Banach

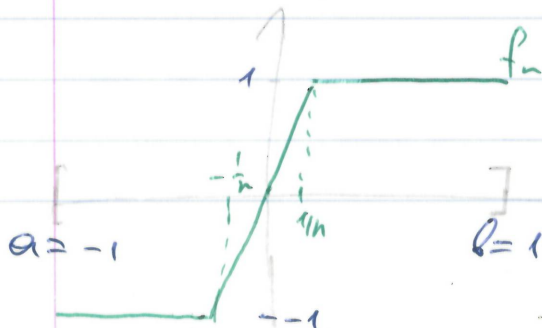
$$3) C^{(n)}[a, b] = \{f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f, f', \dots, f^{(n)} \in C[a, b]\}$$

$$\|f\|_{C^{(n)}[a, b]} = \|f\|_{C[a, b]} + \|f'\|_{C[a, b]} + \dots + \|f^{(n)}\|_{C[a, b]}$$

$$4) C_p[a, b] = \{f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f \text{ is continuous}\}$$

$$\|f\|_p = \left[ \int_a^b |f(t)|^p dt \right]^{1/p}$$

It is not complete (i.e. Banach), and yet is a normed space.



Normy  $\|A\| = \inf \{c > 0, \|Ax\| \leq c\|x\|\}$   
 $= \sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|Ax\|$

Then  $\|f_n - f_m\|_p \xrightarrow{n, m \rightarrow \infty} 0$ , thus  $\{f_n\}$  is Cauchy seq., but  
 if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f(x) = \begin{cases} +1, & x > 0 \\ -1, & x < 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$  is not continuous

↑ supremum norm

expl an  
 add. page

The space, made out of all limits of all Cauchy seq.-es  
 in  $C_p[a, b]$  is denoted  $L^p[a, b]$ , i.e.  $L^p[a, b]$  is completion  
 of  $C_p[a, b]$

all my balls are open unless otherwise indicated

Linear operators spaces Operators, vector spaces

then a mapping  $B: X \rightarrow Y$  is called linear operator if  $B(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lambda Bx + \mu By$   
 $x, y \in X, \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{F}$ .

def. If  $X$  and  $Y$  are normed spaces,  
 $A: X \rightarrow Y$  is linear bijection and  $\|Ax\|_Y = \|x\|_X$ ,  
 then such mapping is called an isometry

Th-def. let  $X$  and  $Y$  be normed spaces  
 and  $A: X \rightarrow Y$  be  $\mathbb{F}$  linear operator  
 We say that  $A$  is bounded and (continuous)  
 if any of the following conditions are satisfied.

letter  
 y D.N

w. proof  
 in functional  
 analysis  
 exercise

- 1)  $A$  is continuous
- 2)  $A$  is continuous at  $\theta$
- 3)  $\exists C > 0$  s.t.  $\|Ax\|_Y \leq C\|x\|_X \quad \forall x \in X$
- 4)  $\exists C > 0 (A B_{X, (0,1)}) \subset B_{Y, (0, C)}$

Then the norm of  $A$   
 $\|A\| = \inf \{c > 0, \|Ax\| \leq c\|x\|\}$   
 $= \sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|Ax\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\| = \sup_{\substack{x \in X \\ x \neq 0}} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}$

$\|x\|$



what is compact?  
why  $K$  is cont. + compact  
→ bounded

Examples (1)  $I: X \rightarrow X$

$$I x = x$$

(2)  $A: C[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}?$

$$\|A f\| = \left| \int_0^1 f(t) dt \right| \leq C \|f\| = C \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |f(t)|$$

$$\left| \int_0^1 f(t) dt \right| \leq \int_0^1 |f(t)| dt \leq \int_0^1 \|f\| dt = \|f\|$$

→  $A$  is bounded.

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Examples:

(1)  $A: X \rightarrow X, X = C[0,1]$

$$A f(t) = \int_0^1 K(t,s) f(s) ds, \text{ where } K: [0,1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ is continuous and is called the (integral) kernel of } A$$

Recall: [Since  $K$  is continuous and  $[0,1]^2$  is compact,  $K$  is bounded]

$$\text{say } |K(s,t)| < M$$

$$\text{therefore } |A f(t)| = \left| \int_0^1 K(t,s) f(s) ds \right| \leq M \int_0^1 |f(s)| ds \leq M \|f\|$$

$$\text{and } \|A f\| = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |A f(t)| \leq M \|f\|$$

thus  $A$  is bounded and  $\|A\| \leq M$

$$\|A\| = \sup \frac{\|A f\|}{\|f\|} \leq M$$

(2)  $A f(t) = f'(t)$

$$D_A = \{f \in C[0,1], f' \in C[0,1]\}$$

$$A: D_A \rightarrow X$$

$$X = C[0,1]$$

Claim:  $A$  is not bounded

"need to find sequence of bounded function but diverges huge"

How dense was calculated?  
 $D_A(x)$

Can we say if  $D_A = X = \mathbb{R}A$  is bounded of

What is Banach algebra?

take  $f_n = e^{inx}$   
 then  $\|f_n\| = 1$

However,  $\|A f_n\| = n$  so  $A$  is unbounded

We topological  $D_A = X$  (in  $\mathbb{R}$ )  $D_A$  is not closed

What is a space  $X$  called dense if every point  $x$  in  $X$  is a limit point of  $A$

Def. The set is dense if the closure of set is entire domain  $X$

Remark:

$A$  is (bounded) continuous, if  $x_n \xrightarrow{\text{norm cond.}} x \Rightarrow A x_n \rightarrow A x$

Def.  $A$  is closed, if  $x_n \rightarrow x, A x_n \rightarrow y \Rightarrow y = A x$

The closed graph theorem

$A: X \rightarrow Y$   $X, Y$  are Banach

$A$  is closed  $\Rightarrow A$  is continuous

i.e. if  $D_A = X \Rightarrow A$  is bounded operator (in this context)

Def.  $A$  is unbounded operator from  $X$  to  $Y$  if  $\exists$  a dense subset  $D_A \subset X$  and  $A: D_A \rightarrow Y$

notation: the space of all linear operators is denoted by  $L(X, Y)$   
 the space of all bound. oper. is den. by  $B(X, Y)$

$$L(X, X) = L(X)$$

$$B(X, X) = B(X)$$

If  $A, B \in B(X, Y)$  then  $\|A+B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$

if  $A_1 \in B(Y, Z)$  then  $\|A_1 A\| \leq \|A_1\| \cdot \|A\|$

if  $Y$  is Banach then  $B(X, Y)$  is Banach

Remark: the property  $\|A, A\| \leq \|A\| \|A\|$  means that  $B(X, Y)$  is a Banach algebra.

a special case of  $B(X, Y)$  happens when  $Y = \mathbb{F}$   
 $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  is called a (linear) functional

Remark If  $\dim X < +\infty$   $\dim Y < +\infty$  then each linear operator is bounded

The set of all b-d-d. linear functionals is called a dual space to  $X$ .  $X^* = X' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{B}(X, \mathbb{F})$

example:  $X = l^p = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots), \|x\| = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |x_j|^p\right)^{1/p} < +\infty\}$

$X^* \cong l^q$ , where  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$

There is a natural isomorphism between  $(l^p)^*$  and  $l^q$ .

Suppose,  $y \in l^q$ ,  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots)$ , define  $f_y : l^p \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  by

$$f_y(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j y_j, \quad x \in l^p$$

we need to prove the following parts

then 1) this is well defined

$$2) \|y\|_{l^q} = \|f_y\|_{(l^p)^*}$$

$$3) \forall f \in (l^p)^* \exists y \in l^q \text{ s.t. } f = f_y$$

$$! 1 \leq p < +\infty, \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

Remark (1)  $(l^\infty)^* \not\cong l^1$

(2)  $(c_0)^* \cong l^1$

Def. let  $X$  be a Banach space;  $x_n, x \in X$

1) we say that  $x_n$  converges strongly to  $x$

$$S\text{-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x, \quad x_n \rightarrow x, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$$

$$\text{if } \|x_n - x\| \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

2) we say that  $x_n$  converges to  $x$  weakly

$$W\text{-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x, \quad x_n \rightarrow x$$

if  $f \in X^*$  we have  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$

$|f(x_n) - f(x)| \leq \|f\| \|x_n - x\|$   
 (always  $\|Ax\|_Y \leq \|A\| \|x\|_X$ )  
 $\sup_{x \neq 0} \|Ax\|_Y = \sup_{\|x\|_X=1} \|Ax\|_Y$

Th  $x_n \rightarrow x \implies f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$

Proof.

Suppose  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $f \in X^*$ , then  $|f(x_n) - f(x)| = |f(x_n - x)| \leq \|f\| \|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , so  $f(x_n) - f(x) \rightarrow 0$   
 i.e.  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$   $\square$

Remark: We have used that  $|f(x)| \leq \|f\| \|x\|$   $f \in X^*$   $x \in X$ , which is corollary of  $\|Ax\|_Y \leq \|A\| \|x\|_X$ ,  $A \in B(X, Y)$   $x \in X$ , since  $\|A\| = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_Y}{\|x\|_X}$

Example:  $X = C_0$ ,  $e_n = (\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_n, 1, \dots) \in C_0$

Claim:  $e_n \rightarrow 0$ ,  $e_n \neq 0$

Proof:  $\|e_n - 0\| = \|e_n\| = 1 \neq 0$ , so  $e_n \not\rightarrow 0$

Suppose that  $f \in X^* \cong l^1$ . Then  $\exists y \in l^1$  st.  $f = f_y$ , i.e.  $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i y_i$ .  
 Therefore,  $f_y(e_n) = y_n$ , but  $y \in l^1 \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n| < +\infty$   
 $\implies y_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$

Thus,  $f(e_n) = y_n \rightarrow 0 = f(0)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and so  $w\text{-lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} e_n = 0$

Def. Let  $A_n, A \in B(X, Y)$  we say that (1)  $A_n$  converges to  $A$  uniformly

$\lim A_n = A$ , if  $\|A_n - A\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

(2)  $A_n$  converges to  $A$  strongly

$s\text{-lim} A_n = A$ , if  $\forall x \in X$  we have  $A_n x \rightarrow Ax$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

i.e.  $\|A_n x - Ax\| \rightarrow 0$

(3)  $A_n$  conv. to  $A$  weakly

$w\text{-lim} A_n = A$ , if  $\forall x \in X$  we have  $w\text{-lim} A_n x = Ax$

i.e.  $\forall f \in Y^*$  we have  $f(A_n x) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f(Ax)$

Claim:  $1 \implies 2 \implies 3$

Def. Let  $X$  be a normed space and  $x_n, x \in X$ .

(We say that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$  converges to  $x$ , if the sequence  $S_m = \sum_{n=1}^m x_n$  of partial sums converges strongly to  $x$ .)

write:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n = x$

2) we say that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$  converges absolutely, if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|x_n\|$  converges

If  $X$  is Banach,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$  converges absolutely  $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$  converges

Proof: Put  $S_m = \sum_{j=1}^m x_j$ , then for  $n > m$  we have  $\|S_n - S_m\| = \left\| \sum_{j=m+1}^n x_j \right\| \leq \sum_{j=m+1}^n \|x_j\| \leq \sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} \|x_j\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Thus,  $\|S_n - S_m\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$  so  $S_n$  is Cauchy seq.

so  $\exists \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = x$ , so  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j \rightarrow x$

## Chapter 9

Def. Let  $X, Y$  be a normed spaces and  $T \in B(X, Y)$

the kernel of  $A$ ,  $\text{Ker } A = \{x \in X, Ax = 0\}$

the range of  $A$ ,  $\text{Ran } A = \{y \in Y, \exists x \in X, \text{ with } y = Ax\}$

both  $\text{Ker } A$  and  $\text{Ran } A$  are subspaces

Th.  $\text{Ker } A$  is closed

Proof: suppose  $x_n \in \text{Ker } A$ ,  $x \in \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ , then  $Ax = A \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Ax_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0$ , so  $x \in \text{Ker } A$   $\square$

(one-to-one)  
 $A$  is injection  $\Leftrightarrow \text{Ker } A = \{0\}$

(onto)  
 $A$  is surjection  $\Leftrightarrow \text{Ran } A = Y$

$A$  is bijection  $\Leftrightarrow$  both

iff  $A$  is bijection, then  $\exists A^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$

$$A \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Ax_n$$

if  $A$  is bounded

Th. Banach inverse mapping theorem

$X, Y$  are Banach,  $A \in B(X, Y)$ ,  $A^{-1}$  exists then  $A^{-1} \in B(Y, X)$

Suppose  $A: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $A_L^{-1}$  and  $A_R^{-1}$  are operators s.t.

$$A_L^{-1} A = I_X \quad A A_R^{-1} = I_Y$$

claim then  $A_L^{-1} = A_R^{-1} = A^{-1}$

Proof:  $A_L^{-1} = A_L^{-1} I = A_L^{-1} (A A_R^{-1}) = (A_L^{-1} A) A_R^{-1} = I A_R^{-1} = A_R^{-1}$   $\square$

Ex:  $\dim X < +\infty$ ,  $AB = I \Rightarrow BA = I$

use w/ w refer presented

Apobuzeno and  
wonder and  
A is invertible if  
 $\exists M \in \mathbb{R} \text{ or } \mathbb{C} \text{ s.t. } MA = I = AM$

Example  $x = l^1 \ni x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$

$$e_n = (\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_n, 1, 0, \dots)$$

$$Ax = (x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots)$$

$$Bx = (0, x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$$

$$Ae_1 = 0, \quad Ae_{n+1} = e_n; \quad Be_n = e_{n+1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

We can think of A and B as the matrices:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & & & \ddots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & \\ 1 & 0 & & & \\ & 1 & 0 & & \\ & & 1 & 0 & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & 1 & 0 & \\ & & & & & \ddots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$ABx = AB(x_1, x_2, \dots) = A(0, x_1, x_2, \dots) = (x_1, x_2, \dots); \quad AB = I$$

$$BAx = BA(x_2, x_3, \dots) = (0, x_2, x_3, \dots) \Rightarrow BA \neq I$$

- Th 1) A, B are invertible (i.e.  $A^{-1}$  &  $B^{-1}$  exists), then  $AB$  is invertible and  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
- 2)  $AB$  is invertible and  $AB = BA$ , then A and B are invertible (i.e.  $A^{-1}, B^{-1}$ )
- 3) A, B commutative,  $A^{-1}$  exists  $\Rightarrow A^{-1}$  and B commute.

15/10/2012

Proof (1)  $(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = I = (B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB)$

(2) Denote  $(AB)^{-1} = S$  then  $BA$  they commute  
 $A(BS) = S(AB) = I$

then  $BS = A^{-1}$  &  $SB = A^{-1}$

so A is invertible

similarly B

(3)  $A^{-1}B = A^{-1}BAA^{-1} = A^{-1}ABA^{-1} = BA^{-1}$

Th 1st perturbation theorem

Suppose X is Banach space

$$A \in B(X)$$

$$\|A\| < 1$$

then  $(I_X - A)$  is invertible and

Proof:

We have  $\|A^n\| \leq \|A\|^n$

Since  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \|A\|^n$  conv.  $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \|A^n\|$  conv.

$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A^n$  since  $X$  is Banach.

$$\text{Put } R := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A^n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N A^n$$

$$\text{then } (I-A)R = (I-A) \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N A^n =$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (I-A) \sum_{n=0}^N A^n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (I - A^{N+1}) = I$$

$$\text{Similarly } R(I-A) = I,$$

$$\square \text{ so } R = (I-A)^{-1}$$

As  $A$  is bounded  $\Rightarrow$

$A \rightarrow$  continuous  $\Rightarrow$

$\rightarrow A$  respects limit

② geometric prog.

$A^n$

Remark

we also have:  $\|(I-A)^{-1}\| \leq \frac{1}{1-\|A\|}$

Proof:

$$\|(I-A)^{-1}\| = \left\| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A^n \right\| \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \|A\|^n = \frac{1}{1-\|A\|}$$

③  $A$ -ing. works with

infinite sum series

Th

2nd perturbation theorem

Let  $X$  be Banach;

$A, B \in B(X)$ ;

$A$  is invertible;

$$\|B\| < \frac{1}{\|A^{-1}\|};$$

then  $(A+B)$  is invertible

$$(A+B)^{-1} = A^{-1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-BA^{-1})^n$$

$$= \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-A^{-1}B)^n \right] A^{-1}$$

$$\text{and } \|(A+B)^{-1}\| \leq \frac{\|A^{-1}\|}{1 - \|B\| \|A^{-1}\|}$$

Proof

$$\text{We have } A+B = A(I - (-A^{-1}B)) =$$

$$= (I - (-BA^{-1}))A$$

$$\text{Since } \|-A^{-1}B\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \|B\| < 1,$$

$\square$  so we can use the 1st perturbation theorem

From now on  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$  (unless specified otherwise)

Def.

Let  $X$  be Banach and

$$A \in B(X)$$

- the resolvent set of  $A$  is  

$$\rho(A) := \{ \lambda \in \mathbb{C}, \exists (A - \lambda I)^{-1} \in \mathcal{B}(X) \}$$
- the spectrum of  $A$  is complement of  $\rho(A)$ :  

$$\sigma(A) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \rho(A)$$

bounded in our context  
fact

- a point  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  is an **eigenvalue** of  $A$ ,  
if  $\exists x \in X \setminus \{0\}$  s.t.  $Ax = \lambda x$   
(and then  $x$  called an **eigenvector** / **eigenfunction**)

Suppose that  $A : D_A \rightarrow X$  is unbounded operator  
 $(A - \lambda I)^{-1} (A - \lambda I) = I_{D_A}$   
 $(A - \lambda I) (A - \lambda I)^{-1} = I_X$

the rest 3 definition  
is the same

**Th**  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue  $\Rightarrow \lambda \in \sigma(A)$   
**Proof:**  $Ax = \lambda x \Rightarrow (A - \lambda I)x = 0 = (A - \lambda I)0$   
 so  $(A - \lambda I)$  is not injection  $\Rightarrow (A - \lambda I)^{-1}$   
 doesn't exist

to every  $x \in D_A$   
 $\Rightarrow$

**Examples** (1) If  $\dim X < +\infty$ , then  $\sigma(A) = \{ \text{eigenvalues of } A \}$

(2) Consider  $X = C[0, 1]$  with

define  $Af(t) = t f(t)$ .

I eigenvalues:  $Af = \lambda f$   
 $t f(t) = \lambda f(t)$ .

Therefore, if  $t \neq \lambda$  we have  $f(t) = 0$ ,  
 so  $f \equiv 0$

II  $(A - \lambda I): f(t) \rightarrow (t - \lambda) f(t)$

$(A - \lambda I)^{-1}: f(t) \rightarrow \frac{1}{t - \lambda} f(t)$

if  $\lambda \notin [0, 1]$ , this is a well-defined operator,  
 so  $\lambda \in \rho(A)$

Suppose  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ , then

$\exists$  solution but they  
 $(\lambda = 0 \text{ p. n.})$  note  $C[0, 1]$   
 $\Rightarrow$  no sol. n.



Count the:  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$   
 $|\lambda| = 1$   
 $|\lambda| < 1$   
 $|\lambda| > 1$

$\text{Ker}(A - \lambda I) \subset \{g \in \mathbb{C}[0, 1], g(\lambda) = 0\} \neq X$   
 so  $(A - \lambda I)$  is not surjective so  
 $(A - \lambda I)^{-1}$  doesn't exist.  
 Thus  $\sigma(A) = [0, 1]$

th. Let  $X$  be a Banach and  
 $A \in B(X)$

Then (1)  $\sigma(A)$  is closed and  
 (2)  $\sigma(A) \subset \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}, |\lambda| \leq \|A\|\}$

Proof. Suppose  $|\lambda| > \|A\|$   
 then  $(A - \lambda I) = (-\lambda)(I - \lambda^{-1}A)$   
 is invertible, since  $\|\lambda^{-1}A\| = \frac{\|A\|}{|\lambda|} < 1$ , by  
 the first perturbation th-  
 so  $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$   
 Thus  $\sigma(A) \subset B_c(0, \|A\|)$

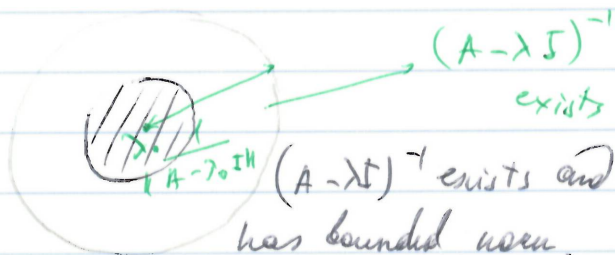
Claim. Suppose  $\lambda_0 \in \sigma(A)$ , and  
 $|\lambda - \lambda_0| < \frac{1}{\|(A - \lambda_0 I)^{-1}\|}$

then  $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$

Proof. we have  $A - \lambda I = (A - \lambda_0 I) + (\lambda_0 - \lambda)I$   
 Since  $\|(\lambda_0 - \lambda)I\| = |\lambda - \lambda_0| < \frac{1}{\|(A - \lambda_0 I)^{-1}\|}$   
 we can apply the second perturbation,  
 therefore th. to deduce that  
 $(A - \lambda I)^{-1}$  exists  $\Rightarrow \lambda \in \sigma(A)$

$\triangleright$  thus,  $\sigma(A)$  is open and  $\sigma(A)$  is closed.  $\square$

Remark



Def The operator-valued function  
 $f(A) \ni \lambda \rightarrow (A - \lambda I)^{-1} =: R(A; \lambda) \in B(X)$   
 is called the *resolvent* of  $A$

Th the 1-st resolvent identity

$$R(A, \lambda) - R(A, \lambda_0) = (\lambda - \lambda_0) R(A, \lambda) R(A, \lambda_0)$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} R(A, \lambda) - R(A, \lambda_0) &= (A - \lambda I)^{-1} - (A - \lambda_0 I)^{-1} \\ &= (A - \lambda I)^{-1} [(A - \lambda_0 I) - (A - \lambda I)] (A - \lambda_0 I)^{-1} \\ &= (\lambda - \lambda_0) (A - \lambda I)^{-1} (A - \lambda_0 I)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Th the 2nd resolvent identity

$$R(A, \lambda) - R(B, \lambda) = R(A, \lambda) (B - A) R(B, \lambda)$$

proof by yourself

Th let  $X$  be normed space and

$$x \in X$$

choosing such  $x$

then  $\exists g \in X^*$  s.t.  $\|g\| = 1$  and  $|g(x)|| = \|x\|$

from functional  $A_x$

Th let  $Z$  be a complex Banach space

$\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open

$F: \Omega \rightarrow Z$  be a vector-valued function

TFAE

(1)  $\forall \lambda_0 \in \Omega$  the derivative exists.

$$\frac{dF}{dx}(\lambda) = F'(\lambda_0) := s\text{-lim}_{\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0} \frac{F(\lambda) - F(\lambda_0)}{\lambda - \lambda_0} \in Z,$$

$$\text{i.e. } \left\| \frac{F(\lambda) - F(\lambda_0)}{\lambda - \lambda_0} - F'(\lambda_0) \right\| \xrightarrow{\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0} 0$$

(2)  $\forall \lambda_0 \in \Omega$  has a neighbourhood s.t. there

$$F(\lambda) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\lambda - \lambda_0)^n F_n(\lambda_0), \quad F_n(\lambda_0) \in Z$$

and the series converges absolutely.

(3)  $\forall G \in Z^*$  a complex-valued f-n

$\Omega \ni \lambda \rightarrow G(F(\lambda)) \in \mathbb{C}$  is analytic in  $\Omega$

then the following are equiv

(4) If  $\mathcal{E} = B(X, Y)$  for Banach  $X$  and  $Y$   
 then the equivalent definition is

$\forall x \in X \forall g \in Y^*$  a complex-valued f-n  
 $\Omega \ni \lambda \rightarrow g(F(\lambda)x) \in \mathbb{C}$  is  
 analytic in  $\Omega$

1  $\rightarrow$  2 straight  
 3  $\rightarrow$  4

**Def** A vector-valued function (operator-valued)  
 is **analytic**, if it satisfies any of  
 the above property

f f(.) a function  
 (1) function at  
 point t

**Th** let  $X$  be Banach  
 $A \in B(X)$

then the  $B(X)$ -valued function  
 $R(A, \cdot)$  is analytic in  $\rho(A)$ , and  
 the following hold

$$R(A, \lambda) = \frac{1}{\lambda - A}$$

(1)  $\frac{dR(A, \lambda)}{d\lambda} \Big|_{\lambda=\lambda_0} = R^2(A, \lambda_0), \lambda_0 \in \rho(A)$

(2)  $(-\lambda)R(A, \lambda) \xrightarrow{|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty} I$

(3)  $\|R(A, \lambda)\| > \frac{1}{d(\lambda, \sigma(A))}$   
 $\lambda \in \rho(A)$

**Def**  $d(\lambda, S) := \inf \{d(\lambda, s), s \in S\}$   
 $S \subset \mathbb{C}$

$d(T, S) := \inf \{d(t, s), t \in T, s \in S\}$   
 $T \subset \mathbb{C}$

**Proof** Let  $\lambda_0 \in \rho(A)$ .

then  $R(A, \lambda)$  exists and has a  
 bounded norm in some neighborhood of  $\lambda_0$ .

Therefore,  $R(A, \lambda) - R(A, \lambda_0) = (\lambda - \lambda_0) \{ R(\lambda, \lambda) \} R(A, \lambda_0)$

$\downarrow \lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0$   
 $0$

and  $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0} R(A, \lambda) = R(A, \lambda_0)$

Moreover,  $R(A, \lambda)$

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0} \frac{R(A, \lambda) - R(A, \lambda_0)}{\lambda - \lambda_0} = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0} R(A, \lambda) R(A, \lambda_0) =$$

$$= R^2(A, \lambda_0)$$

thus  $R(A, \cdot)$  is analytic in  $\rho(A)$

(2)  $\|(-\lambda) R(A, \lambda) - I\| = \|(-\lambda)(A - \lambda I)^{-1} - I\| =$

$$= \|(I - \lambda^{-1}A)^{-1} - I\| \stackrel{\text{1st part 7.1}}{=} \|\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\lambda^{-1}A)^n\| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (|\lambda|^{-1} \|A\|)^n = \frac{|\lambda|^{-1} \|A\|}{1 - |\lambda|^{-1} \|A\|} = \frac{\|A\|}{|\lambda| - \|A\|} \rightarrow$$

+ assuming  $|\lambda| > \|A\|$

$|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty \rightarrow 0$

(3) let  $\lambda_0 \in \rho(A)$ , then  $\lambda \in \mathbb{B}_0(\lambda_0, \frac{1}{\|R(A, \lambda_0)\|})$

$\Rightarrow \lambda \in \rho(A)$

therefore,  $d(\lambda_0, \sigma(A)) \geq \frac{1}{\|R(A, \lambda_0)\|}$

and  $\|R(A, \lambda_0)\| \geq \frac{1}{d(\lambda_0, \sigma(A))}$

2/10/12

Lemma If  $A \in B(X)$

then  $\sigma(A) \neq \emptyset$

Proof: Suppose,  $\rho(A) = \mathbb{C}$

$g(R(A, \lambda)x)$

Take  $x \in X, x \neq 0$

$g \in X^*$

Put  $f(\lambda) := g(R(A, \lambda)x)$

then  $f(\lambda)$  is analytic in  $\mathbb{C}$ ,

$f(\lambda) \rightarrow 0$  as  $|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty$ , then

by Liouville's theorem:  $f(\lambda) \equiv 0$ .

Lemma (consequence from Hahn-Banach):  $\exists g \in X^*$  s.t.  $g(x) = \|x\| \forall x \in X$

implies that  $\exists g \in X^*$  s.t.  $\|g\| = 1$

and  $g(R(A, \theta)x) = \|R(A, \theta)x\| \neq 0 \Rightarrow 0 = f(\lambda) = g(R(A, \lambda)x) = \|R(A, \lambda)x\|$

take  $\lambda = 0$ :  $0 = \|R(A, 0)x\|$

$\mathbb{C}$  is holomorphic complex function  
 $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$   
 by end part of prev. Lem.  
 i.e.  $f$  is bounded  
 - unimprovable now!

Thus  $R(A, \lambda) x \neq 0$ , and  
 $x = A(R(A, \lambda) x) = 0$   
 so  $x = 0$  but we assumed  $x \neq 0$  #  
 Thus,  $\sigma(A) \neq \emptyset$

Th Let  $X$  be Banach  
 $A \in B(X)$

then  $\sigma(A)$  is a non-empty closed subset  
 of  $B_c(0, \|A\|)$ , and  
 and  $R(A, \lambda)$  is analytic in  $\rho(A) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(A)$

Ex. 1)  $X = \ell^2$ ,  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$   
 $Ax = (\alpha_1 x_1, \alpha_2 x_2, \dots)$  where  
 $\{\alpha_n\}$  is bounded seq. of compl. numbers

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & & \\ & \alpha_2 & \\ & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

(\*)  $\sigma(A) \supset \{\alpha_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is  
 as  $\sigma(A)$  is closed  
 $(A - \lambda I)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} (\alpha_1 - \lambda)^{-1} & & \\ & (\alpha_2 - \lambda)^{-1} & \\ & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$

ex:  
 $(A - \lambda I)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} (\alpha_1 - \lambda)^{-1} & & \\ & (\alpha_2 - \lambda)^{-1} & \\ & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$

is bounded, if  $\lambda \notin \{\alpha_j\}$  i.e. if  $\{\lambda \notin \{\alpha_j\}\} \subset \rho(A)$   
 so  $\sigma(A) = \overline{\{\alpha_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}}$   $\therefore \sigma(A) \subset \overline{\{\alpha_j\}}$

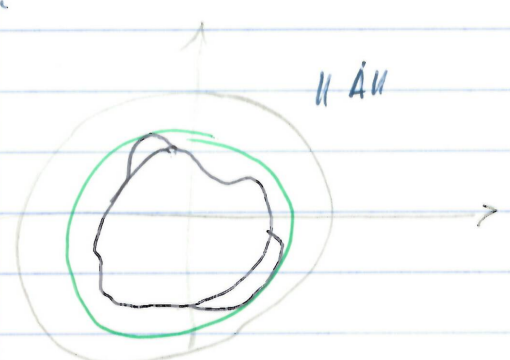
2)  $X = \ell^2$   $Ax = (x_2, x_3, \dots)$   
 eigenvalues:  $Ax = \lambda x$ , or  
 $(x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots) = (\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \lambda x_3, \dots)$

or  $x_2 = \lambda x_1$   
 $x_3 = \lambda x_2 = \lambda^2 x_1$   
 $x_4 = \lambda x_3 = \lambda^3 x_1$   
 $\vdots$   
 $x_n = \lambda^{n-1} x_1$

$x = x_1 (1, \lambda, \lambda^2, \dots)$   
 $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\lambda|^{n-1} x_1^2$  converges so  $x \in \ell^2$   
 if  $|\lambda| < 1$

thus  $\sigma_{pp}(A) := \{\text{eigenvalues of } A\} = B_d(0,1)$   
 and  $\sigma(A) \supset \{\text{eigenvalues}\} = B_c(0,1) \supset \sigma(A)$   
 $\Rightarrow \sigma(A) = B_c(0,1)$  since  $\|A\| = 1$

pp = (pure) point spectrum



$$\|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|$$

$$\frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} \leq 1$$

but take  $y = (1, 0, \dots)$   
 $Ay =$

$$\|Ay\| = \|y\|$$

$$\frac{\|Ay\|}{\|y\|} = 1 \text{ is a lower bound}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A\| = 1$$

Def The spectral radius

$r(A) := \sup \{|\lambda|, \lambda \in \sigma(A)\}$   
 this is the radius of the smallest disk centered at the origin and containing  $\sigma(A)$

we have  $r(A) \leq \|A\|$

Th  $r(A) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|A^n\|^{1/n}$

Proof I need to prove that

- (1)  $r(A) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|A^n\|^{1/n}$
- (2)  $r(A) \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|A^n\|^{1/n}$

Step 1: Suppose  $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$  then  $\lambda^n \in \sigma(A^n)$ , because

$$(A^n - \lambda^n I) = (A - \lambda I)(A^{n-1} + \lambda A^{n-2} + \dots + \lambda^{n-1} I)$$

since the operators in the RHS commute

and  $(A - \lambda I)$  is not invertible,

$(A^n - \lambda^n I)$  is not invertible

and so  $\lambda^n \in \sigma(A^n)$ .

Therefore

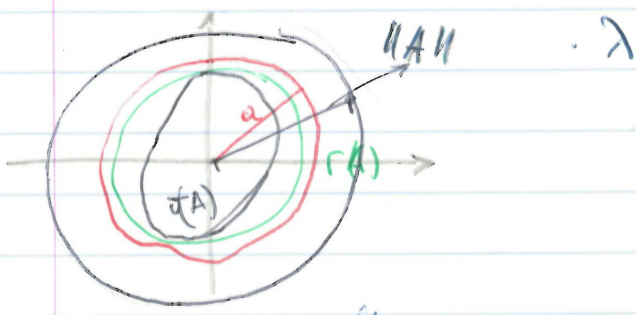
$$r(A)^n = \left[ \sup \{|\lambda^n|, \lambda \in \sigma(A)\} \right]^n =$$

Recall Analysis I:  
 + Geometric series lower limit?

no defn  
 recall  
 $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$   
 $\sigma(A), \lambda = ?$

①  
 $= \sup \{ |\lambda|^n, \lambda \in \sigma(A) \} \leq r(A^n) \leq$   
 $\leq \|A^n\|$  and  $r(A) \leq \|A^n\|^{1/n}$   
 Thus,  $r(A) = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|A^n\|^{1/n}$

Step 2



if  $\lambda \in \sigma(A) \rightarrow$   
 $\lambda^n \in \sigma(A^n)$   
 $\Rightarrow$   
 $|\lambda|^n = |\lambda^n|$

If  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|\lambda| > \|A\|$ ,  
 then  $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$   
 and  $R(A, \lambda) = (A - \lambda I)^{-1} = (-\lambda)^{-1} (I - \lambda^{-1} A)^{-1} =$   
 $\stackrel{\text{1st pvt. thm.}}{\underset{-n \geq 0}{\sum}} \lambda^{-n-1} A^n$

Let  $x \in X, g \in X^*$  and put  
 $f(\lambda) = g(R(A, \lambda)x)$   
 $f(\lambda)$  analytic for  $|\lambda| > r(A)$ .  
 If  $|\lambda| > \|A\|$  we have  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^{-n-1} g(A^n x)$

wants to add  
 $\rightarrow ?$

②

haver's theorem implies that  
 this formula is valid for  $|\lambda| > r(A)$   
 Take  $\lambda = a e^{i\theta}, a > r(A), \theta \in [0, 2\pi]$   
 then  $(m \in \mathbb{N}) \lambda^{m+1} f(\lambda) = - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^{m-n} g(A^n x)$   
 $a^{m+1} e^{i(m+1)\theta} f(a e^{i\theta}) = - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^{m-n} e^{i(m-n)\theta} g(A^n x) =$

$= -2\pi g(A^m x)$   
 Therefore,  $|g(A^m x)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} a^{m+1} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(a e^{i\theta})| d\theta$   
 $\int_0^{2\pi} |f(a e^{i\theta})| d\theta \leq \int_0^{2\pi} \|g\| \|R(A, a e^{i\theta})\| \|x\| d\theta =$   
 $= \frac{\|g\| \|x\| a^{m+1}}{2\pi} M(a)$

where  $M(a) = \int_0^{2\pi} \|R(A, a e^{i\theta})\| d\theta$

if  $n \neq m: \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(m-n)\theta} d\theta = 0$   
 if  $n = m: \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(m-n)\theta} d\theta = 2\pi$

$$\|g(A^m x)\| \leq \|g\| \|x\| a^{m+1} \frac{M(a)}{2\pi}$$

Take  $g \in X^*$  st.  $\|g\| = 1$  and

$$\|g(A^m a)\| = \|A^m x\| \quad (\text{apply corollary from Hahn-Banach}) \quad \text{why do we need this}$$

$$\text{then } \frac{\|A^m x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \frac{a^{m+1} M(a)}{2\pi}$$

Taking sup in the LHS we obtain

$$\|A^m\| \leq a^m \frac{a M(a)}{2\pi}$$

$$\text{or } \|A^m\|^{1/m} \leq a \left(\frac{a M(a)}{2\pi}\right)^{1/m}$$

$$\limsup \left(\frac{a M(a)}{2\pi}\right)^{1/m} = 1$$

take lim sup:

$$\limsup \|A^m\|^{1/m} \leq a$$

Since  $a$  was arbitrary number st.

$$\square \quad a > r(A), \text{ this implies } \limsup \|A^m\|^{1/m} \leq r(A)$$

th the spectral mapping theorem

let  $p(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n z^n$  be a polynomial with  $a_N \neq 0$

We put  $p(A) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n A^n$

then  $\sigma(p(A)) = p(\sigma(A)) = \{p(\zeta), \zeta \in \sigma(A)\}$

Proof Take any  $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$ ;  $p(\zeta) = \mu$  (including multiplicity)  
 denote  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N$  the roots of  $p(\zeta) = \mu$   
 (including multiplicities)

$$\text{then } p(\zeta) - \mu = a_N (\zeta - \lambda_1)(\zeta - \lambda_2) \dots (\zeta - \lambda_N)$$

$$\text{and } p(A) - \mu I = a_N (A - \lambda_1 I)(A - \lambda_2 I) \dots (A - \lambda_N I)$$

and the terms in the RHS commute

then  $\mu \in \sigma(p(A)) \Leftrightarrow$

$p(A) - \mu I$  is invertible

$\Leftrightarrow$  all terms  $(A - \lambda_j I)$  are invertible,  $j=1, \dots, N$  as they commute

$\Leftrightarrow$  all  $\lambda_j \notin \sigma(A)$ ,  $j=1, \dots, N$

$\Leftrightarrow \mu \notin p(\sigma(A))$



# Projection operators

Assume it is (closed) bounded

Def Let  $X$  be a normed space  
 an operator  $P \in B(X)$  is called  
 a **projection**, if  $P^2 = P$

$$X = V_1 \oplus V_2$$

$$x = v_1 + v_2$$

$Px = v_1$   
 Algebraic proof  
 $\Rightarrow$  it is not important  
 that  $P$  is bounded!

Lemma Let  $P \in B(X)$  be a projection  
 then  $Q := I - P$  is a **projection**

$$QP = PQ = 0 \text{ and}$$

$$\text{Ker } P = \text{Ran } Q$$

$$\text{Ran } P = \text{Ker } Q$$

$Q$  dual projection  
 to  $P$

Proof  $Q^2 = (I - P)^2 = I^2 - 2P + P^2 = I - P = Q$

$$QP = (I - P)P = P - P^2 = P - P = 0$$

$$PQ = P(I - P) = P - P^2 = 0$$

Since  $QP = 0$   $\text{Ran } P \subset \text{Ker } Q$

Suppose that  $x \in \text{Ker } Q$ .

then  $Qx = 0$  } or  $x = Px$  so  $x \in \text{Ran } P$   
 $(I - P)x = 0$

$$\therefore \text{Ker } Q \subset \text{Ran } P$$

$$\therefore \text{Ran } P = \text{Ker } Q$$

To prove  $\text{Ker } P = \text{Ran } Q$  we replace  
 $P$  and  $Q$ .

$$x = v_1 \oplus v_2$$

$$v_1 + v_2 = x$$

$$v_1 \cap v_2 = \{0\}$$

Lemma If  $P \in B(X)$  is a projection  
 then  $\text{Ran } P$  is **closed**

and  $X = \text{Ker } P \oplus \text{Ran } P$   $\Rightarrow$  direct sum

Proof  $\text{Ran } P = \text{Ker } Q$  is closed since  $Q$  is bounded

Suppose,  $x \in X$ , then  $x = \underbrace{Px}_{\text{Ran } P} + \underbrace{(I - P)x}_{\text{Ran } Q = \text{Ker } P}$

$$\text{so } X = \text{Ran } P + \text{Ker } P$$

Suppose,  $x \in \text{Ran } P \cap \text{Ker } P$

then  $\exists y \in X$  st.  $x = Py$  since  $x \in \text{Ker } P$ ,  
 we have  $Px = 0$

$$P(Py) = P^2y = Py = x \text{ so } x = 0$$

th Let  $P$  is non-trivial projection  
(i.e.,  $P \neq I, P \neq 0$ )

then  $\sigma(P) = \{0, 1\}$

Proof:  $P^2 - P = 0 \Rightarrow$  spectral mapping th  
 $0 = \sigma(0) = \sigma(P^2 - P) = \{\lambda^2 - \lambda, \lambda \in \sigma(P)\}$

Thus,  $\lambda \in \sigma(P) \Rightarrow \lambda(\lambda - 1) = 0$

$\Rightarrow \lambda = 0$  or  $\lambda = 1$

and therefore  $\sigma(P) \subset \{0, 1\}$

We also know that  $\text{Ran } P \neq \{0\}$

as otherwise  $P = 0 \neq$

and  $\text{Ran } (I - P) \neq \{0\}$

Therefore,  $\text{Ker } (I - P) \neq \{0\}$  and

$\text{Ker } (P) \neq 0$

Thus  $P$  is not invertible and

$I - P$  is also not invertible

therefore  $0 \in \sigma(P)$  and

$1 \in \sigma(P)$

$\square$  Thus  $\sigma(P) = \{0, 1\}$ .

Def Let  $X$  be a normed space  
 A set  $K \subset X$  is called **relatively compact**  
 if each sequence in  $K$  has a Cauchy  
 subsequence

A set  $K \subset X$  is called **compact**  
 if each sequence in  $K$  has a subsequence  
 which converges to an element of  $K$ .  
 actually it is equivalent  
 but in metric space  
 comp.  $\Leftrightarrow$  seq. com.

Prop. rel. comp.  $\Rightarrow$  bounded  
 comp.  $\Rightarrow$  closed and bounded  
 $K_1 \subset K$   
 $K$  rel. comp.  $\} \Rightarrow K_1$  is rel. com.  
 $K_1 \subset K$   
 $K$  compact  $\} \Rightarrow K_1$  is comp.  
 $K_1$  closed

Prop.  $\dim X < +\infty$  then  
 $K$  is rel. comp.  $\Leftrightarrow K$  is b.-dd  
 $K$  is comp.  $\Leftrightarrow K$  is closed,  
 b.-dd

Example  $X = \ell_1$ , then  $B_{\infty}(0, 1)$  is b.-dd,  
 but not rel. compact since  
 $x_n = e_n = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$   $\rightarrow$  this  
 then  $\|x_n - x_m\| = 2 \quad n \neq m$   
 so there is no Cauchy seq. subseq.

Lemma let  $X$  be a finite-dim. vector space,  
 $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  are two norms on  $X$   
 then these norms are equivalent.  
 (i.e.  $\exists c_1, c_2 > 0$  s.t.  $\forall x \in X$   
 $c_1 \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1 \leq c_2 \|x\|_2$ )

prop. Definition of  
 equivalence of norms

Corollary Let  $X$  be normed space and  
 $X_0 \subset X$  be a finite-dimensional subspace of  $X$   
 then  $X_0$  is closed

Proof: Let  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  be a basis of  $X_0$   
 then  $\forall x \in X_0$  it has a form

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j e_j \quad \text{and}$$

we put  $\|x\| := \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} |c_j|$

Suppose,  $x_k \in X_0$ , converges to  $x \in X$  in  $\|\cdot\|$  the norm in  $X$   
 $x_k = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j^k e_j$  bounded in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  system?

$\Rightarrow x_k$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\|\cdot\|$

$\Rightarrow x_k$  is Cauchy seq. in  $\|\cdot\|'$

as  $\|\cdot\| \& \|\cdot\|'$  are equivalent  
on  $X_0$  (due to dir.  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ )

$\Rightarrow \forall j=1, \dots, n$  the seq.  $\{c_j^k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy

$\Rightarrow \forall j=1, \dots, n$  there is a limit  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c_j^k = c_j$

Let us put  $x = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j e_j \in X_0$

$\Rightarrow x_k$  converges to  $x$  in  $\|\cdot\|'$

$\Rightarrow x_k$  converges to  $x$  in  $\|\cdot\|$

$\Rightarrow x = \lim x_k \in X_0$

□ So  $X_0$  is closed.

Def Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be normed spaces

A linear operator  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  is **compact operator**

if it maps bounded sets of  $X$  into  
 relatively compact sets of  $Y$

The set of all compact operators from

$X$  to  $Y$  is denoted by  $\text{Com}(X, Y)$

$\text{Com}(X) := \text{Com}(X, X)$

Prop  $\text{Com}(X, Y) \subset \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$

Lemma Suppose  $T(B_c(0, r))$  is relatively compact

$T \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$

then  $T$  is compact op.

$T$  is lin.

Proof: (a)  $T(B_c(0, r)) = T(r B_c(0, 1)) = r T(B_c(0, 1))$

is relatively compact

(1) If  $W \subset X$  is bounded,  
 then  $W \subset B(0, r)$  for some  $r > 0$   
 $\square$  therefore  $T(W) \subset T(B(0, r))$  is relat. comp.

th (a) let  $T_1, T_2 \in \text{Com}(X, Y)$   
 $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{F}$   
 then  $\alpha_1 T_1 + \alpha_2 T_2 \in \text{Com}(X, Y)$

(b) let  $T \in \text{Com}(X)$   
 $A \in B(X)$

then  $TA, AT \in \text{Com}(X)$

(c) let  $T_n \in \text{Com}(X)$   
 $\|T_n - T\| \rightarrow 0$

then  $T \in \text{Com}(X)$

Proof (a) Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded seq. in  $X$   
 Since  $T_1$  is compact

$\exists$  a subseq.  $\{x_n^{(1)}\} \subset \{x_n\}$  s.t.

$T_1 x_n^{(1)}$  is Cauchy

Since  $T_2$  is compact,

$\exists$  a subseq.  $\{x_n^{(2)}\} \subset \{x_n^{(1)}\}$  s.t.

$T_2 x_n^{(2)}$  is Cauchy

then  $\{T_1 x_n^{(2)}\}$  is also Cauchy

therefore  $\{(\alpha_1 T_1 + \alpha_2 T_2) x_n^{(2)}\}$  is Cauchy  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy

(b) Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded

then  $\{Ax_n\}$  is also bounded,

and  $\{TAx_n\}$  has a Cauchy subseq.,

so  $TA$  is compact

\* Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded

then  $\exists$  subseq.  $\{x_n^{(1)}\} \subset \{x_n\}$  s.t.

$\{T x_n^{(1)}\}$  is a Cauchy seq.

and, since  $A$  is bounded,

$\{A T x_n^{(1)}\}$  is also Cauchy

thus,  $AT \in \text{Com}(X)$

(c) let  $\{x_n\}$  be bounded

! also applicable  
 for  $\text{Com}(X, Y)$ , just  
 make sure

$\text{Com}(X, Y)$   $\text{Com}(Y, X)$   
 $\Rightarrow$  compact operators form  
 an ideal in the algebra  
 of bounded operators.  
 $\therefore$  this ideal is closed

$y_n$  is -  
 $\Rightarrow x_n + y_n$  is Cauchy  
 due to  $\Delta$  seq!  
 $\rightarrow$  one of the Def'n of  
 bounded operators

$T_1$  is compact  $\Rightarrow \{x_n^{(1)}\} \subset \{x_n\}$  s.t.  
 $\{T_1 x_n^{(1)}\}$  is Cauchy

$T_2$  is compact  $\Rightarrow \{x_n^{(2)}\} \subset \{x_n^{(1)}\}$  s.t.  
 $\{T_2 x_n^{(2)}\}$  is Cauchy

$T_m$  is compact  $\Rightarrow \{x_n^{(m)}\} \subset \{x_n^{(m-1)}\}$  s.t.  
 $\{T_m x_n^{(m)}\}$  is Cauchy

Consider the diagonal sequence

$$y_n = x_n^{(n)}$$

Obviously  $y_n$  is a subseq. of  $\{x_n\}$ .

Note that  $\forall m$  the seq.  $\{y_n, y_{m+1}, y_{m+2}, \dots\} \subset \{x_n^{(m)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

Since  $\{T_m x_n^{(m)}\}$  is Cauchy  
 $\Rightarrow \{T_m y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy  $\forall m$

Let us prove that  $\{T y_n\}$  is Cauchy seq.

wlog we assume that  $\|y_n\| \leq 1$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|T y_n - T y_m\| &\leq \underbrace{\|T y_n - T x y_m\|}_{\leq \|T - T_K\|} + \|T x y_n - T x y_m\| + \underbrace{\|T x y_n - T y_m\|}_{\leq \|T - T_K\|} \\ &\leq 2 \|T - T_K\| + \|T x y_n - T x y_m\| < \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Given  $\epsilon > 0$  choose  $K$  s.t.

$$\|T - T_K\| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

Since  $\{T x y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy:

$$\exists N \text{ s.t. } \|T x y_n - T x y_m\| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \text{ for } n, m > N$$

$\square$  Thus,  $\{T y_n\}$  is Cauchy.

Def An operator  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  is called

**finite-rank operator**

if  $\dim(\text{Ran } T) < +\infty$

image of bounded set of bounded map is bounded set & each bounded set of

Prop  $T$  is finite-rank operator  $\Rightarrow T$  is compact operator of finite dim subspace is compact (proved)

Ex Consider  $T: X \rightarrow X$   $X = C[0, 1]$   
 given by  $Tf(t) = \int_0^1 K(t, s) f(s) ds$   
 $K \in C[0, 1]^2$

Prop:  $T \in \text{Com}(X)$

Weierstrass-th. implies that  $\forall n \exists$  a pol-l p s.t.

$$\|K(t,s) - P(t,s)\| < \frac{1}{n}$$

Pol-l  $\Rightarrow P(t,s) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k t^k s^k$

Define  $T_n f(t) = \int_0^1 P_n(t,s) f(s) ds$

Claim 1:  $\|T - T_n\| < \frac{1}{n}$

Claim 2:  $T_n$  is finite rank

Pr. of claim 1:  $|(T - T_n)f(t)| = \left| \int_0^1 (K - P_n)(s,t) f(s) ds \right| \leq$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n} \|f\|$$

$$\Rightarrow \|(T - T_n)f\| \leq \frac{1}{n} \|f\|$$

$\|T - T_n\| = \sup_{\|f\|=1} \|(T - T_n)f\| \leq \frac{1}{n}$  Def

Pr. of claim 2  $T_n f(t) = \left[ \int_0^1 P_n(t,s) f(s) ds \right] =$   
 $= \int_0^1 \sum_{k=0}^n c_k t^k s^k f(s) ds =$   
 $= \sum_{k=0}^n c_k t^k \left[ \int_0^1 s^k f(s) ds \right] \in \text{span}(1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n)$

Since  $\dim(\text{span}(1, t, \dots, t^n)) < +\infty$ ,

$\dim(\text{Ran } T_n) < +\infty$

Therefore  $T$  is compact.

method: sp. perfect  
of comp.

12/11/12

Lemma

almost orthogonality

Let  $X$  be a normed space and

1.  $X_0 \subset X$  be any closed subspace of  $X$

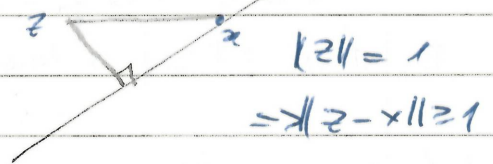
2.  $\varepsilon > 0$   $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$

then  $\exists z \in X \setminus X_0$  s.t.

$$\|z\| = 1 \text{ and}$$

$$\forall x \in X_0, \|z - x\| \geq 1 - \varepsilon$$

Pr. of orthogonal sector



Proof:

Since  $X_0 \neq X$ ,  $\exists x_1 \in X \setminus X_0$

Since  $X_0$  is closed the distance

$$d := d(x_1, X_0) = \inf_{x \in X_0} d(x_1, x) > 0$$

There exists  $y \in X_0$  s.t.

$$d \leq d(x_1, y) \leq \frac{d}{1 - \varepsilon}$$

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Put  $z := \frac{x_1 - y}{\|x_1 - y\|}$

then  $\|z\| = 1$

Suppose  $x \in X_0$

then  $\|z - x\| = \frac{1}{\|x_1 - y\|} \left\| x_1 - \overbrace{(y + x\|x_1 - y\|)}^{x_0} \right\|$

$$\geq \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{d} d = 1 - \varepsilon$$

! Proceed for  $\forall \varepsilon$   
but in the course I'll  
be using  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$  only.

Th. Let  $X$  be a normed space s.t.  
 $B_c(0, 1)$  is relatively compact

then  $\dim X < +\infty$

Remark If  $\dim X = +\infty$  then  $B_c(0, 1)$  is compact

Proof:

Suppose  $\dim X = +\infty$

Choose  $x_1 \in X$  s.t.  $\|x_1\| = 1$

Put  $X_1 = \text{span}\{x_1\}$

then  $X_1 \neq X$  is closed.

Apply lemma with  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$

we find  $x_2$  s.t.  $\|x_2\| = 1$  and  $\|x_2 - x_1\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$

Put  $X_2 = \text{span}\{x_1, x_2\}$

Apply lemma with  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$

we find  $x_3$  s.t.  $\|x_3\| = 1$  and  $\|x_3 - x_1\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$   
 $\|x_3 - x_2\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$

Thus we construct a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  s.t.

$$\|x_n\| = 1 \quad (\text{so } \{x_n\} \subset B_c(0, 1))$$

and  $\|x_n - x_m\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$  for  $n \neq m$

so there is no Cauchy subsequence.  $\square$



Corollary  $I_X \in \text{Com}(X)$  iff  $\dim X < +\infty$

th let  $T \in \text{Com}(X, Y)$  and  
 $\dim X > +\infty$  or  $\dim Y = +\infty$

then  $T$  is not invertible has no bounded inverse

$\dim X < +\infty$   
 $\forall A \in L(X)$   
 $\Rightarrow A$  is bounded  
normed  
and compact

Proof:

Suppose  $T$  is invertible:  $T^{-1} \in B(Y, X)$

i.e.  $T^{-1}T = I_X$  and

$TT^{-1} = I_Y$

then  $I_X$  and  $I_Y$  are compact

so  $\dim X < +\infty$  and  $\dim Y < +\infty$  #  $\square$

Corollary let  $\dim X > +\infty$  and  
 $T \in \text{Com}(X)$

then  $0 \in \sigma(T)$

i.e.  $T$  has  
no inverse

th let  $T \in \text{Com}(X)$  and  
 $\lambda$  be its eigenvalue

then  $\lambda$  has finite multiplicity

i.e.  $\dim X_\lambda < +\infty$

Recall:  $X_\lambda := \{x, Tx = \lambda x\} \cup \{0\}$

Proof  $T|_{X_\lambda} = \lambda I_{X_\lambda}$  is not compact

if  $\dim X_\lambda = +\infty$   $\square$

comp. op =  
comp. op in  
inf. dim.

Lemma Let  $X$  be Banach

$$T \in \text{Con}(X)$$

Suppose  $\lambda \neq 0$  is not an eigenvalue of  $T$

then  $\|(T - \lambda I)x\| \geq c \|x\| \quad \exists c > 0 \quad \forall x \in X$

$X$  is Banach } " from now on

Proof

Suppose not.

then  $\exists x_k$  s.t.  $\|(T - \lambda I)x_k\| \leq \frac{1}{k} \|x_k\|$

$$\text{Put } z_k = \frac{x_k}{\|x_k\|}$$

$$\text{then } \|z_k\| = 1$$

$$\text{and } \|(T - \lambda I)z_k\| < \frac{1}{k}, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$(T - \lambda I)z_k \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

Since  $T$  is compact,

$\exists$  a subsequence  $z_{k_j}$  s.t.  $\{Tz_{k_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy

and, since  $X$  is Banach

$$\exists \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} Tz_{k_j} = z$$

$$\text{then } z_{k_j} = \frac{\lambda z_{k_j}}{\lambda} = \frac{-\overset{0}{(T - \lambda I)z_{k_j}} + \overset{z}{Tz_{k_j}}}{\lambda}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{z}{\lambda} \text{ as } j \rightarrow \infty$$

Since  $\|z_{k_j}\| = 1$ , we have  $z \neq 0$

$$\text{Moreover, } (T - \lambda I)z = (T - \lambda I) \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} (\lambda z_{k_j}) =$$

$$= \lambda \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} (T - \lambda I)z_{k_j} = 0$$

So  $Tz = \lambda z$ , and  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue.  $\square$

also assume  $x_k \neq 0$   
(otherwise  $\lambda$  works)

(for each  $k \exists x_k \dots$ )

Lemma Let  $X$  be Banach and

Suppose  $A \in B(X)$  satisfies (for  $c > 0$ )

$$\|Ax\| \geq c\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X$$

then  $\text{Ker } A = \{0\}$  and

$\text{Ran } A$  is closed

Proof I  $x \in \text{Ker } A \rightarrow Ax = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$

II Suppose  $y \in \overline{\text{Ran } A}$

$$y_n \in \text{Ran } A \text{ s.t. } y_n \rightarrow y$$

$$\therefore \exists x_n \text{ s.t. } y_n = Ax_n, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$Ax_n \rightarrow y$$

then  $\|x_n - x_m\| \leq \frac{1}{c} \|Ax_n - Ax_m\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$ , so  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy

Since  $X$  is Banach,  $\{x_n\}$  is converging seq.

$$\therefore \exists \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n =: x$$

Now apply  $Ax = A \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Ax_n = y$ , (bounded)

so  $y \in \text{Ran } A$  and  $\text{Ran } A$  is closed.  $\square$

Corollary Suppose  $X$  is Banach and

$$\|A^n x\| \geq c\|x\|$$

then  $\text{Ker}(A^n) = \{0\}$  and

$\text{Ran}(A^n)$  is closed

Proof We have  $\|A^n x\| \geq c\|A^{n-1} x\| \geq c^2\|A^{n-2} x\| \dots$

$$\geq c^n\|x\|$$

so  $A^n$  satisfies all the conditions of the theorem (previous)  $\square$

The let  $X$  be Banach

$$T \in \text{Con}(X)$$

Suppose  $\lambda \neq 0$  is not an eigenvalue of  $T$   
then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(T^n)$

Proof: Put  $A = T - \lambda I$

Denote  $X_0 = X$  and  $X_n = \text{Ran}(A^n) = A^n X$

then  $X_{n+1} = A^{n+1} X = A(A^n X) = A X_n$

$$X_{n+1} = A X_n \subset A^n X = X_n$$

$$X_{n+1} \subset X_n$$

Therefore,

$$X = X_0 \supset X_1 \supset X_2 \supset X_3 \supset \dots$$

Let us prove that for some  $n$  we have

$$X_{n+1} = X_n$$

Suppose not  $X_{n+1} \neq X_n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

Since  $X_{n+1}$  is closed apply almost orthogonality:

$\exists x_n \in X_n$  s.t.  $\|x_n\| = 1$  and

$$\|x_n - z\| \geq \frac{1}{2} \quad \forall z \in X_{n+1}$$

Suppose,  $m > n$  then

$$Tx_m - Tx_n = Ax_m - Ax_n + \lambda(x_m - x_n) =$$

$$= \lambda(z - x_n)$$

$$\text{where } z = x_n + \frac{Ax_m - Ax_n}{\lambda} \in X_{n+1}$$

$$\text{therefore } \|Tx_m - Tx_n\| = |\lambda| \|z - x_n\| \geq$$

$$\geq \frac{|\lambda|}{2}$$

So  $\{Tx_n\}$  has no Cauchy subseq.

This proves Claim 1

Therefore,  $X = X_0 \supset X_1 \supset X_2 \supset \dots \supset X_k = X_{k+1}$

Denote by  $k$  the smallest index s.t.

$$x_k = x_{k+1}$$

III  $k=0$

Suppose not. Then  $x_{k-1} \neq x_k$ ,

$$\text{so } \exists z \in x_{k-1} \text{ \& } z \notin x_k$$

then  $Az \in x_k = x_{k+1} = Ax_k$ ,

therefore  $\exists y \in x_k$  s.t.  $Az = Ay$ ,

$$\text{or } A(z-y) = 0$$

$$(\tau - \lambda I)(z-y) = 0$$

$$\tau(z-y) = \lambda(z-y)$$

Since  $z \in x_k, y \in x_k$

$(z-y) \neq 0$  is an eigenvector

corresponding to  $\lambda$ , i.e.

$\lambda$  is an eigenvalue #

thus  $k=0$  and  $x = x_0 = \text{Ran}(\tau - \lambda I)$

$$\text{so } \text{Ker}(\tau - \lambda I) = \{0\}$$

$$\text{Ran}(\tau - \lambda I) = x,$$

so  $(\tau - \lambda I)^{-1}$  exists

Since  $\|(\tau - \lambda I)x\| \geq c\|x\|$

put  $x = (\tau - \lambda I)^{-1}y$ , then

$$\|y\| \geq \|(\tau - \lambda I)^{-1}y\|c$$

$$\text{i.e. } \|(\tau - \lambda I)^{-1}y\| \leq c^{-1}\|y\|,$$

$$\text{so } \|(\tau - \lambda I)^{-1}\| \leq c^{-1}$$

thus,  $\lambda \in \rho(\tau)$

$y$  is any vector

Def Suppose  $X$  is a linear space and

$$\{x_j\}_{j \in J}$$

then we say that this set is **linearly independent**,

(if several operators need to check their spectra, find a projection, in EXAM: check.)

$$\text{if } \sum_{j=1}^N c_j x_j = 0 \Rightarrow c_j = 0$$

th Let  $X$  be a linear space and  $A: X \rightarrow X$  be a lin operators

Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  are eigenvectors of  $A$  correspond to different eigenvalues  $\lambda_n$

then  $\{x_n\}$  is **linearly independent set**

th Let  $X$  is Banach and  $T \in \text{Con}(X)$

then  $\sigma(T)$  is at most countable and the only possible accumulation point of  $\sigma(T)$

Proof: we will prove that for each positive  $\delta (\delta > 0)$

$$S_\delta = \sigma(T) \cap \{ \lambda \in \mathbb{C}, |\lambda| > \delta \}$$

is a finite set

Suppose that for some  $\delta > 0$  there are points  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots \in \sigma(T)$ ,  $|\lambda_j| > \delta, \lambda_n \neq \lambda_m$  for  $n \neq m$ .

let  $x_j \neq 0$  be eigenvectors  $T x_j = \lambda_j x_j$

Put  $X_n = \text{span}\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$

$$\sigma(T) \subset \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} S_{\frac{1}{n}}$$

Since  $\{x_j\}$  are lin. ind.,  
we have  $\dim X_n = n$

$$x_1 \subsetneq x_2 \subsetneq x_3 \subsetneq \dots$$

$$x_n = \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j x_j, \alpha_j \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

$$Tx_j = \lambda_j x_j$$

$$Tx_n \subsetneq x_n$$

$$(T - \lambda_n I) x_n \subsetneq x_{n-1}$$

Use almost orthogonality lemma ( $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ )  
to show that  $\exists y_n \in x_n$  s.t.

$$\|y_n\| = 1$$

$$\|y_n - x\| \geq \frac{1}{2}, \quad \forall x \in x_{n-1}$$

let  $n > m$ . then

$$\|Ty_n - Ty_m\| = \left\| \lambda_n y_n + \left[ (T - \lambda_n I) y_n + Ty_m \right] \right\| =$$

$$= |\lambda_n| \|y_n - z\|, \text{ where}$$

$$z = -\frac{1}{\lambda_n} \left[ (T - \lambda_n I) y_n + Ty_m \right] \in x_{n-1}$$

$$\text{Therefore } \|Ty_n - Ty_m\| = |\lambda_n| \|y_n - z\| \geq \frac{\delta}{2}$$

$\{Ty_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has no ~~and~~ Cauchy Subseq.

though  $TX_n = X_n$

let  $T$  be Banach and

$$T \in B(X)$$

$Y \subset X$  is *invariant*, if  $TY \subset Y$

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result:  $Y$  is closed  
otherwise  $\rightarrow$  trivial





# Hilbert Spaces

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

$$(x, y) = \overline{(y, x)}$$

Examples:  $l_2, L_2[a, 1]$

$$(f, g) = \int_a^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt \quad \text{inner product of } L_2$$

$$(x, y) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j \overline{y_j}$$

$$\|(x, y)\| \leq \|x\| \|y\|, \text{ where } \|x\| = \sqrt{(x, x)}$$

Def. A <sup>set</sup> system  $\{x_j\}_{j \in J}$  is called **orthogonal system** system = set  
 if  $(x_j, x_k) = 0, \forall j, k \in J, j \neq k \Rightarrow x_j \perp x_k$

$$\mathcal{H} \quad x_1, \dots, x_n \text{ orthogonal system}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_1 + \dots + x_n\|^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \|x_j\|^2$$

$$= \|x_1\|^2 + \|x_2\|^2 + \dots + \|x_n\|^2$$

## Th (polarization Identity)

If  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ , then  $4(x, y) = \|x+y\|^2 - \|x-y\|^2$  (\*)

If  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ , then  $4(x, y) = \|x+y\|^2 - \|x-y\|^2 + i\|x+iy\|^2 - i\|x-iy\|^2$

(parallelogram law)

Th  $\|x+y\|^2 + \|x-y\|^2 = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2$  (\*)

norm on all  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$  ! 20

if  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \in$  Banach Sp.  $\mathcal{H}$   
 then  $\cdot$  is ~~the~~ true  
 if  $\mathcal{H}$  is Hilbert space  
 with (or) inner prod.

# Orthogonality

Let  $L$  be a closed subspace of  $H$   
 then for any  $x \in H$



$\exists$  a unique point  $y \in L$  s.t.

$$\|x - y\| = d(x, L) := \inf\{\|x - z\|, z \in L\}$$

We also have

$$(x - y, z) = 0 \quad \forall z \in L$$

Proof: Step 1

Put  $d = d(x, L)$

then  $\exists y_n \in L$  s.t.  $\|x - y_n\| \rightarrow d$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Use parallelogram law to  $x - y_n$  &  $x - y_m$

$$\|y_n - y_m\|^2 = -\|2x - y_n - y_m\|^2 + 2\|x - y_n\|^2 + 2\|x - y_m\|^2$$

$$= 2\|x - y_n\|^2 + 2\|x - y_m\|^2 -$$

$$4\left\|x - \frac{y_n + y_m}{2}\right\|^2 \leq$$

$$\leq 2\|x - y_n\|^2 + 2\|x - y_m\|^2 - 4d^2 \xrightarrow{n, m \rightarrow \infty} 4d^2 - 4d^2 = 0$$

thus  $\|y_n - y_m\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$  and

there is a limit

$$y = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n \in L$$

Also  $\|x - y\| = \lim \|x - y_n\| = d$

$y$  is called  
 orthogonal  
 projection

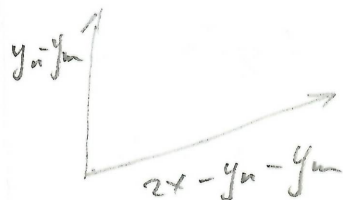
in Banach  
 space

this doesn't  
 work general

$\Rightarrow$  i.e. you can  
 find e.g. s.t.

limit

s.t.  $\|x - y_n\| \rightarrow d$



$$y_n - y_m + 2x - y_n - y_m =$$

$$= 2x - y_m - y_n$$

$> ?$

$y_n$  conv. as  $y_n \in L$   
 $\forall H$  in Banach

## Step 2

Let  $z \in L$ , we can assume that  $\|z\| = 1$

Put  $w = y + \lambda z \in L$  ( $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ )

Then  $d^2 \leq \|x - w\|^2 = (x - y - \lambda z, x - y - \lambda z)$  need to use <sup>21</sup> properties of  $(,)$

$$= \|x - y\|^2 - \lambda(z, x - y) - \bar{\lambda}(x - y, z) + |\lambda|^2$$

$$\stackrel{x \perp z = (x, y, z)}{=} \|x - y\|^2 - |\lambda|^2 = d^2 - |\lambda|^2$$

Thus,  $\lambda = 0 = (x - y, z)$  [1]

Step 3 uniqueness

Suppose  $y_1$  is another point s.t.

$y_1 \in L$  and

$$\|y_1 - x\| = d.$$

Then step 2 implies  $(y_1 - x, z) = 0 \forall z \in L$  [2]

Then  $(y - y_1, z) \forall z \in L$  (2)

Take  $z = y - y_1$

$$\|y - y_1\|^2 = (y - y_1, y - y_1) = 0 \quad \# \quad \square$$

Def let  $M \subset \mathcal{H}$  be any set  
the orthogonal complement is

$$M^\perp = \{x \in \mathcal{H}, (x, y) = 0 \forall y \in M\}$$

Th (1)  $M^\perp$  is a closed linear subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$

(2)  $M_1 \subset M_2 \Rightarrow M_2^\perp \subseteq M_1^\perp$

(3)  $M^{\perp\perp} \supset M$

$$(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} m;$$

$$(4) M^\perp = \overline{\text{Span}(M)} \quad (\text{H/W 6})$$

(5) Suppose  $M \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  dense in  $\mathcal{H}$   
then  $M^\perp = \{0\}$

Proof: exercise

Ex Let  $M$  be a dense linear subspace  $\mathcal{H}$   
then  $\mathcal{H} = M \oplus M^\perp$

Proof: let  $x \in \mathcal{H}$   
use orthogonality theorem to find  $y \in M$   
with  $\|x - y\| = d(x, M)$ .

then  $(x - y, z) = 0 \quad \forall z \in M$

$$\text{so } x - y \in M^\perp$$

$$x = y + \underbrace{x - y}_{\in M^\perp}$$

Now let us prove that

$$M \cap M^\perp = \{0\}.$$

let  $x \in M \cap M^\perp$

$$\text{then } (x, x) = 0, \text{ so } x = 0.$$

$$\|x\|^2$$

□

Def. A set  $\{e_j\}_{j \in J}$  is called orthonormal system

$$\text{if } (e_j, e_k) = \begin{cases} 0, & j \neq k \\ 1, & j = k \end{cases}$$

used to orthog.  $\mathcal{H}$   
to prove (4)

$$M \text{ is dense in } \mathcal{H} \\ (M = \mathcal{H})$$

Th Any orthonormal system  $\rightarrow$  linearly independent

Proof: obvious

def. let  $x \in \mathcal{H}$   
we call  $(x, e_j)$  the Fourier coefficient of  $x$  w.r.t. the system  $\{e_j\}$

$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (x, e_j) e_j$   
is Fourier series.

Th (Parseval inequality)  
 $\|x\|^2 \geq \sum_{j \in J} |(x, e_j)|^2$

there possibly are uncountably many zeroes and countably many non-zeroes.

Th let  $\{e_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be an orthonormal system  
 $c_n \in \mathbb{F}$  satisfies  $\sum |c_n|^2 < +\infty$

then  $\exists x \in \mathcal{H}$  s.t.  $c_n = (x, e_n)$

we can choose  
Moreover  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n e_n$  strong convergence

Th-Def. let  $\{e_n\}$  be an orthonormal system

T.F. A.E

(1)  $\forall x \in \mathcal{H}$ :  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x, e_n) e_n$

(2)  $\forall x \in \mathcal{H}$ :  $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |(x, e_n)|^2$

(3)  $(x, e_n) = 0 \forall n \rightarrow x = 0$

(4) Span  $\{e_n\} = \mathcal{H}$

Parseval's Identity

such systems are called complete orthonormal systems.

Proof: in functional analysis.

26/11/2012

$$L_2 \{e_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

$$e_n = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$$

$$L_2(0, 2\pi)$$

$$e_n = \frac{e^{int}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$\{e_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$$

Th. (Riesz representation thm-m)

let  $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  be a bounded linear functional

then  $\exists! z \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\text{s.t. } f(x) = (x, z) \quad (\forall x \in \mathcal{H})$$

$$\text{Moreover, } \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}^*} = \|z\|_{\mathcal{H}}$$

Proof: ( $\exists$ ) if  $f = 0$ , then  $z = 0$

Suppose,  $f \neq 0$ .  
then  $\ker f \subsetneq \mathcal{H}$  closed

therefore  $(\ker f)^\perp \neq \{0\}$

take  $y \in (\ker f)^\perp$ ,  $y \neq 0$

then  $\forall x \in \mathcal{H}$

$$f(x)y = f(y)x \in \ker f$$

$\mathcal{H}/\mathcal{W}$ :  
uniqueness  
& rest

and, therefore,

$$\langle f(x)y - f(y)x, y \rangle = 0$$

$$\|f(x)\| \|y\|^2 = (x, \overline{f(y)}y)$$

thus,  $f(x) = (x, z)$ , where  $z$

$$z = \frac{\overline{f(y)}y}{\|y\|^2} \quad \square$$

Th. Let  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2)$

Then  $\exists!$  operator  $A^* \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_2, \mathcal{H}_1)$

$\text{r.t. } (Ax, y) = (x, A^*y)$   
 $x \in \mathcal{H}_1$   
 $y \in \mathcal{H}_2$

Moreover,  $\|A^*\| \leq \|A\|$

def:  $A^*$  is called **adjoint operator** of  $A$

Proof: let  $y \in \mathcal{H}_2$ .

then  $x \mapsto (Ax, y) \stackrel{=: f(x)}{=} \dots$  is a lin. functional

Moreover,  $|f(x)| = |(Ax, y)| \leq \|A\| \|x\| \|y\|$ ,

*Cauchy-Schwarz*

so  $f$  is bounded and

$$\|f\| \leq \|A\| \|y\|$$

therefore,  $\exists!$   $z \in \mathcal{H}_1$  s.t.

$$f(x) = (x, z)$$

$$(x, \overline{f(y)})$$



Moreover,  $\langle Az, z \rangle = \langle Az, z \rangle \leq \|Az\| \|z\|$

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, Ay \rangle$$

we define  $A^*y := z$

then  $A^*$  is linear

Moreover,  $\frac{\|A^*y\|}{\|y\|} \leq \|A\|$ ,

thus  $\|A^*\| \leq \|A\|$ .  $\square$

sh. Properties of Adjoint operator

(i)  $(\alpha_1 A_1 + \alpha_2 A_2)^* = \bar{\alpha}_1 A_1^* + \bar{\alpha}_2 A_2^*$

$A_1, A_2 \in B(\mathcal{R})$

$\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{F}$

(ii)  $(AB)^* = B^* A^*$

(iii)  $A^{**} = A$

(iv)  $\|A^*\| = \|A\|$

(v)  $\|A^* A\| = \|A A^*\| = \|A\|^2$

(vi) If  $A^{-1}$  exists

then  $(A^*)^{-1}$  exists

and  $(A^*)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^*$

sh/w: check

all in the same space of product means same.

Proof:

$$(ii) (ABx, y) = (Bx, A^*y) = (x, B^*A^*y) = (x, (AB)^*y)$$

Therefore  $(x, \underbrace{B^*A^*y - (AB)^*y}_{=0}) = 0$

taking  $x =$   we see that  $B^*A^*y \leq (AB)^*y \leq y$

-  $C^*$  algebra  
- algebra with involution

(iv) we proved  $\|A^*y\| \leq \|A\| \|y\|$

Therefore  $A = \|A\| A^{\circ} \leq A^*$

(v) We have:  $\|A^*A\| \leq \|A^*\| \|A\| = \|A\|^2$

On the other hand

$$\|A\|^2 = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|^2 = \sup_{\|x\|=1} (Ax, Ax) = \sup_{\|x\|=1} (A^*Ax, x)$$

$$\leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|A^*Ax\| = \|A^*A\| = \|A\|^2$$

just to be on safe side

(vi)  $A^{-1}A = I = AA^{-1}$

Therefore,  $(A^{-1}A)^* = I^* = I = (AA^{-1})^*$

$$\Rightarrow (A^*)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^* \quad \square$$

$\Downarrow$   $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$

then  $\text{Ker}(A^*) = (\text{Ran } A)^\perp$

$\text{Ker}(A) = (\text{Ran}(A^*))^\perp$

Proof:  $y \in \ker(A^*) \Leftrightarrow A^*y = 0$   
 $\Leftrightarrow x(A^*y) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{H}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow (Ax, y) = 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{H}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow y \in (\text{Ran } A)^\perp$

Corollary  $(\ker A^*)^\perp = \overline{\text{Ran } A}$

$(\ker A)^\perp = \overline{\text{Ran } A^*}$

Def. let  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$

(i)  $A$  is **self-adjoint** (symmetric),

if  $A^* = A$

i.e.  $(Ax, y) = (x, Ay) \quad \forall x, y$

(ii)  $A$  is **normal** if  $AA^* = A^*A$

(iv)  $U$  is **unitary**, if  $U^* = U^{-1}$

i.e.  $UU^* = U^*U = I$

Def. let  $A : D_A \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  be an unbounded operator, with domain  $D_A \subset \mathcal{H}$  and  $\overline{D_A} = \mathcal{H}$

for given  $y \in \mathcal{H}$ , consider the functional  $f : D_A \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$

$x \mapsto (Ax, y) =: f(x)$   
 $x \in D_A$

Suppose that for a given  $y$  this

functional has a form  $f(x) = (x, z)$

where  $z \rightarrow$  unique

then we say that  $\boxed{y \in D_{A^*} \text{ and } A^*y = z}$

if  $f(x)$  can not be expressed as  $(x, z)$

we say that  $\boxed{y \in D_{A^*}}$

$$(x, y) = (x, A^*y)$$

we need  
 $D_{A^*} = \mathcal{H}$   
to guarantee

→ just for some  
values of  $y$ ,  
e.g.  $y=0$ .

Def. An unbounded operator is called  
a self-adjoint operator if

$$(1) D_{A^*} = D_A, \text{ and}$$

$$(2) A^* = A$$

Def  $A$  is symmetric, if

$$(Ax, y) = (x, Ay), \quad \forall x, y \in D_A$$

This means that  $A^*$  is extension of  $A$

$(A^* \supset A)$  meaning: that

$$D_{A^*} \supset D_A \quad \text{and}$$

$$\boxed{A^*|_{D_A} = A|_{D_A}}$$

Examples  $L_2[0, 1]$

$$Af = if'$$

$$D_A = \{f \in L_2, f' \in L_2\} = \mathcal{H}^1[0, 1] = W^{1,2}$$

= called Sobolev  
space

$$(A f, g) = i \int_0^1 f' \bar{g} = \underline{i f g|_0^1 + i \int_0^1 f (g')} \stackrel{?}{=} \\ \stackrel{?}{=} (A^* g, f) \\ = \int_0^1 f \overline{A^* g}$$

Thus,  $A^* g = i g'$

$$D_{A^*} = \{ g \in L_2, g' \in L_2, g(0) = 0, g(1) = 0 \}$$

$$A f = i f' \quad D_A = \{ f \in H^1, f(0) = 0, f(1) = 0 \}$$

$$(A f, g) = i \int_0^1 f' \bar{g} = i [f(1) \bar{g}(1) - f(0) \bar{g}(0)] + \\ + i \int_0^1 f \overline{(i g')}$$

Thus  $A^* g = i g'$  (the same formula)

$$D_{A^*} = \{ g \in L_2, g' \in L_2 \}$$

self-adjoint ex.

$$D_A = \{ f \in H^1, f(0) = f(1) \}$$

Thus  $D_{A^*} = \{ g \in L_2, g' \in L_2, g(1) = g(0) \}$

$\Rightarrow A \rightarrow$  self-adjoint.

Example  $L_2(0,1)$

$$Af = -f'' \quad (\text{or } Af = -f'' + q(x)f(x)) \rightarrow \text{Schrödinger operator}$$

$$D_A = \{f \in L_2, f'' \in L_2, f' \in L_2\} = \mathcal{H}^2 \quad \text{interesting operator}$$

$$(Af, g) = -\int_0^1 f'' \bar{g} = -f' \bar{g}' \Big|_0^1 + \int_0^1 f' \bar{g}' = \text{have to see spectrum}$$

$$= \left[ -f(1)\bar{g}'(1) + f'(0)\bar{g}(0) + f(1)\bar{g}'(1) - f(0)\bar{g}'(0) \right]$$

$$- \int_0^1 f \bar{g}''$$

$$D_{A^*} = \{g \in \mathcal{H}^2, g(1) = g(0) = g'(1) = g'(0) = 0\}$$

Self-adjoint boundary conditions:

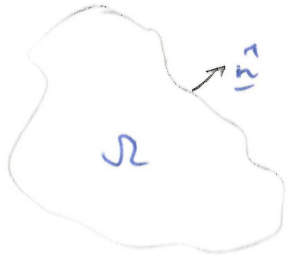
$$(1) \begin{cases} f(1) = \beta f(0) \\ f'(1) = \beta f'(0) \end{cases} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Periodic b.c.} \\ |\beta| = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$(2) \begin{cases} f'(1) = \alpha f(1) \\ f'(0) = \alpha f(0) \end{cases} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Robin b.c.} \\ \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$(3) f(0) = f(1) = 0 \quad \text{Dirichlet B.C.}$$

$$(4) f'(0) = f'(1) = 0 \quad \text{Neumann b.c.}$$

Example



$$\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$$

$\partial\Omega \rightarrow$  smooth for simplicity

$$\mathcal{H} = L_2(\Omega)$$

$\rightarrow$  means a well-defined outside bounding section

$$A f = -\Delta f$$

$$:= - \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j^2}$$

$$D_A = \{ f \in L_2, \partial_j f \in L_2, \partial_{j_k} f \in L_2 \} \\ = \mathcal{H}^2(\Omega)$$

$$\partial_j = \partial_{x_j}$$

via Green's formula = integr. by part in diff. eq.

$$(A f, g) = - \int_{\Omega} \Delta f \cdot g = \int_{\Omega} \partial_{\vec{n}} f \cdot g + \int_{\Omega} \nabla f \cdot \nabla g \\ = - \int_{\partial\Omega} \partial_{\vec{n}} f \cdot g + \int_{\Omega} f \cdot \Delta g$$

$$A^* g = -\Delta g$$

$$D_{A^*} = \{ g \in \mathcal{H}^2(\Omega), g|_{\partial\Omega} = 0, \partial_{\vec{n}} g|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \}$$

self-adjoint B.C.

$$(1) f|_{\partial\Omega} = 0$$

Dirichlet B.C.

$$(2) \partial_{\vec{n}} f|_{\partial\Omega} = 0$$

Neumann B.C.

$$(3) \partial\Omega = \partial_1\Omega \cup \partial_2\Omega$$

Mixed B.C.

$$f|_{\partial_1\Omega} = 0$$

$$\partial_{\vec{n}} f|_{\partial_2\Omega} = 0$$

$$(4) \partial_{\vec{n}} f|_{\partial\Omega} = \alpha f|_{\partial\Omega} \quad (\text{Robin B.C.})$$

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

sh  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$

$A$  is normal iff.

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{H} \quad \|Ax\| = \|A^*x\|$$

Proof:

$$\Rightarrow \|Ax\|^2 = (Ax, Ax) = (x, A^*Ax) \quad \text{if } A \text{ is normal}$$

$$\|A^*x\|^2 = (A^*x, A^*x) = (x, AA^*x)$$

~~if  $A$~~

$$\textcircled{2} \text{ We know that } (Ax, Ax) = (A^*x, A^*x)$$

$$(Ax, Ay) = (A^*x, A^*y)$$

Use polarization identity:

$$\forall x, y \in \mathcal{H} \quad (Ax, Ay) = (A^*x, A^*y)$$

$$\text{Therefore, } (A^*Ax - AA^*x, y) = 0$$

$$\text{and } A^*Ax - AA^*x = 0,$$

$$\text{so } A^*A = AA^* \quad \square$$

sh Suppose  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  ~~be bounded~~ <sup>normal</sup>

$$\text{Then (1) } \begin{cases} (\text{Ran } A^*)^\perp = \text{Ker } A \\ (\text{Ran } A)^\perp = \text{Ker } A^* \end{cases}$$

$$(2) \quad Ax = \lambda x \Rightarrow A^*x = \bar{\lambda}x$$

(3) Eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues of  $A$  are orthogonal to each other



Proof: (1)  $\|Ax\| = \|A^*x\|$ , so

$$x \in \ker A \Leftrightarrow x \in \ker A^*$$

$$(2) Ax = \lambda x \Leftrightarrow A^*x = \lambda x$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in \ker(A - \lambda I)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in \ker(A - \lambda I)^* = \ker(A^* - \lambda I)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow A^*x = \lambda x$$

(3) Suppose,  $Ax = \lambda x$  and

$$Ay = \beta y, \lambda \neq \beta$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, y \rangle &= \langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle = \langle x, \beta y \rangle \\ &= \beta \langle x, y \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{as } \lambda \neq \beta \Rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \quad \square$$

Sh Self-adjoint operator properties

Suppose  $A \in B(V)$ ,  $A = A^*$

$$(1) \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \lambda A \text{ is a self-adj.}$$

$$(2) A_1 + A_2 \text{ is a self-adj. op.}$$

(3) If also  $A_1 A_2 = A_2 A_1$  (commute)

$$\text{then } A_1 A_2 \text{ is s.-a.}$$

$$(4) \|A_n - A\| \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0, A_n \text{ are s. a.}$$

then  $A$  is self-adj.

$$\text{LHS} = 0 \quad \text{RHS} = 0$$

$$(A_1 A_2)^* = A_2^* A_1^* =$$

$$A_2 A_1 = A_1 A_2$$

Proof: Exercise!

Def let  $A \in \mathcal{B}(H)$   
the quadratic form of  $A$

$$q_A(x) := (Ax, x)$$
$$q_A : H \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

If  $A$  is s-a then  
 $(Ax, x) = (x, Ax) = \overline{(Ax, x)}$

so  $(Ax, x) \in \mathbb{R}$

Thm let  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$

then  $A = A^* \iff q_A(x) \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in H$

Proof:  $\Rightarrow$  have already proved

$\Leftarrow (Ax, x) = \overline{(Ax, x)} = (x, Ax)$

We need to prove:

$(Ax, y) = (x, Ay)$

But  $(Ax, Ay) = (A(x+y), A(x+y)) - (A(x-y), A(x-y)) + i(A(x+iy), A(x+iy)) - i(A(x-iy), A(x-iy))$

polarization identity for operator

03/12/12

Corollary If  $A = A^*$  then all its eigenvalues are real, and eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal to each other.

Proof Suppose,  $\forall x \Rightarrow x$ .

Then  $\lambda = \frac{(Ax, x)}{\|x\|^2} \in \mathbb{R} \quad \square$

The 2<sup>nd</sup> st.:  
 (orthogonality  
 we) has  
 been proved  
 for normal  $A$ .  
 & self-adj. are  
 normal

Shw Suppose,  $P \in \mathcal{B}(H)$  is a projection  
T.F.A.T:  
 (1)  $P$  is s. a.  
 (2)  $P$  is normal  
 (3)  $\text{Ran } P = (\text{Ker } P)^\perp$   
 (4)  $(Px, x) = \|Px\|^2, \forall x \in H$

Proof: (i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii) obvious  
 (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii) for normal  
 operators we have:

$\text{Ker } P = (\text{Ran } P)^\perp$

$\therefore (\text{Ker } P)^\perp = \overline{\text{Ran } P} = \text{Ran } P$

since  $P$  is a projection

(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i)

Recall:  $\text{Ran } P = \text{Ker}(I-P)$

and  $\text{Ker } P = \text{Ran}(I-P)$

$\Rightarrow \text{Ran } P = (\text{Ker } P)^\perp = \text{Ran}(I-P)^\perp$

Therefore,

$(Px, (I-P)y) = 0 = \langle (I-P)x, Py \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in H$

Thus,  $(Px, y) = (Px, y) + \underbrace{(I-P)x, y}_{=0} = (Px, Py)$

$= (Px, Py) + \underbrace{(I-P)x, Py}_{=0} = (x, Py)$

$\therefore P$  is symmetric (= self-adjoint)

(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iv)

We have:  $(Px, (I-P)x) = 0$ , therefore

$$(Px, x) = (Px, P) - \underbrace{(Px, (I-P)x)}_{=0} = (Px, Px) = \|Px\|^2$$

iv  $\Rightarrow$  i

Suppose  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ .

Then,  $(Px, x) = \|Px\|^2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , so  $P \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

Suppose,  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ , □

! exercise on exam!

Def. If  $P$  is a projection and any (all) of these conditions are satisfied then  $P$  is called *orthogonal projection*

sh Suppose  $A \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ , and  $c > 0, c \in \mathbb{R}$   
 s.t.  $|(Ax, x)| \geq c \|x\|^2$   
 then  $\cdot A$  is invertible, and  
 $\cdot \|A\|^{-1} \leq \frac{1}{c}$

$$(0, x) = (0, v, v) = 0 \cdot (x, x) = 0!$$

Proof: we have:

$$c \|x\|^2 \leq |(Ax, x)| \leq \|Ax\| \|x\|$$

so  $\|Ax\| \geq c \|x\|$ , and, by theorem ...

$\text{Ker } A = \{0\}$  and  $\text{Ran } A$  is closed

Suppose,  $x \in (\text{Ran } A)^\perp$

then  $(Ax, x) = 0$  so  $x = 0$

thus  $(\text{Ran } A)^\perp = \{0\}$ , and

$$\text{Ran } A = \{0\}^\perp = H$$

"  $\text{Ran } A$  Thus  $A$  is invertible

The inequality

$$\|A^{-1}\| \leq \frac{1}{c} \text{ follows from } \square$$

Def Let  $A \in B(\mathbb{K})$ . The following set is called the **numerical range** of  $A$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Num } A &:= \{ (Ax, x), \|x\| = 1 \} = \\ &= \left\{ \frac{(Ax, x)}{\|x\|^2} \mid x \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Remark

1. Num  $A$  is convex

2.  $\text{Num } A \subset B_c(0, \|A\|)$

Th

$$\sigma(A) \subset \overline{\text{Num } A}$$

Proof: Suppose  $x \notin \overline{\text{Num } A}$

$$\Rightarrow \exists d = d(x, \overline{\text{Num } A}) > 0$$

s.t.  $\forall x \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  satisfies

$$\left| \frac{(Ax, x)}{\|x\|^2} - \lambda \right| \geq d$$

$$\text{therefore } |(Ax, x) - \lambda(x, x)| \geq d \|x\|^2$$

$$|((A - \lambda I)x, x)| \geq d \|x\|^2$$

$\therefore$  by prev. th.  $A - \lambda I$  is inv,

$$\text{so } \lambda \in \sigma(A)$$

therefore  $\sigma(A) \subset \overline{\text{Num } A} \quad \square$

Th

$$\text{let } A = A^* \\ \text{then } \|A\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |(Ax, x)|$$

Proof: Put  $c := \sup_{\|x\|=1} |(Ax, x)|$

if  $x_1, x_2 \in A$



Num  $A$  is not always closed.

then  $c \leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\| \cdot \|x\| = \|A\|$

$$c := \sup_{x \neq 0} |(Ax, x)| = 30$$

let us prove that  $\|Ax\| \leq c$ , or  
 $\|Ax\| \leq c$  for each  $\|x\| = 1$

$$\sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{|(Ax, x)|}{\|x\|^2}$$

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} & (A(x+y), x+y) - (A(x-y), x-y) = \\ &= 2(Ay, x) + 2(Ax, y) = \\ &= 2[(Ax, y) + \overline{(Ax, y)}] = 4 \operatorname{Re}[(Ax, y)] \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{|(Ax, x)|}{\|x\|^2} \leq c$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} 4 \operatorname{Re}[(Ax, y)] &\leq c \|x+y\|^2 + c \|x-y\|^2 = \\ & \stackrel{\text{Par. law}}{=} c (2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2) = 4c \end{aligned}$$

Suppose,  $Ax = 0$ , then  $\|Ax\| \leq c$ .

Suppose,  $Ax \neq 0$  i.e.  $\|Ax\| > 0$

then we put  $y = \frac{Ax}{\|Ax\|}$

and get:  $\operatorname{Re}(Ax, y) \leq c$

$$\frac{\|Ax\|^2}{\|Ax\|} = \|Ax\|$$

$$\text{so } \|Ax\| \leq c \quad \text{if } \|x\| = 1$$

$\therefore \|A\| = c$  Q.E.D.  $\square$

Sh. Let  $A = A^*$

Put  $m = \inf_{\|x\|=1} (Ax, x)$  ~~is it~~

$$= \inf_{x \neq 0} \frac{(Ax, x)}{\|x\|^2}$$

$$M = \sup_{\|x\|=1} (Ax, x)$$

Therefore

$$(1) \sigma(A) \subset [m, M]$$

$$(2) m, M \in \sigma(A)$$

Proof. (1) We have proved that

$$\overline{\text{Num } A} = [m, M] \text{ and}$$

therefore  $\sigma(A) \subset [m, M]$

$$(2) \begin{array}{c} \alpha = \frac{m+M}{2} \\ \text{---} \left[ \begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \text{---} \end{array} \right] \text{---} \\ \text{---} \left[ \begin{array}{c} m \\ \text{---} \end{array} \right] \text{---} \left[ \begin{array}{c} M \\ \text{---} \end{array} \right] \text{---} \\ \beta = \frac{M-m}{2} \end{array}$$

$$\text{Put } \alpha = \frac{m+M}{2}$$

$$\beta = \frac{M-m}{2}$$

Define  $B = A - \alpha I$ , ( $B$  is s. adj.)

$$\text{then, } \inf_{\|x\|=1} (Bx, x) = m - \alpha = \frac{m-M}{2} = -\beta$$

$$\text{and } \sup_{\|x\|=1} (Bx, x) = M - \alpha = \beta$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{---} \left[ \begin{array}{c} \beta \\ \text{---} \end{array} \right] \text{---} \\ \text{---} \left[ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \text{---} \end{array} \right] \text{---} \\ -\beta \quad \quad \quad \beta \end{array}$$

then  $\sup_{\|x\|=1} |(Bx, x)| = \beta$  and

the prev. theorem implies  $\|B\| = \beta$

There exists a sequence  $x_n \in \mathcal{H}$ , s.t.

$$\|x_n\| = 1 \text{ and } (Bx_n, x_n) \rightarrow \beta$$

$$\text{then } \|(B - \beta I)x_n\|^2 = ((B - \beta I)x_n, (B - \beta I)x_n)$$

$$= \|Bx_n\|^2 + \beta^2 \|x_n\|^2 - 2\beta (Bx_n, x_n) \leq$$

$$\leq 2\beta^2 - 2\beta \underbrace{(Bx_n, x_n)}_{\rightarrow \beta} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

$$B = A - \alpha I$$

Claim: therefore,  $(B - \beta I)$  cannot have bounded inverse.

$$0 \in [m, M]$$

$$\text{or } 0 \in [m, M]$$

it doesn't matter

$$\text{as } A \text{ is s. a}$$

$$\alpha I \text{ is s. a}$$

Suppose not;  $(B - \beta I)^{-1} = R \rightarrow$  bounded  
Then  $1 = \|x_n\| = \|R (B - \beta I)x_n\| \leq \|R\| \| (B - \beta I)x_n \|$

Thus  $(B - \beta I) = A - (\alpha + \beta)I \xrightarrow{\alpha \rightarrow 0} A - MI$  is not invertible

so  $m \in \sigma(A)$

Similarly,  $n \in \sigma(A)$   $\square$

Corollary let  $A = A^*$   
then  $\exists \lambda \in \sigma(A)$  st.  
 $|\lambda| = \|A\|$

In particular,  $r(A) = \|A\|$

Corollary If  $A = A^*$  and  
 $\sigma(A) = \{0\}$   
then  $A = 0$

Th Suppose  $A$  is normal  
then  $\|A\| = r(A) = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |(Ax, x)|$



# Th (Hilbert - Schmidt)

Suppose,  $A = A^*$  is compact

then  $\exists$  an orthonormal set  $\{e_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  s.t.

$$Ae_n = \lambda_n e_n \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_n \neq 0$$

$\forall x \in \mathcal{H}$  has a decomposition

$$x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n e_n + y \quad \text{s.t.}$$

$$y \in \text{Ker } A \quad \text{and}$$

$$Ax = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \lambda_n e_n$$

Moreover,  $\sigma(A) \setminus \{0\} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \subset \mathbb{R}$

$$|\lambda_{n+1}| \leq |\lambda_n| \quad \text{and}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_n = 0 \quad \text{if } N = +\infty$$

Proof:  $A$  is compact, so

$\sigma(A) \setminus \{0\}$  is at most countable

and consists of points  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3, \dots, \mu_N$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_n = 0,$$

$$|\mu_1| \geq |\mu_2| \geq |\mu_3| \geq \dots$$

Since  $A = A^*$ ,  $\mu_j \in \mathbb{R}$

Denote by  $N_k$  the eigenspace corresponding to  $\mu_k$ ,  $\dim N_k < +\infty$

Take an orthonormal basis of each  $N_k$  and write the resulting collection of vectors in a sequence  $\{e_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  (so that elements of  $N_k$  come before elements of  $N_{k+1}$ )

$$N \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{+\infty\}$$

$$! c_n = (\lambda_n e_n)$$

= finite or infinite set

can be finite/infinite

if  $\mu_n$  are infinite

2 different  $\mu_k$ 's are orthogonal as

$$A = A^*$$

Then  $Ac_n = \lambda_n c_n$  for  $\lambda_n \in \{\mu_k\}$ .

Denote  $L = \overline{\text{span} \{c_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}}$

claim  $\text{Ker } A = L^{\perp}$

Proof:  $\text{Ker } A \subset L^{\perp}$ , since each 2 eigenfunctions corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

$\text{Ker } A \supset L^{\perp}$

Suppose,  $y \in L^{\perp}$ , then

$$(Ay, c_k) = (y, Ac_k) = \lambda_k (y, c_k) = 0,$$

So  $Ay \in L^{\perp}$ , thus  $L^{\perp}$  is invariant under  $A$ .

Consider  $B = A|_{L^{\perp}} \Rightarrow B$  is compact  
 $B$  is self-adj.

$B$  has no non-zero eigenvalue (since if  $Bx = \lambda x, \Rightarrow Ax = \lambda x$ , and by construction  $x \in L$ )

as  $A$  is compact  
 $B$  has no allowed to have non-zero eigenvalue.

Therefore,  $\sigma(B)$  has no non-zero points.

Since  $B$  is compact, any non-zero point in the spectrum is an eigenvalue  
so  $\sigma(B) = \{0\}$ , and  $\sigma(B) = 0$ , and

$$B = 0. \quad \square$$

Therefore,  $L^{\perp} = \text{Ker } A$   
and  $H = L \oplus \text{Ker } A \quad \square$

