

Inverse & Adjoint operators.

given $A: E \rightarrow E_1$

if $R_A \subseteq E_1$ is the range of A and

if A is 1:1 then A^{-1} exists.

Theorem: if A is a linear operator then
 A^{-1} is a linear operator.

Proof: see K+F.

Theorem: Let A be an invertible bounded linear operator $A: E \rightarrow E_1$ where E & E_1 are Banach spaces. Then A^{-1} is a bounded operator

proof 1: we just did it

proof 2: see K+F and see how their proof relates to the open mapping theorem

Theorem: Let A_0 be an invertible bounded linear operator $A_0: E \rightarrow E_1$ where E and E_1 are Banach spaces. Assume ΔA is another bounded linear operator such that

$$\|\Delta A\|_{\mathcal{L}(E, E_1)} < \frac{1}{\|A_0^{-1}\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1, E)}}$$

Then $A_0 + \Delta A$ is a bounded operator $E \rightarrow E_1$ and has a bounded inverse.

Note: this theorem is saying that if you have an invertible operator and you don't perturb it too much then it will remain invertible.

eg. $A_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$

$$A_0^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \|A_0^{-1}\| = 2$$

now imagine $\Delta A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \|\Delta A\| = \max\{|\lambda_i|\}$

if $\|\Delta A\| < \frac{1}{\|A_0^{-1}\|} = \frac{1}{2}$ then $\max\{|\lambda_i|\} < \frac{1}{2}$

$$\rightarrow A + \Delta A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 + \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} + \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

As long as $|\lambda_3| < \frac{1}{2}$ we're safe. and this is certainly true.

proof of theorem:

fix $y \in E_1$. Define

$$B: E \rightarrow E \quad \text{by}$$

$$Bx = A_0^{-1}y - A_0^{-1}(\Delta A)x$$

if we can find! \tilde{x} so that $B\tilde{x} = \tilde{x}$ then

$$\tilde{x} = A_0^{-1}y - A_0^{-1}\Delta A\tilde{x} = A_0^{-1}(y - \Delta A\tilde{x})$$

$$\rightarrow A_0\tilde{x} = y - \Delta A\tilde{x} \Rightarrow (A_0 + \Delta A)\tilde{x} = y \quad \text{and}$$

we've inverted $A_0 + \Delta A$

also since $A_0 + \Delta A$ is a bounded linear operator that is 1:1 and onto and then by previous theorem $(A_0 + \Delta A)^{-1}$ will be bounded operator. So all we need to do is find that unique \tilde{x} .
Do this w/ contraction mapping theorem.

$$\begin{aligned} \|Bx_0 - Bx_1\|_E &= \|A_0^{-1}y - A_0^{-1}\Delta Ax_0 - A_0^{-1}y + A_0^{-1}\Delta Ax_1\|_E \\ &= \|A_0^{-1}\Delta Ax_1 - A_0^{-1}\Delta Ax_0\|_E \\ &\leq \|A_0^{-1}\| \|\Delta Ax_1 - \Delta Ax_0\|_E \\ &\leq \|A_0^{-1}\| \|\Delta A\| \|x_1 - x_0\|_E \leq \alpha \|x_1 - x_0\|_E \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha < 1$. $\rightarrow \exists!$ fixed point and done. //

Q: Can we ever construct an inverse?

Thm:

assume E is a Banach space and $A: E \rightarrow E$ a bounded linear operator such that $\|A\| < 1$.

then $(I-A)^{-1}$ exists, is bounded, and can be represented as

$$(I-A)^{-1} = \sum_0^\infty A^k \quad \text{⊗}$$

WTHOAH! Geometric series for operators!

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_0^\infty x^k \text{ converges for } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ if } |x| < 1.$$

proof: since $I^{-1} = I$ and $\frac{1}{\|I^{-1}\|} = 1$

we have $\|A\| < \frac{1}{\|I^{-1}\|} \Rightarrow$

the existence and boundedness of $I-A$ is by the previous theorem. We just need the representation ⊗

Note: since $\|AB\| \leq \|A\|\|B\|$ for any

$A, B \in \mathcal{L}(E, E)$ we have

$$\|A^k\| \leq \|A\|^k$$

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$$\Rightarrow \sum_0^{\infty} \|A^k\| \leq \sum_0^{\infty} \|A\|^k < \infty \quad \text{since } \|A\| < 1.$$

Since $\sum_0^{\infty} \|A^k\| < \infty$ and $\mathcal{L}(E, E)$ is complete,

this implies that $\sum_0^n A^k$ converges to an element of $\mathcal{L}(E, E)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. i.e.

$\sum_0^{\infty} A^k$ is a bounded linear operator from E to E .

Now we just want to check that

$\sum_0^{\infty} A^k$ is the inverse of $I - A$.

We do this just via w/ geometric series,

let $B_n = \sum_0^n A^k$ we want to show

that as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $B_n \rightarrow (I - A)^{-1}$.

$$(I - A)B_n = (I - A) \sum_0^n A^k = I - A^{n+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|(I - A)B_n - I\| = \|A^{n+1}\| \leq \|A\|^{n+1} \quad \text{and RHS} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow (I - A)B_n \rightarrow I \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_0^{\infty} A^k = (I - A)^{-1} \quad //$$

Adjoint operators.

Recall from linear algebra:

A an $n \times m$ matrix

$$A: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

then we define the adjoint of A , $A^*: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$
by using the inner product:

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \langle x, A^*y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^m} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{for all } y \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^m \end{array}$$

If A is real-valued then $A^* = A^t$ $(A^*)_{ij} = A_{ji}$

Q: How do we go to ∞ dimensions?

A: It's clear what to do if

$$A: E \rightarrow E_1$$

where E and E_1 have inner products. But
what if they don't have inner products?

let E and E_1 be topological vector spaces and $A: E \rightarrow E_1$ a continuous linear operator.

fix $\phi \in E_1^*$

then $\phi(Ax) \in \mathbb{R}$

and $x \rightarrow \phi(Ax)$ is a continuous linear real-valued functional on E .

i.e. $x \rightarrow \phi(Ax) \cup$ in E^*

$\Rightarrow \exists \psi \in E^*$ so that $x \rightarrow \psi(x)$

\cup the same as $x \rightarrow \phi(Ax)$

$$(\phi, Ax) = (\psi, x) \quad \forall x$$

we call $\psi = A^*\phi$

$$\text{i.e. } (\phi, Ax) = (A^*\phi, x) \quad \forall x$$

$$\text{i.e. } \phi(Ax) = A^*\phi(x) \quad \forall x$$

($A^*\phi$ is the pull-back of ϕ .)

$$A^*: E_1^* \rightarrow E^*$$

claim: A^* is linear.

$$A^*(\phi + \tilde{\phi}) \stackrel{?}{=} A^*\phi + A^*\tilde{\phi}$$

know $(A^*(\phi + \tilde{\phi}))(x) = (\phi + \tilde{\phi})(Ax) \quad \forall x \in E$

$$= \phi(Ax) + \tilde{\phi}(Ax)$$
$$= A^*\phi(x) + A^*\tilde{\phi}(x)$$

true $\forall x \in E \Rightarrow A^*(\phi + \tilde{\phi}) = A^*\phi + A^*\tilde{\phi}$.

check $A^*(\alpha\phi) = \alpha A^*\phi$ similarly

$$= (\alpha A)^* \phi$$

and $(A+B)^* = A^* + B^*$

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(E, E_1)$ where E and E_1 are Banach spaces and let A^* be the adjoint of A , $A^*: E_1^* \rightarrow E^*$
then A^* is bounded and

$$\|A^*\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1^*, E^*)} = \|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(E, E_1)}$$

Proof: fix $x \in E$

$$\begin{aligned} |A^* \phi(x)| &= |\phi(Ax)| \leq \|\phi\|_{E_1^*} \|Ax\|_{E_1} \\ &\leq \|\phi\|_{E_1^*} \|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(E, E_1)} \|x\|_E \end{aligned}$$

this is true $\forall x \in E$

$$\Rightarrow \|A^* \phi\|_{E^*} \leq \|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(E, E_1)} \|\phi\|_{E_1^*}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A^*\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1^*, E^*)} \leq \|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(E, E_1)}$$

Now in the other direction. take $x_0 \in E$ so that $Ax_0 \neq \vec{0}$.

define $y_0 = \frac{Ax_0}{\|Ax_0\|_{E_1}} \in E_1$.

use y_0 to define $g \in E_1^*$ via Hahn-Banach.

i.e. $g(Ay_0) = 1$ (define g on $\text{span}\{y_0\}$)

then extend g to all of E_1 . $\Rightarrow \|g\|_{E_1^*} = 1$

Note: $g(y_0) = 1$ and $g(Ax_0) = \|Ax_0\|_{E_1}$

Now pull this g back using A^* .

$$\|Ax_0\|_{E_1} = |g(Ax_0)| = |A^*g(x_0)|$$

$$\leq \|A^*g\|_{E^*} \|x_0\|_E$$

$$\leq \|A^*\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1^*, E^*)} \|g\|_{E_1^*} \|x_0\|_E$$

$$= \|A^*\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1^*, E^*)} \|x_0\|_E$$

$$\text{since } \|g\|_{E_1^*} = 1$$

(note! Here we used that A^* is a bounded linear op. from E_1^* to E^*)

$$\Rightarrow \|Ax_0\|_{E_1} \leq \|A^*\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1^*, E^*)} \|x_0\|_E$$

Now let x_0 vary.

\Rightarrow We've just shown

$$\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(E, E_1)} \leq \|A^*\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1^*, E^*)}.$$

Combining the two inequalities,

$$\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(E, E_1)} = \|A^*\|_{\mathcal{L}(E_1^*, E^*)}.$$

Now return to Hilbert spaces.

We know that if $\phi \in H^*$ then $\exists! y \in H$
 so that $\phi(x) = \langle x, y \rangle \quad \forall x \in H$.

$\tau: H \rightarrow H^*$ where $\tau(y) = \langle \cdot, y \rangle$ is an
 isomorphism between H and H^* .

Fix $A: H \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator
 then $A^*: H^* \rightarrow H^*$ is its adjoint

and

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H & & H \\ \tau \downarrow & & \uparrow \tau^{-1} \\ H^* & \xrightarrow{A^*} & H^* \end{array}$$

is a bounded linear
 operator from H to H .
 call it \tilde{A}^*

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{A}^* = \tau^{-1} A^* \tau \quad \Rightarrow \tau \tilde{A}^* = A^* \tau$$

$$\text{let } y \in H \text{ then } A^* \tau(y)(x) = \tau(y)(Ax) \\ = \langle Ax, y \rangle$$

$$\text{on the other hand } \tau \tilde{A}^*(y)(x) = \langle x, \tilde{A}^* y \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, \tilde{A}^* y \rangle \quad \forall x \in H, \forall y \in H$$

In this way given $A^*: H^* \rightarrow H^*$ we define a
 unique $\tilde{A}^*: H \rightarrow H$. In an abuse of notation, $\tilde{A}^* = A^*$

$$\text{and } \langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^* y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \quad A^*: H \rightarrow H.$$

if $A: H \rightarrow H$ where H is a Hilbert space
and A is bounded + linear, this makes
us ask if $A^*: H \rightarrow H$ is the same as A .

defn: if H is a Hilbert space and $A: H \rightarrow H$
is a bounded linear operator then A is
self-adjoint if

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, Ay \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in H.$$

Oooh... Now we can begin to ask questions
about eigenvalues!

Recall if $A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and A is
symmetric ($A^T = A$) then A has a full
set of eigenvalues (n of them)

But what happens in infinite dimensions?

First, recall the finite dimensional case

$A: H \rightarrow H$ then $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of A
if the equation $Ax = \lambda x$

has at least one nonzero solution, $x \neq 0$
called an eigenvector of A . (I'm taking H
a complex vector space here)

then we say the set of all eigenvalues of A is the spectrum and all other values of λ are regular.

λ is regular $\Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I)$ is invertible

and in this case $(A - \lambda I)^{-1}$ is automatically bounded since a linear operator on a finite dimensional vector space is automatically bounded.

1.4 In finite dimensions there are 2 possibilities

- 1) \exists nonzero x so that $Ax = \lambda x$
(i.e. λ is eigenvalue and $(A - \lambda I)^{-1} \nexists$)
- 2) $(A - \lambda I)^{-1}$ exists and is bounded
(i.e. λ is a regular point)

In infinite dimensions, there's a third possibility:

- 3) $(A - \lambda I)^{-1}$ exists but is not bounded.

Rule 1: In infinite dimensions we consider complex topological vector spaces to avoid the $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ problem

New definitions for you to learn:

Given $A: E \rightarrow E$

the operator $R_\lambda = (A - \lambda I)^{-1}$ is called the resolvent of A.

λ is a regular point of A if $R_\lambda(x)$ is defined for all $x \in E$ and is continuous.

λ is in the spectrum of A if λ is not a regular point.

spectrum of A = (point spectrum of A) \cup (continuous spectrum of A)

λ is in the point spectrum of A if $R_\lambda(x)$ cannot be defined $\forall x \in E$

λ is in the continuous spectrum of A if R_λ can be defined on all E but it is not a continuous linear operator.

Q: When do we only have a point spectrum?

Q: Even if we only have a point spectrum, is that helpful?

Q: What does it mean to have a continuous spectrum?

Theorem: Let $A: E \rightarrow E$ where E is a Banach space
then the spectrum of A is closed.

Proof: It suffices to show that the set of regular points is open. Let λ be a regular point.
 $\Rightarrow (A - \lambda I)^{-1}$ exists and is bounded.

Choose $\delta < \frac{1}{\|(A - \lambda I)^{-1}\|}$. Consider $-\delta I: E \rightarrow E$

then $\|-\delta I\| < \frac{1}{\|(A - \lambda I)^{-1}\|}$

\Rightarrow Since E is complete

$(A - \lambda I) + (-\delta I)$ is invertible

and its inverse is a bounded linear operator. $\Rightarrow \delta + \lambda$ is a regular

point for all $|\delta| < \frac{1}{\|(A - \lambda I)^{-1}\|}$

\Rightarrow the set of regular points is open \Rightarrow spectrum is closed //

Theorem: if A is a bounded linear operator $A: E \rightarrow E$
where E is a Banach space and
 $|\lambda| \geq \|A\|$ then λ is a regular point

i.e. if A is a bounded linear operator
then $\text{Spectrum}(A) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is a bounded set

Proof:

$$A - \lambda I = -\lambda \left[I - \frac{A}{\lambda} \right]$$

and if we can invert $I - \frac{A}{\lambda}$ w/ $\left(I - \frac{A}{\lambda} \right)^{-1}$ being
a continuous linear operator then we
have $(A - \lambda I)^{-1}$ exists and is continuous.

$$\text{We know } \left\| -\frac{A}{\lambda} \right\| = \frac{\|A\|}{|\lambda|} < 1 = \frac{1}{\|I^{-1}\|}$$

and since E is a Banach space, this implies
 $\left(I - \frac{A}{\lambda} \right)^{-1}$ exists and is a continuous
linear operator $\Rightarrow \lambda$ is a regular point. //

Theorem: $A: H \rightarrow H$, A is a self adjoint operator,
 H a complex Hilbert space. Then 1) $\lambda \in \text{point spectrum} \Rightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and 2) eigenvectors of
distinct point spectrum values are
orthogonal.

That's just like what we learnt in linear algebra... it's just inner product games...

proof: if $Ax = \lambda x$ $x \neq 0$ then

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \langle x, x \rangle &= \langle \lambda x, x \rangle = \langle Ax, x \rangle \\ &= \langle x, Ax \rangle \quad \text{since } A \text{ self adj.} \\ &= \langle x, \lambda x \rangle \\ &= \bar{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{x} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \text{divide out } \langle x, x \rangle \Rightarrow \lambda = \bar{\lambda}. \quad \checkmark$$

assume $Ax = \lambda x$ $Ay = \mu y$ $x \neq 0, y \neq 0, \lambda \neq \mu$

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \langle x, y \rangle &= \langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \langle Ax, y \rangle \\ &= \langle x, Ay \rangle \\ &= \langle x, \mu y \rangle = \bar{\mu} \langle x, y \rangle = \mu \langle x, y \rangle \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \lambda \neq \mu \Rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \quad \checkmark,$$

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Q: Give me some bounded linear operators w/ interesting spectra... interesting ramifications.