## Lecture Notes for Week 6 (First Draft)

A General Spectral Representation Theorem

Let X be a complex Banach space and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;X)$  be given. For  $|\lambda| > r_{\sigma}(T)$  we have

$$R(\lambda;T) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{T}{\lambda}\right)^n. \tag{1}$$

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  be given. It follows from (1) that

$$\lambda^k R(\lambda; T) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^{k-n-1} T^n \text{ for } |\lambda| > r_{\sigma}(T).$$
 (2)

Let C be a circle in the complex plane with center at 0 and radius strictly greater than  $r_{\sigma}(T)$ , oriented counterclockwise. Recall that if m is an integer, then

$$\int_{C} \lambda^{m} d\lambda = \begin{cases}
2\pi i & \text{if } m = -1, \\
0 & \text{if } m \neq -1.
\end{cases}$$
(3)

It follows from (2) and (3) that

$$\int_C \lambda^k R(\lambda; T) \, d\lambda = 2\pi i A^k.$$

We have just proved the following important result.

**Theorem 6.1:** Let X be a complex Banach space (with  $X \neq \{0\}$ ) and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X; X)$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  be given. Let C be a circle in the complex plane with center at 0, radius strictly greater than  $r_{\sigma}(T)$ , and oriented in the counterclockwise direction. Then

$$T^{k} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C} \lambda^{k} R(\lambda; T) \, d\lambda;$$

in particluar

$$T = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \lambda R(\lambda; T) \, d\lambda.$$

This gives us a way to "extend" ordinary scalar analytic functions to analytic operator-valued functions. Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;X)$  and  $\rho > r_{\sigma}(T)$  be given. Assume that

$$f: \{z \in \mathbb{C}: |z| < \rho\} \to \mathbb{C}$$

is analytic and let C be a circle in  $\mathbb{C}$  centered at 0, having radius  $\gamma$ , with  $r_{\sigma}(T) < \gamma < \rho$ , and oriented in the counterclockwise direction. Then we can define

$$f(T) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C f(\lambda) R(\lambda; T) d\lambda.$$

One can prove many nice properties of f(T); in particular

$$\mu \in \sigma(f(T)) \iff \mu = f(\lambda) \text{ for some } \lambda \in \sigma(T).$$

Moreover if

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n \text{ for all } z \in \{ w \in \mathbb{C} : |w| < \rho \},$$

then

$$f(T) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n T^n.$$

**Remark 6.2**: In the integrals above, the circle C can be deformed to other "rectifiable" Jordan curves that lie within the domain of analyticity of f, contain  $\sigma(T)$  in the interior region, and have counterclockwise orientation.

Some Simple Remarks about Spectra

Recall that an operator  $B \in \mathcal{L}(X;X)$  is bijective if and only if the adjoint  $B^*$  is bijective and in this case we have

$$(B^{-1})^* = (B^*)^{-1}.$$

Moreover if  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X; X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$  then

$$(\lambda I - T)^* = \lambda I - T^*.$$

(Here \* indicates the Banach-space adjoint.)

Observe also that if  $\lambda \neq 0$  and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;X)$  is bijective then

$$\frac{1}{\lambda}I - T^{-1}$$
 is bijective  $\Leftrightarrow \lambda I - T$  is bijective.

The above observations yield the following simple, but very useful, results.

**Remark 6.3**: Let X be a Banach space and let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;X)$  be given.

(a) Then  $\sigma(T) = \sigma(T^*)$ . Moreover, for all  $\lambda \in \rho(T)$  we have  $R(\lambda; T^*) = (R(\lambda; T))^*$ .

(b) Assume that  $0 \in \rho(T)$  and let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  be given. Then  $\lambda \in \sigma(T^{-1})$  if and only if  $\lambda^{-1} \in \sigma(T)$ .

Applying Remark 6.3 to the special case when X is a Hilbert space we obtain the following useful observations.

**Remark 6.4**: Let X be a Hilbert space and let  $A \in \mathcal{L}(X; X)$  be given. Let  $A^*$  denote the Hilbert space adjoint of A.

- (a) Then  $\sigma(A^*) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{K} : \overline{\lambda} \in \sigma(A)\}$ . Moreover, for all  $\lambda \in \rho(A)$  we have  $R(\overline{\lambda}; A^*) = (R(\lambda; A))^*$ .
- (b) Assume that  $0 \in \rho(A)$  and let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  be given. Then  $\lambda \in \sigma(A^{-1})$  if and only if  $\lambda^{-1} \in \sigma(A)$ .
- (c) If A is self adjoint then  $\sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{R}$ .
- (d) If A is unitary then  $|\lambda| = 1$  for all  $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$ .

Spectral Theory of Compact Operators

**Proposition 6.5**: Let X be a Banach space and let  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  be given. Then  $\sigma_p(T)$  is countable and 0 is the only possible accumulation point.

**Proof**: For  $\epsilon > 0$  put

$$\Lambda_{\epsilon} = \{ \lambda \in \sigma_p(T) : |\lambda| \ge \epsilon. \}.$$

It suffices to show that  $\Lambda_{\epsilon}$  is a finite set for every  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\epsilon_0 > 0$  be given and suppose that  $\Lambda_{\epsilon_0}$  is infinite. Then we may choose an injective sequence  $\{\lambda_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $\Lambda_{\epsilon_0}$  and a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of corresponding eigenvectors. For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , put

$$M_n = \operatorname{span}\{x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n\},\$$

and observe that  $M_n$  is invariant under T, i.e.  $T[M_n] \subset M_n$ , and that  $M_n \subset M_{n+1}$ . Observe also that each  $M_n$  is a closed subspace of X.

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x \in M_n$  be given. Then we may choose  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{K}$  such that

$$x = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n.$$

Therefore we have

$$(\lambda_n I - T)x = (\lambda_n - \lambda_1)x_1 + (\lambda_n - \lambda_2)x_2 + \dots + (\lambda_n - \lambda_{n-1})x_{n-1} + 0.$$

It follows that

$$(\lambda_n I - T)[M_n] \subset M_{n-1}$$
. for  $n \ge 2$ .

Using the Riesz Lemma, we may choose a sequence  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that

$$y_n \in M_n$$
,  $||y_n|| = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\forall n \geq 2$$
, we have  $||y_n - x|| \geq \frac{1}{2}$  for all  $x \in M_{n-1}$ .

Now let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  with m < n be given and put

$$x = Ty_m + (\lambda_n I - T)y_n.$$

Notice that  $x \in M_{n-1}$  since  $Ty_m \in M_m \subset M_{n-1}$  and  $(\lambda_n I - T)y_n \in M_{n-1}$ . We have

$$Ty_n - Ty_m = \lambda_n y_n - (\lambda_n I - T)y_n - Ty_m = \lambda_n \left( y_n - \frac{1}{\lambda_n} x \right). \tag{4}$$

It follows from (4) that

$$||Ty_n - Ty_m|| \ge \frac{1}{2}|\lambda_n| \ge \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_0.$$

We conclude that  $\{Ty_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has no convergent sequence, which is impossible because  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded and T is compact.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.6**: Let X be a Banach space and let  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X; X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  be given. Then  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)$  is finite dimensional.

**Proof**: Let

$$K = \{x \in \mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T) : ||x|| \le 1\},$$

i.e., the closed unit ball in  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)$  equipped with the norm of X. Let  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be any sequence in K. Then

$$Tx_n = \lambda x_n$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Since T is compact and  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded, we can extract a subsequence  $\{x_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\{Tx_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is strongly convergent. Since  $\lambda \neq 0$ , we see that  $\{x_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is also strongly convergent. Let

$$x = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k},$$

and observe that  $x \in K$  since K is closed. We conclude that K is compact and consequently  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)$  is finite dimensional.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.7**: Let X be a Banach space and let  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X; X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  be given. Then  $\mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T)$  is closed.

**Proof**: Put  $W = \mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)$  and observe that W is finite dimensional by Proposition 6.6. Therefore, we may choose a closed subspace Z of X such that

$$X = W \oplus Z$$
.

Let  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence in X and put

$$y_n = (\lambda I - T)x_n$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Let  $y \in X$  be given and assume that  $y_n \to y$  as  $n \to \infty$ . We need to show that  $y \in \mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T)$ .

We may choose sequences  $\{w_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in W and  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in Z such that

$$x_n = w_n + z_n$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Since  $(\lambda I - T)w_n = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we see that

$$(\lambda I - T)z_n \to y \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$
 (5)

I claim that  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded. To verify the claim, suppose that  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is unbounded. Then we may choose a subsequence  $\{z_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that

$$||z_{n_k}|| > k$$
 for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Put

$$v_k = \frac{z_k}{\|z_k\|}$$
 for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

and observe that  $||v_k|| = 1$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and that

$$(\lambda I - T)v_k \to 0 \text{ as } k \to \infty.$$
 (6)

Since T is compact, we may choose a subsequence  $\{v_{k_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\{Tv_{k_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is strongly convergent. Since  $\lambda \neq 0$ , we conclude from (6) that  $\{v_{k_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is also strongly convergent; put

$$v = \lim_{j \to \infty} v_{k_j}.$$

We have ||v|| = 1 (since the convergence is strong),  $v \in Z$  (since Z is closed), and  $(\lambda I - T)v = 0$  (which means that  $v \in W$ ). This is impossible, because  $W \cap Z = \{0\}$ . We conclude that  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded.

Since  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded, we may extract a subsequence  $\{z_{n_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\{Tz_{n_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is strongly convergent. Since  $\lambda \neq 0$ , it follows from (5) that  $\{z_{n_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is strongly convergent; put

$$z = \lim_{j \to \infty} z_{n_j}.$$

We have  $(\lambda I - T)z = y$  and  $y \in \mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T)$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 6.8: Let X be a Banach space and let  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  be given. Then

$$\mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T) = {}^{\perp}\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^*), \text{ and}$$
  
 $\mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T^*) = \mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)^{\perp}.$ 

In spectral analysy in finite dimensions, when there are not enough eigenvectors corresponding to an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of an  $N \times N$  matrix B, then we look at the null spaces of higher powers of  $(\lambda I - B)$ . The same idea is useful for compact operators in infinite-dimensional space.

We now want to look at powers of the form  $(\lambda I - T)^n$  where T is a compact operator,  $\lambda \neq 0$ , and n is a nonnegative integer. For  $n \geq 1$  we introduce

$$L = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k \lambda^{n-k} T^k, \tag{7}$$

and observe that L is compact since T is compact.

**Proposition 6.9**: Let X be a Banach space,  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;X)$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}\setminus\{0\}$ , and n be a nonnegative integer. Then  $\mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^n)$  is finite dimensional and  $\mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^n)$  is closed.

**Proof**: If n = 0 then  $(\lambda I - T)^n = I$  and the conclusion is immediate. If n > 0 then

$$(\lambda I - T)^n = \mu I - L,$$

where  $\mu = \lambda^n \neq 0$  and L is given by (7) and is therefore compact. The conclusion follows from Propositions 6.6 and 6.7.

**Lemma 6.10**: Let X be a Banach space,  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}\setminus\{0\}$  be given. Then there exists a nonnegative integer p such that  $\mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^n)) = \mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^{n+1})$  for all integers  $n \geq p$ . Let  $p_*(\lambda;T)$  be the smallest such nonnegative integer. If  $p_*(\lambda;T) > 0$  then

$$\mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^0) \subset \mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^1) \subset \cdots \subset \mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^{p_*(\lambda;T)})$$

with all inclusions strict.

**Proof**: Put  $N_m = \mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^m)$  and notice that

 $N_m \subset N_n$  for all nonnegative integers m, n with  $m \leq n$ .

Suppose that  $N_n \neq N_{n+1}$  for all nonnegative integers n. Then, by the Riesz Lemma, we may choose a sequence  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that

$$y_n \in N_{n+1} \backslash N_n, \quad ||y_n|| = 1, \quad \operatorname{dist}(y_n, N_n) \ge \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 (8)

Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  with m < n be given and observe that

$$(\lambda I - T)^{n+1} y_n = 0, \ (\lambda I - T)^n y_m = 0.$$

It follows that

$$(\lambda I - T)^n [(\lambda I - T)y_n + Ty_m] = (\lambda I - T)^{n+1} y_n + T(\lambda I - T)^n y_m$$
$$= 0,$$

and we conclude that

$$(\lambda I - T)y_n + Ty_m \in N_n. (9)$$

Observe that

$$Ty_n - Ty_m = \lambda y_n - (\lambda y_n - Ty_n + Ty_m)$$

$$= \lambda [y_n - \lambda^{-1}(\lambda y_n - Ty_n + Ty_m)]$$
(10)

It follows from (8), (9), and (10) that

$$||Ty_n - Ty_m|| \ge \lambda ||y_n - y_m|| \ge \frac{|\lambda|}{2}.$$

This is impossible because  $\{Ty_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  must have a strongly convergent subsequence by virtute of the fact that T is compact and  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded. It follows that there is some nonnegative integer k such that  $N_k = N_{k+1}$ .

Let a nonnegative integer n be given and assume that  $N_n = N_{n+1}$ . We shall show that  $N_{n+1} = N_{n+2}$ . It suffices to show that  $N_{n+2} \subset N_{n+1}$ . Let  $x \in N_{n+2}$  be given. Then

$$0 = (\lambda I - T)^{n+2} x = (\lambda I - T)^{n+1} (\lambda I - T) x,$$

and consequently  $(\lambda I - T)x \in N_{n+1}$ . Since  $N_{n+1} = N_n$ , we see that  $(\lambda I - T)x \in N_n$ , which gives

$$(\lambda I - T)^{n+1}x = (\lambda I - T)^n(\lambda I - T)x = 0. \quad \Box$$

Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \setminus \{0\}$  be given and make the following observations:

- $\bullet \ T^* \in \mathcal{L}(X^*; X^*),$
- $\mathcal{R}((\lambda I T)^n) = {}^{\perp}\mathcal{N}(((\lambda I T)^n)^*)$  for every nonnegative integer n,
- $((\lambda I T)^n)^* = (\lambda I T^*)^n$  for every nonnegative integer n,

In view of these observations and Lemma 6.10, we have

**Lemma 6.11**: Let X be a Banach space and  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}\setminus\{0\}$  be given. Then there exists a nonnegative integer q such that  $\mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^n) = \mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^{n+1})$  for all integers n with  $n \geq q$ . Let  $q_*(\lambda;T)$  be the smallest such integer. If  $q_*(\lambda;T) > 0$  then

$$\mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^0) \supset \mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^1) \supset \cdots \supset \mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^{q_*(\lambda;T)})$$

with all inclusions strict.

**Lemma 6.12**: Let X be a Banach space and  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}\setminus\{0\}$  be gievn. Let  $p_*(\lambda;T)$  and  $q_*(\lambda;T)$  be as in Lemmas 6.10 and 6.11. Then we have  $p_*(\lambda;T) = q_*(\lambda;T)$ .

**Proof**: For each nonnegative integer n, let us put

$$N_n = \mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^n), \quad R_n = \mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^n).$$

For ease of notation let us write

$$p = p_*(\lambda; T), \quad q = q_*(\lambda; T).$$

We shall show first that  $q \geq p$ . Since  $R_q = R_{q+1}$  we have

$$(\lambda I - T)[R_q] = R_q. \tag{11}$$

To establish the desired inequality we want to show that  $N_{q+1} = N_q$ . For this purpose, it is convenientshall show that

$$(\lambda I - T)\Big|_{R_q}$$
 is injective. (12)

Suppose that  $x_1 \in R_q \setminus \{0\}$  satisfies  $(\lambda I - T)x_1 = 0$ . By virtue of (11), we may choose  $x_2 \in R_q \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $(\lambda I - T)x_2 = x_1$ . Proceedingly inductively, we can construct a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  satisfying

$$(\lambda I - T)^{n-1} x_n = x_1 \neq 0$$
,  $(\lambda I - T)^n x_n = (\lambda I - T) x_1 = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

In other words, we have  $x_n \in N_n \backslash N_{n-1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . This contradicts Lemma 6.10 and we conclude that (12) holds.

We now prove that  $N_{q+1} = N_q$ . We already know that  $N_q \subset N_{q+1}$ . Suppose that  $N_q \neq N_{q+1}$ . Then we may choose  $x \in N_{q+1} \setminus N_q$ . Put  $y = (\lambda I - T)^q x \in R_q$  and notice that  $y \neq 0$ . However

$$(\lambda I - T)y = (\lambda I - T)^{q+1}x = 0,$$

which contradicts (12). We conclude that  $N_q = N_{q+1}$  and consequently  $q \geq p$ .

To establish the reverse inequality, we shall show that  $R_{p+1} = R_p$ . For this purpose it is convenient to show that

$$N_q + \mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T) = X. \tag{13}$$

To establish (13), let  $x \in X$  be given. Since  $R_q = R_{q+1}$ , we may choose  $y \in X$  such that

$$(\lambda I - T)^q x = (\lambda I - T)^{q+1} y.$$

Let us put

$$x_1 = x - (\lambda I - T)y$$
,  $x_2 = (\lambda I - T)y$ .

It is immediate that  $x_2 \in \mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T)$ . Since

$$(\lambda I - T)^{q} x_{1} = (\lambda I - T)^{q} x - (\lambda I - T)^{q+1} y = 0,$$

we see that  $x_1 \in N_q$  and (13) is established.

Since  $N_q \subset N_p$ , it follows from (13) that

$$N_p + \mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T) = X. \tag{14}$$

We already know that  $R_{p+1} \subset R_p$ . To establish the reverse inclusion, let  $x \in R_p$  be given. Then we may choose  $y \in X$  such that

$$x = (\lambda I - T)^p y.$$

By (14) we may choose  $y_1 \in N_p$  and  $y_2 \in \mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T)$  such that  $y = y_1 + y_2$ . Now, we may choose  $y_3 \in X$  such that  $y_2 = (\lambda I - T)y_3$ . It follows that

$$x = (\lambda I - T)^p y_1 + (\lambda I - T)^{p+1} y_3 = (\lambda I - T)^{p+1} y_3.$$

We conclude that  $x \in R_{p+1}$ . This implies that  $R_p = R_{p+1}$  which implies that  $p \ge q$  and the proof is complete.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.13**: Let X be a Banach space and  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$ . be given. Assume that  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ . Then  $\lambda \in \sigma_p(T)$ .

**Proof**: Suppose that  $\lambda \notin \sigma_p(T)$ . Then  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T) = \{0\}$ , so  $p_*(\lambda; T) = 0$ . By Lemma 6.12, we also have  $q_*(\lambda; T) = 0$  which implies that  $\mathcal{R}(\lambda I - T) = X$  and consequently  $\lambda I - T$  is bijective, which contradicts the assumption that  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ .

**Theorem 6.14**: Let X be a Banach space and  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}\setminus\{0\}$  be given. Let  $p = p_*(\lambda;T)$  where  $p_*(\lambda;T)$  is as in Lemma 6.10. Then

$$\mathcal{N}((\lambda I - T)^p) \oplus \mathcal{R}((\lambda I - T)^p) = X.$$

**Proof**: Let  $N_n$  and  $R_n$  be as in the proof of Lemma 6.12 and observe that  $R_{2p} = R_p$ . Let  $x \in X$  be given. Then we may choose  $z \in X$  such that  $(\lambda I - T)^{2p}z = (\lambda I - T)^p x$ . Now put

$$y = (\lambda I - T)^p z \in R_p,$$

and observe that

$$(\lambda I - T)^p y = (\lambda I - T)^{2p} z = (\lambda I - T)^p x.$$

It follows that  $x - y \in N_p$  and we have

$$x = (x - y) + y.$$

To see that the decomposition is unique, let  $\tilde{y} \in R_p$  be given with  $x - \tilde{y} \in N_p$ . Put

$$z = y - \tilde{y} \in R_p.$$

We want to show that z = 0. We may choose  $w \in X$  such that

$$z = (\lambda I - T)^p w.$$

Observe that

$$z = (x - \tilde{y}) - (x - y) \in N_p,$$

and consequently

$$(\lambda I - T)^{2p}w = (\lambda I - T)^p z = 0.$$

Since  $N_{2p} = N_p$ , we find that  $w \in N_p$ , and this gives

$$0 = (\lambda I - T)^p w = z$$
.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 6.15**: Let X be a Banach space and let  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  be given. Then

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)) = \dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^*)).$$

To establish Theorem 6.15, we shall make use of the following lemma, whose proof is left as an exercise.

**Lemma 6.16**: Let X be a Banach space and let  $\{x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*\}$  be a linearly independent subset of  $X^*$ . Then there exist  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in X$  such that for all  $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  we have

$$x_i^*(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } i = j, \\ 0 \text{ if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

To prove Theorem 6.15, it is convenient to show that

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)) \ge \dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda - T^*)) \tag{15}$$

and then look at  $\dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^{**}))$ .

**Lemma 6.17**: Let X be a Banach space and  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X, X)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  be given. Then (15) holds.

**Proof**: We know that both of the null spaces in question have finite dimension. Let

$$n = \dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)), \quad m = \dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^*)).$$

Let  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  be a basis for  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)$  and  $\{y_1^*, y_2^*, \dots, y_m^*\}$  be a basis for  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^*)$ . By a straightforward application of the Hahn-Banach Theorem we may choose  $x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^* \in X^*$  such that

$$x_i^*(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } i = j, \\ 0 \text{ if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Using Lemma 6.16, we may choose  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m \in X$  such that

$$y_i^*(y_j) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } i = j, \\ 0 \text{ if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Suppose that n < m and define  $L \in \mathcal{L}(X; X)$  by

$$Lx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^*(x) y_i.$$

Observe that  $L \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$  since L has finite rank. Now put

$$S = T + L$$

and observe that S is also compact.

We shall show that  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - S) = \{0\}$ . To this end, let  $x \in \mathcal{N}(\lambda I - S)$  be given. Then  $Sx = \lambda x$  so that

$$(\lambda I - T)x = Lx.$$

It follows that for all  $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  we have

$$0 = (\lambda y_i^* - T^* y_i^*)(x),$$

and consequently  $x_j^*(x) = 0$  for all  $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ . It follows that  $(\lambda I - T)x = 0$  and therefore we may choose  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{K}$  such that

$$x = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n. \tag{16}$$

For each  $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , we apply  $x_j^*$  to (16) to conclude that  $x_j^*(x) = \alpha_j$ . It follows that x = 0 and consequently  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - S) = \{0\}$ .

Since  $\lambda \neq 0$ , S is compact and  $\lambda \notin \sigma_p(S)$ , it follows from Proposition 6.13 that  $\lambda \in \rho(T)$  and consequently that  $\mathcal{R}(\lambda I - S) = X$ . Thus we may choose  $z \in X$  such that

$$(\lambda I - S)z = y_{n+1}.$$

Then by the choice of  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m$  we see that

$$1 = y_{n+1}^*(y_{n+1}) = y_{n+1}^*(x) = y_{n+1}^* \left( (\lambda I - T)x - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^*(x)y_i \right) = 0.$$

This is, of course, a contradiction and consequently it is not possible to have n < m.

**Proof of Theorem 6.15**: By Lemma 6.16 we have

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T) \ge \dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^*)).$$

Applying Lemma 6.16 to  $T^*$  we see that

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^*) \ge \dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^{**})).$$

On the other hand, since  $\lambda I - T^{**}$  is an extension of  $\lambda I - T$  we have

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T^{**}) \ge \dim(\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - T)),$$

and we are done.  $\square$ 

## The Fredholm Alternative

There is an important principle known as the *Fredholm Alternative* which expresses some of the main conclusions concerning spectral theory of compact operators in terms of solutions of equations of the form  $(\lambda I - T)x = y$ .

**Theorem 6.18** (The Fredholm Alternative): Let X be a Banach space and let  $T \in \mathcal{C}(X;X)$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}\setminus\{0\}$  be given. Then exactly one of (a) or (b) below must hold:

- (a) For every  $y \in X$  the equation  $(\lambda I T)x = y$  has exactly one solution  $x \in X$ . has only the trivial solution x = 0.
- (b) There exists  $x \in X \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $(\lambda I T)x = 0$

Moreover, if (a) holds then for every  $y^* \in X^*$  the equation  $(\lambda I - T^*)x^* = y^*$  has exactly one solution  $x^* \in X^*$ . If (b) holds then (i), (ii), and (iii) below hold.

- (i) The number of linearly independent solutions of  $(\lambda I T)x = 0$  in X is finite and is the same as the number of linearly independent solutions of  $(\lambda I T^*)x^* = 0$  in  $X^*$ .
- (ii) For a given  $y \in X$ , the equation  $(\lambda I T)x = y$  has a solution  $x \in X$  if and only if  $y \in {}^{\perp}\mathcal{N}(\lambda I T)$ .
- (iii) For a given  $y^* \in X^*$ , the equation  $(\lambda I T^*)x^* = y^*$  has a solution  $x^* \in X^*$  if and only if  $y^* \in \mathcal{N}(\lambda I T)^{\perp}$ .

## Fredholm Operators

## TO BE FILLED IN

General Linear Operators Between Normed Linear Spaces

We now turn our attention to linear operators that need not be bounded.

Let X and Y be normed linear spaces over  $\mathbb{K}$ .

**Definition 6.19**: Let  $\mathcal{D}(A) \subset X$ . When we say that  $A : \mathcal{D}(A) \to Y$  is a linear operator we mean that  $\mathcal{D}(A)$  is a linear manifold and

$$A(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha Ax + \beta Ay$$
 for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{D}(A), \ \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}$ .

When dealing with a linear operator A whose domain could be properly included in X we shall write  $A: \mathcal{D}(A) \to Y$  rather than try to introduce special terminology to indicate that the domain might be properly included in X because there does not seem to be any universally accepted terminology for this and it is more important to avoid potential confusion rather than to have a more elegant way of phrasing results.

**Definition 6.20**: Let  $\mathcal{D}(A) \subset X$  and assume that  $A : \mathcal{D}(A) \to Y$  is linear. We say that

(i) A is bounded provided there exists  $K \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$||Ax||_Y \le K||x||_X$$
 for all  $x \in X$ .

- (ii) A is unbounded if it is not bounded.
- (iii) A is closed provided that Gr(A) is closed in  $X \times Y$ .

**Theorem 6.21** (Closed Graph Theorem): Assume that X and Y are Banach spaces that  $\mathcal{D}(A) \subset X$  and that  $A : \mathcal{D}(A) \to Y$  is linear. Assume further that A is closed and that  $\mathcal{D}(A)$  is closed. Then A is bounded.

**Remark 6.22**: Let X and Y be normed linear spaces,  $\mathcal{D}(A) \subset X$ , and assume that  $A : \mathcal{D}(A) \to Y$  is linear. Then A is closed if and only if for every  $x \in X$ ,  $y \in Y$  and every sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $\mathcal{D}(A)$  such that  $x_n \to x$  and  $Ax_n \to y$  as  $n \to \infty$  we have  $x \in \mathcal{D}(A)$  and Ax = y.

**Example 6.23** Let X = Y = C[0, 1] equipped with the supremum norm. Let us put  $\mathcal{D}(A) = C^1[0, 1], \ \mathcal{D}(B) = C^{\infty}[0, 1], \ \text{and define}$ 

$$Au = u'$$
 for all  $u \in \mathcal{D}(A)$ ,  $Bu = u'$  for all  $u \in \mathcal{D}(B)$ .

Notice that A is an extension of B. Using Remark we see that A is closed, but B is not. [Indeed if  $\{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence in  $C^1[0,1]$  and  $u_n \to u$  uniformly and  $u'_n \to v$  uniformly as  $n \to \infty$  then  $v \in C^1[0,1]$  and u' = v. To see that B is not closed, let any function  $w \in C[0,1] \setminus C^1[0,1]$  be given. Then we may choose a sequence  $\{w_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of polynomials such that  $w_n \to w$  uniformly as  $n \to \infty$ . Then we can define

$$u_n(x) = \int_0^x w_n(t) dt$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in [0, 1]$ .

Then we have  $u_n \to u$  uniformly and  $u'_n \to w$  uniformly as  $n \to \infty$ , but  $w \notin \mathcal{D}(B)$ .