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UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

SCHOOL OF MATHEMATICS AND STATISTICS

Lecture Notes

Functional Analysis

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Hilbert Spaces

Definition 1. A Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is a real or complex inner product space that is also a complete metric space with respect to the metric induced by the inner product.¹

We say that the inner product is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ (or \mathbb{R}). which satisfies the following properties:

- $\langle y, x \rangle = \overline{\langle x, y \rangle}$ for $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$.
- $\langle \alpha x_1 + \beta x_2, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x_1, y \rangle + \beta \langle x_2, y \rangle$ for $x_1, x_2, y \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$.
- $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$. Moreover $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$.

Note that from this inner product we can easily define a norm by writing

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}.$$

We will now look at a couple of examples of Hilbert spaces.

\mathbb{C} and \mathbb{R}

Without being tedious checking that all the requirements are fulfilled we will simply state that both \mathbb{C} and \mathbb{R} are Hilbert spaces.

ℓ^2

We will show that many of the properties of a Hilbert space are fulfilled by ℓ^2 and we will claim that ℓ^2 is in fact a Hilbert space. To do this we will first define ℓ^2 and then check that the inner product axioms are satisfied.

Definition 2 (ℓ^2).

$$\ell^2 = \left\{ (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) : x_k \in \mathbb{C}, \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^2 < \infty \right\}$$

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \overline{y_k}$$

Firstly we show that all of the inner product axioms are satisfied for the inner product here.

For $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \ell^2$ see that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} y_k \overline{x_k} \\ &= \overline{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \overline{y_k} x_k} \\ &= \overline{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}. \end{aligned}$$

¹This definition is more or less taken straight from Wikipedia (3 June 2014).

For $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \ell^2$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\alpha x_k + \beta y_k) \bar{z}_k \\ &= \alpha \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \bar{z}_k + \beta \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} y_k \bar{z}_k \\ &= \alpha \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

For $\mathbf{x} \in \ell^2$ see that

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \bar{x}_k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^2 \\ &\geq 0\end{aligned}$$

and in particular it is clear to see that $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} = 0$.

We now wish to show that for two elements $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \ell^2$ that the inner product does in fact map to a complex number (and not just map to infinity).

For $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \ell^2$ see that

$$|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k| \cdot |y_k|$$

and by geometric - arithmetic mean inequality

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k| \cdot |y_k| &\leq \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^2}_{< \infty \text{ because } \mathbf{x} \in \ell^2} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |y_k|^2}_{< \infty \text{ because } \mathbf{y} \in \ell^2} \\ &< \infty.\end{aligned}$$

We now show that ℓ^2 is in fact closed under addition, and hence a linear space.

For $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \ell^2$ we see that by finite dimension Cauchy-Schwartz

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k + y_k| \leq \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^N |x_k|^2}_{< \infty} + \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^N |y_k|^2}_{< \infty}$$

and by letting $N \rightarrow \infty$ we see that $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| < \infty$ and hence $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in \ell^2$.

While we have not shown that ℓ^2 is complete we do claim that ℓ^2 is complete and hence a Hilbert space.

$C[-1, 1]$

The aim with $C[-1, 1]$ is to show that with the usual inner product, $C[-1, 1]$ is not a Hilbert space, because it is not complete.

For clarity we define the inner product on $C[-1, 1]$, for $f, g \in C[-1, 1]$ by

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt.$$

Do show that $C[-1, 1]$ is not complete define the sequence of function f_n by

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t \notin \left[-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right] \\ \sqrt{n} & \text{if } x \in \left[-\frac{1}{2n}, \frac{1}{2n}\right] \\ \text{linear} & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Now see that for each n , $f_n \in C[-1, 1]$. It is also easy to see that for all n , $\|f_n\| \leq \sqrt{2}$.

Now consider the function F defined by

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{5}{4}}} f_n(x).$$

Observe that

$$\|F\| \leq \sqrt{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{5}{4}}} < \infty$$

but see that

$$F(0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{4}}} \rightarrow \infty.$$

This means that $F \notin C[-1, 1]$ and hence $C[-1, 1]$ is not complete and therefore not a Hilbert space.

Completion Procedure for Hilbert Spaces

Let $(\mathcal{H}_0, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ be a pre-Hilbert space (i.e. not complete). We have the usual norm induced by the inner product, that is $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$.

To “complete” this as a Hilbert space define the set of Cauchy Sequences

$$H = \{X = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} : x_k \in \mathcal{H}_0\}.$$

We then claim that

$$\mathcal{H} = \{\overline{X} : X \in H\}$$

is a Hilbert space where we define

$$\overline{X} = \{Y \in H : Y \sim X\}.$$

We say that

$$X \sim Y$$

when $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k - y_k\| = 0$.

We define the inner product on this new Hilbert space \mathcal{H} by

$$\langle \bar{X}, \bar{Y} \rangle = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_k, y_k \rangle.$$

Simple verification shows that is is infact a “valid” inner product.

We also clarify addition an scalar multiplication in this new Hilbert space by saying that

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{X} + \bar{Y} &= \overline{(x_k + y_k)} \\ \alpha X &= (\alpha x_k). \end{aligned}$$

Since we have defined al lthe basic properties of this new Hilbert space, \mathcal{H} , we check the “correctness” of this definition.

Suppose we have

$$\begin{aligned} X' &= (x'_k) \text{ and } X = (x_k) \\ Y' &= (y'_k) \text{ and } Y = (y_k) \end{aligned}$$

such that

$$X' \sim X \text{ and } Y' \sim Y$$

then we wish to verify that

$$X + Y \sim X' + Y'$$

and to do this see that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k + y_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x'_k + y'_k.$$

Also observe that

$$\alpha X \sim \alpha X'$$

by the same reasoning.

To verify correctness we also need to show that the limit $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_k, y_k \rangle$ exists and that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_k, y_k \rangle = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x'_k, y'_k \rangle.$$

Firstly see that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_k, y_k \rangle \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k\| \cdot \|y_k\|$$

by the Cuachy-Schwartz inequality and so the limit exists.

See that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_k - x'_k, y_k - y'_k \rangle = \langle 0, 0 \rangle = 0$$

and so the desired equality holds.

To make this whole exercise purposful we need to check that the space we have defined is infact complete, and therefore a Hilbert space.

Let $\overline{X}_n \in \mathcal{H}$ be a sequence of elements of \mathcal{H} such that

$$\sum_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|\overline{X}_k\| < \infty.$$

Let $\overline{X} = \sum_{k \rightarrow \infty} \overline{X}_k$ and note that by the definition of \mathcal{H} we must that $\overline{X} \in \mathcal{H}$ and thus \mathcal{H} is complete.

Important Identities and Inequalities

Theorem 1 (Cauchy-Schwartz). *If \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space and $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ then*

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|.$$

Proof. Define a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as

$$f(t) = \|x + ty\|^2$$

and note that $f(t) \geq 0$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. See that

$$f(t) = \|x\|^2 + t^2\|y\|^2 + 2t\Re\langle x, y \rangle \geq 0$$

and since $f(t)$ is a quadratic in t we can say that

$$|\Re\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$$

by considering the discriminant.

We wish to “get rid of” the \Re in this result.

Now if $\alpha = \langle x, y \rangle$ with $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ then we can define $\text{sgn}(\alpha) = \frac{\overline{\alpha}}{|\alpha|}$.

Let $\tilde{x} = \text{sgn}(\alpha) \cdot x$ and from the already established result we can say that

$$|\Re\langle \tilde{x}, y \rangle| \leq \|\tilde{x}\| \cdot \|y\|$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \Re\langle \tilde{x}, y \rangle &= \Re(\text{sgn}(\alpha) \cdot \langle x, y \rangle) \\ &= |\langle x, y \rangle|. \end{aligned}$$

Also

$$\|\tilde{x}\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|x\| = \|x\|$$

and so we can remove the \Re part of the result by saying

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| = |\Re\langle \tilde{x}, y \rangle| \leq \|\tilde{x}\| \cdot \|y\| = \|x\| \cdot \|y\|.$$

□

Theorem 2 (Triangle Inequality). *If \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space and $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ then*

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|.$$

Proof. See that

$$\begin{aligned} \|x + y\|^2 &= \langle x + y, x + y \rangle \\ &= \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + 2 \times \underbrace{\Re \langle x, y \rangle}_{\leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\| \text{ by Cauchy-Schwartz}} \\ &\leq \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + 2\|x\| \cdot \|y\| \\ &= (\|x\| + \|y\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|.$$

□

Theorem 3 (Parallelogram Law). *If \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space and $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ then*

$$2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2 = \|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2.$$

Proof. See that

$$\begin{aligned} \|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 &= \langle x + y, x + y \rangle + \langle x - y, x - y \rangle \\ &= \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 \\ &\quad + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle - \langle y, x \rangle \\ &= 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4 (Polarization Identity). *If \mathcal{H} is a complex Hilbert space and $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ then*

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{2} (\|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2 + i\|x + iy\|^2 - i\|x - iy\|^2).$$

If \mathcal{H} is a real Hilbert space then this can be reduced to

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{4} (\|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2).$$

The proof of these facts follows in much the same way as for the parallelogram law.

Orthonormal Basis in Hilbert Spaces

An orthonormal basis is a family of elements of \mathcal{H} which satisfy the following conditions

- Mutual orthogonality
- Normality
- Completeness.

Spectral Theory

Spectral theory is analogous to eigen-value theory for matrices. In this case we look at spectral theory on bounded linear operators on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} .

We define the following

For $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ we define the following

Definition 3 (Resolvent Set). *Define $\rho(T) := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \exists (T - \lambda)^{-1} \in B(\mathcal{H})\}$.*

Definition 4 (Resolvent). *Define $R_\lambda(T) := (T - \lambda)^{-1}$*

Definition 5 (Spectrum). *Define $\sigma(T) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \rho(T)$.*

One could heuristically think of λ as being an eigen-value and we formalize this idea as follows.

If $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^n$ and $T = T_A$ where $A = (a_{j,k})_{j,k=1}^n$ (a matrix) then if $(T - \lambda I)^{-1}$ does not exist, i.e. $\ker(T - \lambda I) \neq \mathbf{0}$ then λ is an eigen-value.

We would like to formalize and prove the following three ideas;

- $\sigma(T)$ is bounded,
- $\sigma(T)$ is closed, and
- $\sigma(T)$ is non-empty.

Lemma 1 ($\sigma(T)$ is bounded). *If $|\lambda| > \|T\|$ then $\lambda \in \rho(T)$.*

Proof. If we have that $|\lambda| < \|T\|$ then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\|T\|^k}{|\lambda|^k} < \infty$$

and so it makes sense to define an operator

$$S_\lambda := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{T^k}{\lambda^k}$$

where $S_\lambda \in B(\mathcal{H})$.

Now clearly we can write

$$(T - \lambda I)S_\lambda = (T + \frac{T^2}{\lambda} + \frac{T^3}{\lambda^2} + \cdots) - (\lambda I + T + \frac{T^2}{\lambda} + \frac{T^3}{\lambda^2} + \cdots)$$

and therefore $(T - \lambda I)S_\lambda = -\lambda I$. Similarly $S_\lambda(T - \lambda I) = -\lambda I$. That means that $\lambda \in \rho(T)$, because we have found an inverse of $(T - \lambda I)$, namely

$$R_\lambda(T) = \frac{-S_\lambda}{\lambda}.$$

□

Due to the way that $\sigma(T)$ is defined it would be appropriate to prove that $\rho(T)$ is open in order to show that $\sigma(T)$ is closed.

Lemma 2 ($\sigma(T)$ is closed). *If $\lambda_0 \in \rho(T)$ and $a = \|R_{\lambda_0}(T)\|^{-1} > 0$ then $\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda - \lambda_0| < a\} \subseteq \rho(T)$.*

What this essentially says is that we can always cook up an open a -ball around any $\lambda_0 \in \rho(T)$.

Proof. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ be such that $|\lambda - \lambda_0| < a$. We can see that since

$$|\lambda - \lambda_0| \cdot \|R_{\lambda_0}(T)\| < 1$$

then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |\lambda - \lambda_0|^k \cdot \|R_{\lambda_0}(T)\|^k < \infty$$

and so it makes sense to define an operator

$$S_\lambda := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\lambda - \lambda_0)^k R_{\lambda_0}(T)^k$$

where $S_\lambda \in B(\mathcal{H})$. Now by writing $\mu = \lambda - \lambda_0$ we have that

$$\begin{aligned} (T - \lambda)S_\lambda &= (T - \lambda_0 I - \mu I)S_\lambda \\ &= ((T - \lambda_0 I) + \mu I + \mu^2 R_{\lambda_0}(T) + \mu^3 R_{\lambda_0}(T) + \cdots) \\ &\quad - (\mu I + \mu^2 R_{\lambda_0}(T) + \mu^3 R_{\lambda_0}(T)^2 + \cdots) \\ &= (T - \lambda_0 I). \end{aligned}$$

In exactly the same manner we see that $S_\lambda(T - \lambda I) = (T - \lambda_0 I)$.

Now since $(T - \lambda_0 I)$ is invertible, with inverse R_{λ_0} it follows that

$$R_{\lambda_0} S_\lambda (T - \lambda I) = I$$

and so $\lambda \in \rho(T)$ and in particular $R_\lambda = R_{\lambda_0} S_\lambda$. This shows that $\rho(T)$ is open and hence $\sigma(T)$ is closed. □

Lemma 3 ($\sigma(T)$ is non-empty).

Proof. We assume $\sigma(T) \neq \emptyset$ and arrive at a contradiction.
Define a function

$$f_T(z) := R_z(T).$$

By lemma 2 for any $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ we can write

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (z - \lambda_0)^k R_{\lambda_0}(T)^{k+1}.$$

We can also further say that this series converges for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. This means f is an entire function. By using the ideas of lemma 1 we can also write

$$f_T(z) = R_z(T) = -\frac{1}{z} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{T^k}{z^k}$$

and so $f(z)$ is bounded. Now by Liouville's theorem $f \equiv C$ where C is a constant, but this is clearly a contradiction. \square

Spectral Radius

In this section we define the spectral radius of an operator and show a result that relates the norm of the operator to the spectral radius. We then go on to show that if T is self adjoint then this relationship can be further simplified.

Definition 6 (Spectral Radius). *For any $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ define*

$$r(T) := \sup\{|\lambda| : \lambda \in \sigma(T)\}$$

.

Theorem 5. *For any $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ we have that*

$$r(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

We use several lemmas to prove this result. Define $\alpha(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$.

Lemma 4. $\alpha(T)$ is well defined.

Proof. Let $\alpha_n = \|T^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$ and observe that by Cauchy-Schwartz

$$\|T^{n+k}\| \leq \|T^n\| \cdot \|T^k\|. \quad \circledast$$

Let

$$\alpha = \inf_{n \geq 1} \alpha_n^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

and fix any $\epsilon > 0$.

Pick an $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\alpha \leq \alpha_m^{\frac{1}{m}} < \alpha + \epsilon$.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we can pick $k, b \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n = km + b$ and $b < m$.

Then by using the observation from \circledast we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &\leq \alpha_n^{\frac{1}{n}} \\ &\leq \alpha_{km}^{\frac{1}{n}} \cdot \alpha_b^{\frac{1}{n}} \\ &\leq \alpha_m^{\frac{k}{n}} \cdot \alpha_b^{\frac{1}{n}} \\ &= \left(\alpha_m^{\frac{1}{m}} \right)^{\frac{km}{n}} \cdot \alpha_b^{\frac{1}{n}} \\ &\leq (\alpha + \epsilon)^{1 - \frac{b}{n}} \cdot \left(\max_{1 \leq b \leq m} a_b \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}. \end{aligned}$$

By letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ then we can pinch $\alpha_n^{\frac{1}{n}}$ between α and $\alpha + \epsilon$, i.e.

$$\alpha \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_n^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_n^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \alpha + \epsilon.$$

So we can say that $\alpha(T) = \alpha$. □

Lemma 5. *If $|\lambda| > \alpha(T)$ then $\lambda \in \rho(T)$*

Proof. Note that if $|\lambda| > \alpha(T)$ then there exists some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $n \geq N$ we have that

$$\|T^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} < \alpha(T).$$

If we let $q = \frac{\alpha(T)}{|\lambda|}$ then we can re-write this as

$$\|T^n\| < q^n |\lambda|^n$$

and so $\frac{\|T^n\|}{|\lambda|^n} < q^n$. By noting that $0 < q < 1$ we can say that the operator defined by

$$S_\lambda = - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{T^n}{\lambda^n}$$

converges absolutely.

Now since $(T - \lambda I)S_\lambda = S_\lambda(T - \lambda I) = I$ (by a result similar to that in lemma 1) we can say that $\lambda \in \rho(T)$. □

Lemma 6. *If $|\lambda| > \alpha(T)$ then $|\lambda| \geq r(T)$.*

Proof. If $|\lambda| > \alpha(T)$ and $|\lambda| < r(T)$ then because of the way we define r there must exist a $\lambda_1 \in \rho(T)$ such that $\alpha(T) < |\lambda| < |\lambda_1| < r(T)$. This is a contradiction because lemma 5 shows $\lambda_0 \in \rho(T)$. □

What 6 says is that $\alpha(T) \geq r(T)$. We can now prove a final result which will amount to a proof of theorem 5

of theorem 5. Assume, for a contradiction that $\alpha(T) > r(T)$. Then we can pick some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\alpha(T) < |\lambda| < r(T).$$

Fix some $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ and define a function

$$f_T(z) := R_z(T) = -\frac{1}{z} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle T^k x, y \rangle}{z^k}.$$

This function is defined if $|z| > \alpha(T)$ (by applying the same idea as in lemma 5).

Since $\sigma(T) \subseteq \{|z| \leq r(T)\}$ and so f is holomorphic for all $|z| > r(T)$ so it admits a power series expansion on the whole disc. It follows that the expansion given above for the wider disc

$$\{|z| > r(T)\}$$

This means that the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle T^n x, y \rangle}{\lambda^n}$$

converges.

This means that we must have the tail terms of this series going to zero, i.e.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\langle T^n x, y \rangle|}{|\lambda|^n} = 0$$

and so by the uniform boundedness principle we must have a $c > 0$ such that

$$\|T^n\| \leq c|\lambda|^n$$

for all n and so

$$\|T^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq c^{\frac{1}{n}} |\lambda|$$

which leads to a contradiction because it implies that $\alpha(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq |\lambda|$. \square

We now consider the case of a self-adjoint bounded linear operator. In this case a formula for $r(T)$ is rather much more simple.

Lemma 7. *If $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ and $T = T^*$ then $r(T) = \|T\|$.*

Proof. From the C^* identity we have that $\|T\|^2 = \|T^*T\| = \|T^2\|$.

We can generalize this to say $\|T\|^{2n} = \|T^{2n}\|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. By noting that we can write

$$r(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T^{2^n}\|^{2^{-n}} = \|T\|$$

we have the result. \square

We now prove a collection of results about the spectrum of various types of operators.

Theorem 6. *If $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ and T is self adjoint then $\sigma(T) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.*

Proof. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ be such that $\lambda = \alpha + i\beta$ with $\beta \neq 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|(T - \lambda I)x\|^2 &= \|(T - \alpha I - i\beta I)x\|^2 \\ &= \langle (T - \alpha I - i\beta I)x, (T - \alpha I - i\beta I)x \rangle \\ &= \langle (T - \alpha I + i\beta I)(T - \alpha I - i\beta I)x, x \rangle \\ &= \langle ((T - \alpha I)^2 + \beta I)x, x \rangle \\ &= \langle (T - \alpha I)^2 x + \beta Ix, x \rangle \\ &= \langle (T - \alpha I)^2 x, x \rangle + \beta^2 \langle x, x \rangle \\ &= \|(T - \alpha I)x\|^2 + \beta^2 \|x\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

We can therefore write that $\|(T - \lambda I)x\| \geq \Im(\lambda)\|x\|$ which means that $(T - \lambda I)$ is injective.

We can also see that T is surjective because

$$(\operatorname{Im}(T - \lambda I))^\perp = \ker(T - \bar{\lambda}) = \{0\}.$$

This means that

$$\|(T - \lambda I)^{-1}\| \leq \Im(\lambda)^{-1}$$

which is to say that $\lambda \in \rho(T)$.

This means that $\lambda \notin \sigma(T)$ which means that any $z \in \sigma(T)$ must be such that $\Im(z) = 0$. \square

Rational Calculus

Here we generalist ideas about functions on the real numbers to functions of bounded linear operators.

Firstly we consider a function

$$f(z) = \frac{(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \cdots (z - \alpha_n)}{(z - \lambda_1)(z - \lambda_2) \cdots (z - \lambda_m)}$$

and call this function a rational function. This is because it can be considered the quotient of two polynomials. (The complete factorization here being permitted by the fundamental theorem of calculus).

From this definition of f is clear to see that the α_j constitute the roots of f and the λ_j constitute the poles of f .

Now for any $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ and $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m \notin \sigma(T)$ we define a rational calculus by

$$f(T) := (T - \alpha_1 I)(T - \alpha_2 I) \cdots (T - \alpha_n I) R_{\lambda_1}(T) R_{\lambda_2}(T) \cdots R_{\lambda_m}(T)$$

We now have a simple theorem we wish to consider which relates the spectrum of $f(T)$ to the spectrum of T .

Theorem 7. For $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ and with f defined as above (i.e. with $\lambda_j \notin \sigma(T)$) then

$$\sigma(f(T)) = f(\sigma(T)).^2$$

Proof. This proof proceeds in two parts:

- $f(\sigma(T)) \subseteq \sigma(f(T))$

Fix a $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ and let $\mu = f(\lambda)$. Define a function g such that

$$g(z) = f(z) - \mu.$$

Now since $g(\lambda) = 0$, g admits a factorization $g(z) = (z - \lambda) \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$ where p, q are polynomials.

Now consider

$$g(T) = f(T) - \mu I = \underbrace{(T - \lambda I)}_{\circledast} p(T) q(T)^{-1}$$

and note that \circledast is not invertible because $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ and hence

$$f(T) - \mu$$

is not invertible and so $\mu \in \sigma(f(T))$.

- $\sigma(f(T)) \subseteq f(\sigma(T))$

Let $\mu \in \sigma(f(T))$ and define a function

$$g(z) = f(z) - \mu = \frac{(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \cdots (z - \alpha_n)}{(z - \lambda_1)(z - \lambda_2) \cdots (z - \lambda_m)}$$

so we can write

$$f(T) - \mu I = \underbrace{(T - \alpha_1 I)(T - \alpha_2 I) \cdots (T - \alpha_n I)}_{\circledast \circledast} \underbrace{R_{\lambda_1}(T) R_{\lambda_2}(T) \cdots R_{\lambda_m}(T)}_{\circledast \circledast \circledast}.$$

Note $f(T) - \mu I$ is not invertible because $\mu \in \sigma(f(T))$. By definition everything in $\circledast \circledast \circledast$ must be invertible so something in $\circledast \circledast$ must not be invertible. This means that one of $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n$ is in $\sigma(T)$.

Now for all $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ we have that

$$g(\alpha_k) = 0$$

which would force $f(\alpha_k) = \mu$ and so $\mu \in f(\sigma(T))$.

□

²We define $f(\sigma(T)) := \{f(z) : z \in \sigma(T)\}$. That is to say $f(\sigma(T))$ returns a set with f applied to each element of the set which was supplied as the argument.

We have an immediate corollary in the case where T is self adjoint.

Corollary 1. *If $T = T^*$ then*

$$\|f(T)\| = \sup_{\lambda \in \sigma(T)} |f(\lambda)|$$

Proof. By the C^* identity we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \|f(T)\|^2 &= \|f(T)^* f(T)\| \\ &= \|\bar{f}(T^*) f(T)\|. \end{aligned}$$

Letting $g(z) = \bar{f}(z)f(z)$ we have that since T , and hence $g(T)$, is self adjoint that

$$\|g(T)\| = r(g(T)) = \sup_{z \in \sigma(T)} |g(z)| = \sup_{z \in \sigma(T)} |f(z)|^2.$$

That is to say

$$\|f(T)\| = \sup_{\lambda \in \sigma(T)} |f(\lambda)|.$$

□