

# Operators on Hilbert Spaces

Recap

The Hilbert space of square-integrable functions

$$L^2(\Omega) = \{f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid \int_{\Omega} |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty\}$$

is an infinite-dimensional analogue of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Differentiation (weak) and integration define linear transformations of  $L^2(\Omega)$ .

A linear transformation  $T: H_1 \rightarrow H_2$  is bounded if

$$\|T\| = \sup_{f \in H_1} \frac{\|Tf\|_{H_2}}{\|f\|_{H_1}}.$$

If  $H_1 = H_2$  we call  $T$  an operator on  $H_1$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Integration is a b'd operator on  $L^2(\Omega)$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Differentiation is unbounded on  $L^2(\Omega)$



Example: Differentiation vs. Integration on  $L^2([0, 2\pi])$ .

$$\frac{d}{dx} : \underbrace{D} \rightarrow L^2([0, 2\pi])$$

$$\text{"domain of } \frac{d}{dx} \text{"} = \{u \in H^1([0, 2\pi]) \mid u(0) = 0\}$$

for  $k=1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin kx) = -k \cos(kx)$$

$$\frac{\|\frac{d}{dx}(\sin kx)\|_{L^2}}{\|\sin kx\|_{L^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi k^2}}{\sqrt{\pi}} = k \quad (k=1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

So  $\frac{d}{dx}$  is "unbounded" on  $L^2([0, 2\pi])$ .

Meanwhile, its inverse is b'dd on  $L^2([0, 2\pi])$ .

$$[Tf](x) = \int_0^x f(y) dy$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|Tf\|_{L^2}^2 &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left| \int_0^x f(y) dy \right|^2 dx \stackrel{\text{Jensen's inequality}}{\leq} 2\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^x |f(x)|^2 dy dx \\ &\leq 2\pi \left[ \int_0^{2\pi} |f|^2 dx \right] \left[ \int_0^{2\pi} dy \right] \\ &= (2\pi)^2 \|f\|_{L^2}^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|T\|_{L^2 \rightarrow L^2} \leq 2\pi \quad (T \text{ b'dd})$$



## Bounded Inverse

The inverse of differential operators can often be expressed as bounded integral operators. This is good news b/c bounded operators are continuous.

A linear transformation  $T: H_1 \rightarrow H_2$  between Hilbert spaces  $H_1, H_2$  is continuous if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \in H_1 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Tx_n = Tx \in H_2$$

Equivalently, by linearity only need to check sequences  $\rightarrow 0 \in H_1$ .

Thm A linear transformation  $T: H_1 \rightarrow H_2$  is continuous if and only if it is b'dd.

$$\Rightarrow \|T(x - x_n)\|_{H_2} \leq \|T\|_{H_1 \rightarrow H_2} \|x - x_n\|_{H_1}$$

$\Leftarrow$  Find proof in attached reading



Suppose we have  $T: D \rightarrow H$  unbounded  
with b'dd inverse  $T^{-1}: H \rightarrow H$ .

Then, the solution to  $Tu = f \in H$  is  
well-posed in the sense that

$$\begin{array}{c} \downarrow \text{small} \\ \text{perturbation} \end{array} \quad \tilde{T}u = f + e \in H \quad \Rightarrow \quad \|u - \tilde{u}\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \|e\| \rightarrow 0$$

$\Rightarrow$  We have that  $u - \tilde{u} = T^{-1}e$  and  
since  $\|T^{-1}\| < \infty$ , it is continuous

$$\|u - \tilde{u}\|_H \leq \|T^{-1}\|_{H \rightarrow H} \|e\|_H \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } \|e\|_H \rightarrow 0$$

Similarly, if  $(T + E)\tilde{u} = f$ , we have  
that

$$\|\tilde{u} - u\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \|E\|_{H \rightarrow H} \rightarrow 0.$$

This is called "stability of b'dd invertibility"  
and follows from Neumann series for  $(T + E)^{-1}$

$$(T + E)^{-1} = (I + T^{-1}E)^{-1}T^{-1} = T^{-1}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (T^{-1}E)^k\right)$$



converges if  $\|T^{-1}E\| < 1$  (e.g., if  $\|E\| < \frac{1}{\|T^{-1}\|}$ ).

## Integral Reformulation

Even when the inverse operator is not known (or known to exist) we can often reformulate differential equations (involving unbid ops) into integral equations (involving bid ops).

### Example:

$$\frac{du}{dx} + \overset{\text{continuous}}{v(x)} u(x) = f(x) \quad u(-1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow u(x) + \int_{-1}^x v(y) u(y) dy = f(x) \quad (*)$$

$$[Tu](x) = u(x) + \int_{-1}^x v(y) u(y) dy \quad \text{bid integral operator}$$

If we solve  $(*)$ , we solve ODE.



## B'dd ops

B'dd ops on  $H$  are much like matrices. We have that

$$N(T) = R(T^*)^\perp \text{ and } N(T^*) = R(T)^\perp$$

In general,  $R(T) \neq N(T^*)^\perp$  b/c  $R(T) \subset H$  may not be a closed subspace. There may be "small gaps" so that  $x \in N(T^*)^\perp$  is not in  $R(T)$ . However,  $R(T) = H$  for a b'dd operator if  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$$\|T^*u\| \geq \delta \|u\| \text{ for all } u \in H.$$

(A consequence of the "closed range" theorem, a foundational result in functional analysis)

This generalizes the condition for square non matrices  $A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$R(A) = \mathbb{R}^n \iff A^T x = 0 \text{ iff } x = 0$$



We can compare conditions for invertibility:

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

(invertible?)

$$\begin{array}{l} Ax = b \in H \\ Tu = f \in H \end{array}$$

$$\underline{T: H \rightarrow H} \quad b' \text{ d.d.}$$

$> 0$  indep. of  $u$

Existence:  $A^T x = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

$$\|Tu\| \geq \delta \|u\| \quad \forall u \in H$$

Uniqueness:  $Ax = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

$$Tu = 0 \Leftrightarrow u = 0$$

Of course, for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , fundamental thm of linear algebra assures us that  $Ax = 0$  has nontrivial solutions IFF  $A^T x = 0$  does.

We'll soon see why  $(A^T x = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0)$  is naturally replaced by  $(\|Tu\| \geq \delta \|u\| \quad \forall u \in H)$  when we study the singular value decomp.