
Homework #6

Sam Fleischer

March 4, 2016

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.1	2
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.10	3
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.13	3
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.14	4
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.15	5
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.16	5
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.17	6
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.18	7
Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.19	7

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.1

If M is a linear subspace of a linear space X , then the quotient space X/M is the set $\{x + M \mid x \in X\}$ of affine spaces

$$x + M = \{x + y \mid y \in M\}$$

parallel to M .

(a) Show that X/M is a linear space with respect to the operations

$$\lambda(x + M) = \lambda x + M, \quad (x + M) + (y + M) = (x + y) + M.$$

Proof. Since X is a linear space, then $\alpha x + \beta y \in X$ for every $x, y \in X$, $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$. Then

$$\alpha(x + M) + \beta(y + M) = (\alpha x + \beta y) + M \in X/M$$

Define the “zero” vector in X/M by $0 + M$ where 0 is the “zero” vector in X . Then

$$(0 + M) + (x + M) = (0 + x) + M = x + M = (x + 0) + M = (x + M) + (0 + M)$$

Also, the “one” in \mathbb{F} is the “one” in X/M since

$$1(x + M) = 1x + M = x + M$$

Thus X/M is a vector space. □

(b) Suppose that $X = M \oplus N$. Show that N is linearly isomorphic to X/M .

Proof. Define $T : N \rightarrow X/M$ by

$$Tn = n + M$$

For any $x, y \in N$, then if $Tx = Ty$, then $x + M = y + M \implies (x - y) + M = 0 + M \implies x - y \in M$. But since N is a vector space, then $x - y \in N$. Since $X = M \oplus N$, then $M \cap N = \{0\}$, which means $x = y$. Thus T is injective. Now choose $x + M \in X/M$. Then note $P_N x \in N$ and

$$T(P_N x) = P_N x + M = (P_N x + M) + (P_M x + M) = (P_N x + P_M x) + M = x + M$$

Thus T is surjective. Thus T is a bijection. Also, T is a linear map since

$$T(\alpha x + \beta y) = (\alpha x + \beta y) + M = \alpha(x + M) + \beta(y + M) = \alpha Tx + \beta Ty$$

Thus N is linearly isomorphic to X/M . □

(c) The codimension of M in X is the dimension of X/M . Is a subspace of a Banach space with finite codimension necessarily closed?

Proof. Let ϕ be an unbounded linear functional. Then let $M = \ker \phi$ and consider $X/(\ker \phi)$. Define the bijection $T : X/(\ker \phi) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by

$$T(x + \ker \phi) = \phi(x)$$

Injectivity: If $T(x + \ker \phi) = T(y + \ker \phi)$, then $\phi(x) = \phi(y)$, then since ϕ is linear, $\phi(x - y) = 0$, i.e. $x - y \in \ker \phi$. Thus $x - y + \ker \phi = 0 + \ker \phi$, and so $x + \ker \phi = (y + \ker \phi) + (0 + \ker \phi) = y + \ker \phi$. Thus T is injective. Surjectivity: If $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then choose $y \in X$ with $y \notin \ker \phi$ and note

$$T\left(\lambda \frac{y}{\phi(y)} + \ker \phi\right) = \phi\left(\lambda \frac{y}{\phi(y)}\right) = \frac{\lambda}{\phi(y)} \phi(y) = \lambda$$

Thus T is surjective, which shows T is bijective, and so $\dim(X/(\ker \phi)) = \dim(\mathbb{C}) = 1 < \infty$. Also, $\ker \phi \neq \overline{\ker \phi}$ ($\ker \phi$ is not closed) since ϕ is unbounded (proven below). Thus the codimension of M is finite ($\dim(X/\ker \phi) = 1$) and M is not closed.

Since ϕ is unbounded, $\exists x_n$ such that $\|x_n\| = 1$ and $\phi(x_n) \rightarrow \infty$. Then consider $y_n = \frac{x_n}{\phi(x_n)}$. Then $y_n \rightarrow 0$ but $\phi(y_n) = \frac{1}{\phi(x_n)} \phi(x_n) = 1$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Choose any $\tilde{z} \in X$ and define $z = \frac{\tilde{z}}{\phi(\tilde{z})}$. Then $\phi(z) = 1$. Then $\phi(z - y_n) = \phi(z) - \phi(y_n) = 0$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. However, $z - y_n \rightarrow z$ since $y_n \rightarrow 0$. Thus $(z - y_n) \in \ker \phi$ for all n but $\lim_n (z - y_n) = z \notin \ker \phi$ since $\phi(z) \neq 0$. Thus $\ker \phi$ is not closed. \square

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.10

Let $\{u_\alpha\}$ be an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} . Prove that $\{\phi_{u_\alpha}\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H}^* .

Proof. First note $\{\phi_{u_\alpha}\}$ is an orthonormal set since

$$\langle \phi_{u_1}, \phi_{u_2} \rangle = \langle u_2, u_1 \rangle = \delta_{u_2, u_1} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u_1 = u_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } u_1 \neq u_2 \end{cases}$$

Next let $\phi \in \mathcal{H}^*$. By the Riesz Representation Theorem, $\exists u \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $\phi(x) = \langle x, u \rangle$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$. Then since $\{u_\alpha\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} , then $\exists \{c_\alpha\}$ such that $\sum_\alpha |c_\alpha|^2 < \infty$ and $u = \sum_\alpha c_\alpha u_\alpha$. Then

$$\phi(x) = \langle x, u \rangle = \left\langle x, \sum_\alpha c_\alpha u_\alpha \right\rangle = \sum_\alpha c_\alpha \langle x, u_\alpha \rangle = \sum_\alpha c_\alpha \phi_{u_\alpha}(x)$$

where ϕ_{u_α} is the functional in \mathcal{H}^* such that $\phi_{u_\alpha}(x) = \langle x, u_\alpha \rangle$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$. Thus $\{\phi_{u_\alpha}\}$ spans \mathcal{H}^* , and hence $\{\phi_{u_\alpha}\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H}^* . \square

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.13

Prove that an orthonormal set of vectors $\{u_\alpha \mid \alpha \in \mathcal{A}\}$ in a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is an orthonormal basis if and only if

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} u_\alpha \otimes u_\alpha = I.$$

Proof. Let $\{u_\alpha\}$ be an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} . Then $\forall x \in \mathcal{H}$, $x = \sum_\alpha \langle u_\alpha, x \rangle u_\alpha$. However, the projection P_{u_α} is defined as

$$P_{u_\alpha} x = \langle u_\alpha, x \rangle u_\alpha$$

and hence, for every $x \in \mathcal{H}$, $Ix = x = \sum_\alpha \langle u_\alpha, x \rangle u_\alpha = \sum_\alpha P_{u_\alpha} x = \sum_\alpha (u_\alpha \otimes u_\alpha)x$. In other words, $I = \sum_\alpha u_\alpha \otimes u_\alpha$. Now let $\sum_\alpha u_\alpha \otimes u_\alpha = I$. Then $x = \sum_\alpha P_{u_\alpha} x = \sum_\alpha \langle u_\alpha, x \rangle u_\alpha$. Thus $\{u_\alpha\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} . \square

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.14

Suppose that $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ satisfy

$$\langle x, Ay \rangle = \langle x, By \rangle \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Prove that $A = B$. Use a polarization-type identity to prove that if \mathcal{H} is a complex Hilbert space and

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle x, Bx \rangle \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{H},$$

then $A = B$. What can you say about A and B for real Hilbert spaces?

Proof. If $\langle x, Ay \rangle = \langle x, By \rangle$, then $\langle x, (A - B)y \rangle = 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$. Then $A - B = 0$, i.e. $A = B$. Let $\langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle x, Bx \rangle$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$. Then $\langle x, (A - B)x \rangle = 0$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle x + y, (A - B)(x + y) \rangle = \langle x, (A - B)x \rangle + \langle y, (A - B)y \rangle + \langle x, (A - B)y \rangle + \langle y, (A - B)x \rangle \\ &= \langle y, (A - B)x \rangle + \langle x, (A - B)y \rangle \\ \implies \langle y, (A - B)x \rangle &= -\langle x, (A - B)y \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle x + iy, (A - B)(x + iy) \rangle = \langle x, (A - B)x \rangle + \langle iy, (A - B)x \rangle + \langle x, (A - B)(iy) \rangle + \langle iy, (A - B)(iy) \rangle \\ &= -i \langle y, (A - B)x \rangle + i \langle x, (A - B)y \rangle \\ \implies \langle y, (A - B)x \rangle &= \langle x, (A - B)y \rangle = -\langle y, (A - B)x \rangle \\ \implies \langle y, (A - B)x \rangle &= 0 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathcal{H} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $A - B \equiv 0$, or $A \equiv B$. For real Hilbert spaces, it is possible for $\langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle x, Bx \rangle$ for all x but $A \neq B$. Consider $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ by

$$A(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (-x_2, x_1, x_3, x_4, \dots, x_n) \quad \text{and} \quad B(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_2, -x_1, x_3, x_4, \dots, x_n)$$

Then

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = \sum_{i=3}^n x_i^2 = \langle x, Bx \rangle \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

but clearly $A \neq B$. \square

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.15

Prove that for all $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, we have (a) $A^{**} = A$; (b) $(AB)^* = B^* A^*$; (c) $(\lambda A)^* = \bar{\lambda} A^*$; (d) $(A + B)^* = A^* + B^*$; (e) $\|A^*\| = \|A\|$.

Proof. (a) For all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$, $\langle x, Ay \rangle = \langle A^* x, y \rangle = \langle x, (A^*)^* y \rangle$. Thus $\langle x, (A - A^{**})y \rangle = 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$. Thus $A = A^{**}$.

(b) For all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$, $\langle x, (AB)^* y \rangle = \langle ABx, y \rangle = \langle Bx, A^* y \rangle = \langle x, B^* A^* y \rangle \implies \langle x, ((AB)^* - B^* A^*)y \rangle = 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$. Thus $(AB)^* = B^* A^*$.

(c) For all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$, $\langle x, (\lambda A)^* y \rangle = \langle \lambda Ax, y \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle Ax, y \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle x, A^* y \rangle \implies \langle x, ((\lambda A)^* - \bar{\lambda} A^*)y \rangle = 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$. Thus $(\lambda A)^* = \bar{\lambda} A^*$.

(d) For all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$, $\langle x, (A + B)^* y \rangle = \langle (A + B)x, y \rangle = \langle Ax, y \rangle + \langle Bx, y \rangle = \langle x, A^* y \rangle + \langle x, B^* y \rangle = \langle x, (A^* + B^*)y \rangle \implies \langle x, ((A + B)^* - (A^* + B^*))y \rangle = 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$. Thus $(A + B)^* = A^* + B^*$.

(e) First define $M \in \mathcal{H}^*$ by $Mx = \langle y, Ax \rangle$. Then M is a bounded linear functional since

$$M(ax_1 + bx_2) = \langle y, A(ax_1 + bx_2) \rangle = \langle y, aAx_1 + bAx_2 \rangle = a\langle y, Ax_1 \rangle + b\langle y, Ax_2 \rangle = aMx_1 + bMx_2$$

and

$$\|M\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \langle y, Ax \rangle \leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|y\| \|Ax\| \leq \|y\| \|A\|$$

and since $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, then $\|M\| < \infty$. Then since $M \in \mathcal{H}^*$, The Riesz Representation Theorem guarantees a unique vector $v \in \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$Mx = \langle v, x \rangle = \langle y, Ax \rangle = \langle A^* y, x \rangle$$

Thus $v = A^* y$. Finally,

$$\|A^* y\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |\langle v, x \rangle| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |\langle y, Ax \rangle| \leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|y\| \|Ax\| \leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|y\| \|A\| \|x\| = \|y\| \|A\|$$

Thus $\|A^*\| \leq \|A\|$. This also implies $\|A\| = \|A^{**}\| = \|(A^*)^*\| \leq \|A^*\|$. Thus, $\|A\| = \|A^*\|$. □

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.16

Let $U : L^2(\Omega, P) \rightarrow L^2(\Omega, P)$ by

$$Uf = f \circ T \tag{8.16}$$

where $T : (\Omega, P) \rightarrow (\Omega, P)$ is measure preserving, i.e. $P(A) = P(T^{-1}A) \forall$ measurable $A \subset \Omega$. Prove that the operator U defined in (8.16) is unitary.

Proof. Since T is measure-preserving, then T is bijective (by definition) and for any $f \in L^2(\Omega, P)$, we have $\mathcal{X}f = \mathcal{X}f \circ T$ (where \mathcal{X} is the characteristic function), or

$$\int_{\Omega} f dP = \int_{\Omega} f \circ T dP$$

Then since $\bar{f}g \in L^2(\Omega, P)$, then

$$\int_{\Omega} \bar{f}g dP = \int_{\Omega} (\bar{f}g) \circ T dP$$

Thus,

$$\langle Uf, Ug \rangle = \int_{\Omega} \overline{f(T(\omega))} g(T(\omega)) dP(\omega) = \int_{\Omega} ((\bar{f}g) \circ T)(\omega) dP(\omega) = \int_{\Omega} (\bar{f}g)(\omega) dP(\omega) = \langle f, g \rangle$$

Also, since T is bijective, T^{-1} exists and $U^{-1}f$ can be defined as

$$U^{-1}f = f \circ T^{-1}$$

Clearly

$$U^{-1}(Uf) = U^{-1}(f \circ T) = (f \circ T) \circ T^{-1} = f \circ (T \circ T^{-1}) = f \circ \mathbb{I} = f$$

and

$$U(U^{-1}f) = U(f \circ T^{-1}) = (f \circ T^{-1}) \circ T = f \circ (T^{-1} \circ T) = f \circ \mathbb{I} = f$$

□

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.17

Prove that strong convergence implies weak convergence. Also prove that strong and weak convergence are equivalent in a finite-dimensional Hilbert space.

Proof. Let $x_n \rightarrow x$ strongly, i.e. $\|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$. Then

$$\langle x_n, y \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle = \langle x_n - x, y \rangle \leq \|x_n - x\| \|y\| \rightarrow 0 \quad \forall y \in \mathcal{H}$$

Then $x_n \rightarrow x$ weakly. Suppose $\dim \mathcal{H} = n < \infty$ and $x_n \rightarrow x$ weakly. Let $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} . Then $x = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i e_i$ where $c_i = \langle e_i, x \rangle$. Next, define the ℓ^1 norm by

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |c_i|$$

Since $x_n \rightarrow x$ weakly, then $\langle x_n, y \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $y \in \mathcal{H}$. This implies $\langle e_i, x_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle e_i, x \rangle$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$. Also, $x_n - x = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle e_i, x_n - x \rangle e_i$, and thus

$$\|x_n - x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\langle e_i, x_n - x \rangle| = \sum_{i=1}^n |\langle e_i, x_n \rangle - \langle e_i, x \rangle| \rightarrow 0$$

However, $\|\cdot\|_1 \equiv \|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{H}}$ since all norms are equivalent in finite-dimensional spaces, and thus $x_n \rightarrow x$ strongly. □

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.18

Let (u_n) be a sequence of orthonormal vectors in a Hilbert space. Prove that $u_n \rightarrow 0$ weakly.

Proof. Let $y \in \mathcal{H}$. Then by Bessel's inequality, $\|y\|^2 \geq \|\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n u_n\|^2$ where $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |c_n|^2 < \infty$ and $c_n = \langle u_n, y \rangle$ for $n = 0, 1, \dots$. Thus, $|c_n| \rightarrow 0 \implies \langle c_n, y \rangle \rightarrow 0$, and thus

$$\forall y \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \langle u_n, y \rangle \rightarrow 0 \implies \langle u_n, y \rangle \rightarrow \langle 0, y \rangle \implies u_n \rightarrow 0 \text{ weakly.}$$

□

Hunter and Nachtergaele 8.19

Prove that a strongly lower-semicontinuous convex function $f : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is weakly lower-semicontinuous.

Proof. Let f be a strongly lower-semicontinuous function on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , $f : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let $u_n \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $u_n \rightarrow u$ weakly. Then define $y_n = u_n - u$, $y_n \rightarrow 0$ weakly. Assume

$$f(0) > \underline{\lim}_n f(y_n)$$

This assumption will lead to a contradiction, which will prove f is weakly lower-semicontinuous. The assumption implies \exists a subsequence y_{n_k} such that $f(0) - \epsilon > f(y_{n_k})$. Note $y_{n_k} \rightarrow 0$ since $y_n \rightarrow 0$. By Mazur's Theorem, \exists subsequence of y_{n_k} (call it $y_{n_{k_\ell}}$) and z_ℓ defined by

$$z_\ell = \frac{1}{\ell} (y_{n_{k_1}} + y_{n_{k_2}} + \dots + y_{n_{k_\ell}})$$

and $z_\ell \rightarrow 0$ strongly (the limit is 0 since the weak limit of y_{n_k} is 0). Since f is strongly lower-semicontinuous, then

$$f(0) \leq \underline{\lim}_\ell f(z_\ell) = \underline{\lim}_\ell f\left(\frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} y_{n_{k_i}}\right)$$

Convexity of f implies

$$\underline{\lim}_\ell f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} y_{n_{k_i}}\right) \leq \underline{\lim}_\ell \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{\ell} f(y_{n_{k_i}})$$

However, since $y_{n_{k_i}}$ is a subsequence of y_{n_k} , then

$$f(0) \leq \underline{\lim}_\ell \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{\ell} f(y_{n_{k_i}}) \leq \underline{\lim}_\ell \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{\ell} f(y_{n_k}) < \underline{\lim}_\ell \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{\ell} f(0) - \epsilon$$

which is a contradiction. Thus $f(0) \leq \underline{\lim}_n f(y_n)$, which means f is weakly lower-semicontinuous for the sequence y_n . Thus f is weakly lower-semicontinuous for the sequence u_n , and since u_n was an arbitrary weakly convergent sequence, then f is weakly lower-semicontinuous. □