

# Spectral Properties of a Non-compact Operator in Ecology

Matt Reichenbach

Advised by Richard Rebarber and Brigitte Tenhumberg

Dissertation Defense, November 25, 2020

- Integral projection models (IPMs) are stage-structured population models of the form

$$\varphi_{t+1} = A\varphi_t := \int_L^U k(y, x)\varphi_t(x) dx,$$

- Integral projection models (IPMs) are stage-structured population models of the form

$$\varphi_{t+1} = A\varphi_t := \int_L^U k(y, x) \varphi_t(x) dx,$$

where  $\varphi_t$  gives the population distribution at time  $t$ , the limits  $L$ ,  $U$  are the lower- and upper-limits of the structure variable  $x$ , and the kernel  $k(y, x)$  determines how individuals of size  $x$  contribute to those of size  $y$  in the next time step.

- Integral projection models (IPMs) are stage-structured population models of the form

$$\varphi_{t+1} = A\varphi_t := \int_L^U k(y, x)\varphi_t(x) dx,$$

where  $\varphi_t$  gives the population distribution at time  $t$ , the limits  $L$ ,  $U$  are the lower- and upper-limits of the structure variable  $x$ , and the kernel  $k(y, x)$  determines how individuals of size  $x$  contribute to those of size  $y$  in the next time step.

- IPMs generalize Leslie matrices by allowing for a continuous structure variable.

- We will consider kernel functions of the form

$$k(y, x) = s(x)g(y, x) + b(y)f(x),$$

- We will consider kernel functions of the form

$$k(y, x) = s(x)g(y, x) + b(y)f(x),$$

where

- We will consider kernel functions of the form

$$k(y, x) = s(x)g(y, x) + b(y)f(x),$$

where

- $s(x)$  is the survival function,

- We will consider kernel functions of the form

$$k(y, x) = s(x)g(y, x) + b(y)f(x),$$

where

- $s(x)$  is the survival function,
- $g(y, x)$  is the growth subkernel,



- We will consider kernel functions of the form

$$k(y, x) = s(x)g(y, x) + b(y)f(x),$$

where

- $s(x)$  is the survival function,
- $g(y, x)$  is the growth subkernel,
- $b(y)$  is the offspring distribution,

- We will consider kernel functions of the form

$$k(y, x) = s(x)g(y, x) + b(y)f(x),$$

where

- $s(x)$  is the survival function,
- $g(y, x)$  is the growth subkernel,
- $b(y)$  is the offspring distribution,
- and  $f(x)$  the fecundity function.

- When individuals are allowed to increase or decrease over the time step, the kernel function  $k(y, x)$  of the IPM operator  $A$  will be bounded.

- When individuals are allowed to increase or decrease over the time step, the kernel function  $k(y, x)$  of the IPM operator  $A$  will be bounded.
- For example, this is the case when the structure variable  $x$  is stem diameter, or individual biomass.

- When individuals are allowed to increase or decrease over the time step, the kernel function  $k(y, x)$  of the IPM operator  $A$  will be bounded.
- For example, this is the case when the structure variable  $x$  is stem diameter, or individual biomass.

In this case, Ellner & Rees, in appendices to [3], proved the theorem:

In this case, Ellner & Rees, in appendices to [3], proved the theorem:

## Theorem

*Suppose  $A$  is an IPM operator whose kernel  $k(y, x)$  is positive and continuous on  $[L, U]^2$ . Then  $\lambda = r(A)$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ , and its eigenvector  $\psi$  can be scaled to be positive. Additionally,  $\lambda$  is the asymptotic growth rate of the population, and  $\psi$  is the stable stage distribution, in the sense that for any nonzero initial population  $\varphi_0$ ,*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A^n \varphi_0}{\lambda^n} = C\psi,$$

*where  $C > 0$ .*

- However, ecologists have since used IPMs to model individuals that *cannot* shrink from one time step to the next.



- However, ecologists have since used IPMs to model individuals that *cannot* shrink from one time step to the next.
- For example, Vindenes et. al in [8] modeled fish, and used length as the structure variable  $x$ .

- However, ecologists have since used IPMs to model individuals that *cannot* shrink from one time step to the next.
- For example, Vindenes et. al in [8] modeled fish, and used length as the structure variable  $x$ .
- Fish have bony skeletons, and hence cannot shrink in length.

- Ellner & Rees's theorem implicitly assumed that individuals could shrink; if they cannot shrink the kernel will be unbounded.

# Introduction

- Ellner & Rees's theorem implicitly assumed that individuals could shrink; if they cannot shrink the kernel will be unbounded.
- All IPMs assume that  $g(\cdot, x)$  is a probability distribution; that is:

$$\int_L^U g(y, x) dy = 1, \quad \text{for all } x \in [L, U].$$

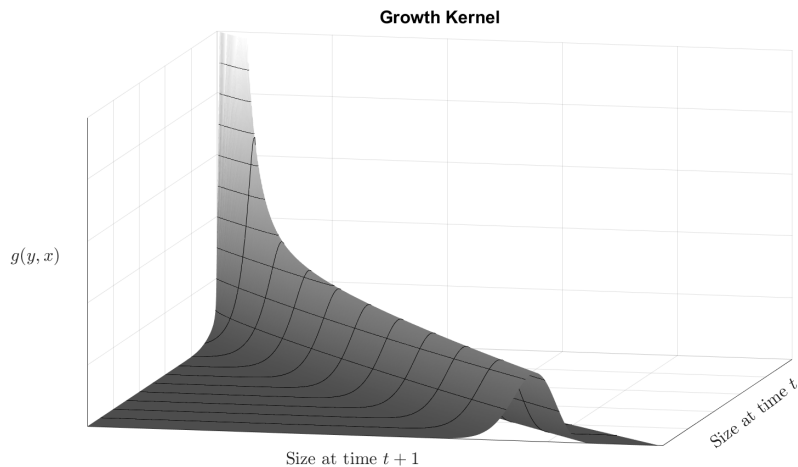
- Ellner & Rees's theorem implicitly assumed that individuals could shrink; if they cannot shrink the kernel will be unbounded.
- All IPMs assume that  $g(\cdot, x)$  is a probability distribution; that is:

$$\int_L^U g(y, x) dy = 1, \quad \text{for all } x \in [L, U].$$

- The assumption that individuals cannot shrink is that

$$g(y, x) = 0, \text{ whenever } y < x.$$

# Introduction



- With an IPM which models a population whose individuals cannot shrink, we have some questions to answer:

- With an IPM which models a population whose individuals cannot shrink, we have some questions to answer:
  - Is the operator  $T$  still compact?



- With an IPM which models a population whose individuals cannot shrink, we have some questions to answer:
  - Is the operator  $T$  still compact?
  - Is  $\lambda = r(T)$  still an eigenvalue of  $T$ ?

- With an IPM which models a population whose individuals cannot shrink, we have some questions to answer:
  - Is the operator  $T$  still compact?
  - Is  $\lambda = r(T)$  still an eigenvalue of  $T$ ?
  - Are  $\lambda$  and its eigenvector  $\psi$  still the asymptotic growth rate and stable stage distribution, respectively, of the population?

# Introduction

- To be clear, our operators act on the space  $L^1 = L^1(\Omega)$  of integrable functions on  $\Omega := [L, U]$ . This is the natural space to work in, because the  $L^1$ -norm of a population distribution gives its total size.

# Introduction

- To be clear, our operators act on the space  $L^1 = L^1(\Omega)$  of integrable functions on  $\Omega := [L, U]$ . This is the natural space to work in, because the  $L^1$ -norm of a population distribution gives its total size.
- Let  $G : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  denote the integral operator with kernel  $g(y, x)$ , the growth subkernel in the IPM:

# Introduction

- To be clear, our operators act on the space  $L^1 = L^1(\Omega)$  of integrable functions on  $\Omega := [L, U]$ . This is the natural space to work in, because the  $L^1$ -norm of a population distribution gives its total size.
- Let  $G : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  denote the integral operator with kernel  $g(y, x)$ , the growth subkernel in the IPM:

$$(G\varphi)(y) := \int_L^U g(y, x) dx.$$

# Introduction

- To be clear, our operators act on the space  $L^1 = L^1(\Omega)$  of integrable functions on  $\Omega := [L, U]$ . This is the natural space to work in, because the  $L^1$ -norm of a population distribution gives its total size.
- Let  $G : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  denote the integral operator with kernel  $g(y, x)$ , the growth subkernel in the IPM:

$$(G\varphi)(y) := \int_L^U g(y, x) dx.$$

- Let  $S : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  be multiplication by  $s(x)$ .

# Introduction

- To be clear, our operators act on the space  $L^1 = L^1(\Omega)$  of integrable functions on  $\Omega := [L, U]$ . This is the natural space to work in, because the  $L^1$ -norm of a population distribution gives its total size.
- Let  $G : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  denote the integral operator with kernel  $g(y, x)$ , the growth subkernel in the IPM:

$$(G\varphi)(y) := \int_L^U g(y, x) dx.$$

- Let  $S : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  be multiplication by  $s(x)$ .
- Let  $F : L^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the fecundity functional  $F\varphi := \int_L^U f(x)\varphi(x) dx$ .

# Introduction

- To be clear, our operators act on the space  $L^1 = L^1(\Omega)$  of integrable functions on  $\Omega := [L, U]$ . This is the natural space to work in, because the  $L^1$ -norm of a population distribution gives its total size.
- Let  $G : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  denote the integral operator with kernel  $g(y, x)$ , the growth subkernel in the IPM:

$$(G\varphi)(y) := \int_L^U g(y, x) dx.$$

- Let  $S : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  be multiplication by  $s(x)$ .
- Let  $F : L^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the fecundity functional  $F\varphi := \int_L^U f(x)\varphi(x) dx$ .
- Then the IPM operator  $T$  can be written  $T = GS + bF$ , where  $b = b(y)$  is the offspring distribution.



# $T$ is Not Compact

## Theorem (Reichenbach, 2018)

*If  $g(y, x)$  is the growth subkernel for an IPM which satisfies  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ , then its associated integral operator  $G$  is not compact.*

# $T$ is Not Compact

## Theorem (Reichenbach, 2018)

*If  $g(y, x)$  is the growth subkernel for an IPM which satisfies  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ , then its associated integral operator  $G$  is not compact.*

## Corollary

*The IPM operator  $T := GS + bF$  is not compact.*

# $T$ is Not Compact

## Theorem (Reichenbach, 2018)

*If  $g(y, x)$  is the growth subkernel for an IPM which satisfies  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ , then its associated integral operator  $G$  is not compact.*

## Corollary

*The IPM operator  $T := GS + bF$  is not compact.*

## Proof Sketch of Corollary.

An assumption of  $s(x)$  is that  $0 < s_0 \leq s(x)$  for all  $x \in [L, U]$ , so we can write

$$G = \frac{T - bF}{s(x)}.$$

Hence,  $G$  and  $T$  must be compact/non-compact together. □

# $T$ is Not Compact

## Proof Sketch for Theorem.

- To show that  $G$  is not compact, we can show something stronger:  $G$  is not *weakly* compact.

# $T$ is Not Compact

## Proof Sketch for Theorem.

- To show that  $G$  is not compact, we can show something stronger:  $G$  is not *weakly* compact.
- Let  $\mathcal{U} \subset L^1$  be the unit ball. A theorem in Dunford & Schwartz [2] says that the set  $G(\mathcal{U})$  is weakly compact on  $L^1(\Omega)$  iff

$$\lim_{\mu(E) \rightarrow 0} \int_E (G\varphi)(t) dt = 0 \quad (1)$$

uniformly for  $\varphi \in \mathcal{U}$ , where  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue measure.

# $T$ is Not Compact

## Proof Sketch for Theorem.

- To show that  $G$  is not compact, we can show something stronger:  $G$  is not *weakly* compact.
- Let  $\mathcal{U} \subset L^1$  be the unit ball. A theorem in Dunford & Schwartz [2] says that the set  $G(\mathcal{U})$  is weakly compact on  $L^1(\Omega)$  iff

$$\lim_{\mu(E) \rightarrow 0} \int_E (G\varphi)(t) dt = 0 \quad (1)$$

uniformly for  $\varphi \in \mathcal{U}$ , where  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue measure.

- Put  $\delta_n := \frac{1}{n}(U - L)$ , and define  $E_n := [U - \delta_n, U]$ ; then  $\mu(E_n) \rightarrow 0$ .

# $T$ is Not Compact

## Proof Sketch for Theorem.

- To show that  $G$  is not compact, we can show something stronger:  $G$  is not *weakly* compact.
- Let  $\mathcal{U} \subset L^1$  be the unit ball. A theorem in Dunford & Schwartz [2] says that the set  $G(\mathcal{U})$  is weakly compact on  $L^1(\Omega)$  iff

$$\lim_{\mu(E) \rightarrow 0} \int_E (G\varphi)(t) dt = 0 \quad (1)$$

uniformly for  $\varphi \in \mathcal{U}$ , where  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue measure.

- Put  $\delta_n := \frac{1}{n}(U - L)$ , and define  $E_n := [U - \delta_n, U]$ ; then  $\mu(E_n) \rightarrow 0$ .
- Define  $h_n(t) := \frac{1}{\delta_n} \chi_{E_n}(t)$ ; then  $h_n \in \mathcal{U}$ . The limit (1) is not uniform on the collection  $\{h_n\}$ . Therefore,  $G$  is not weakly compact.



# $T$ is Not Compact

- When Ellner & Rees proved their theorem about the compact IPM operator  $T$ , they used a theorem that only required there to be an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $T^k$  is compact for  $k \geq N$ .



# $T$ is Not Compact

- When Ellner & Rees proved their theorem about the compact IPM operator  $T$ , they used a theorem that only required there to be an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $T^k$  is compact for  $k \geq N$ .
- However, the proof in the written dissertation shows that  $T^k$  fails to be compact for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  when  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ .

# $T$ is Not Compact

- When Ellner & Rees proved their theorem about the compact IPM operator  $T$ , they used a theorem that only required there to be an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $T^k$  is compact for  $k \geq N$ .
- However, the proof in the written dissertation shows that  $T^k$  fails to be compact for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  when  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ .
- Thus, we will require a wholly different method in order to prove a similar theorem.

## Definition

A closed convex set  $K$  of the real Banach space  $X$  is called a *cone* if the following conditions hold:

- for any  $x \in K$  and  $a \geq 0$ , the element  $ax$  is in  $K$ ,

## Definition

A closed convex set  $K$  of the real Banach space  $X$  is called a *cone* if the following conditions hold:

- for any  $x \in K$  and  $a \geq 0$ , the element  $ax$  is in  $K$ ,
- for any pair  $x, y \in K$ , the element  $x + y$  is in  $K$ , and

## Definition

A closed convex set  $K$  of the real Banach space  $X$  is called a *cone* if the following conditions hold:

- for any  $x \in K$  and  $a \geq 0$ , the element  $ax$  is in  $K$ ,
- for any pair  $x, y \in K$ , the element  $x + y$  is in  $K$ , and
- $K \cap -K = \{0\}$ .

## Definition

A closed convex set  $K$  of the real Banach space  $X$  is called a *cone* if the following conditions hold:

- for any  $x \in K$  and  $a \geq 0$ , the element  $ax$  is in  $K$ ,
- for any pair  $x, y \in K$ , the element  $x + y$  is in  $K$ , and
- $K \cap -K = \{0\}$ .

For example, the set of nonnegative almost-everywhere functions in  $L^1$  forms a cone.

## Definition

A closed convex set  $K$  of the real Banach space  $X$  is called a *cone* if the following conditions hold:

- for any  $x \in K$  and  $a \geq 0$ , the element  $ax$  is in  $K$ ,
- for any pair  $x, y \in K$ , the element  $x + y$  is in  $K$ , and
- $K \cap -K = \{0\}$ .

For example, the set of nonnegative almost-everywhere functions in  $L^1$  forms a cone.

## Definition

For a Banach space  $X$ , its *Banach dual space*  $X^*$  is the collection of continuous linear functionals on  $X$ .

# Helpful Definitions

## Definition

A closed convex set  $K$  of the real Banach space  $X$  is called a *cone* if the following conditions hold:

- for any  $x \in K$  and  $a \geq 0$ , the element  $ax$  is in  $K$ ,
- for any pair  $x, y \in K$ , the element  $x + y$  is in  $K$ , and
- $K \cap -K = \{0\}$ .

For example, the set of nonnegative almost-everywhere functions in  $L^1$  forms a cone.

## Definition

For a Banach space  $X$ , its *Banach dual space*  $X^*$  is the collection of continuous linear functionals on  $X$ .

For example,  $L^\infty$  is the Banach dual of  $L^1$ .



## Definition

Given a bounded operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , its *spectrum*  $\sigma(T) \subset \mathbb{C}$  is the set

$$\sigma(T) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid zI - T \text{ is not boundedly invertible}\}.$$

## Definition

Given a bounded operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , its *spectrum*  $\sigma(T) \subset \mathbb{C}$  is the set

$$\sigma(T) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid zI - T \text{ is not boundedly invertible}\}.$$

The *spectral radius*  $r(T)$  is given by

$$r(T) := \sup\{|z| \mid z \in \sigma(T)\}.$$

## Definition

Given a bounded operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , its *spectrum*  $\sigma(T) \subset \mathbb{C}$  is the set

$$\sigma(T) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid zI - T \text{ is not boundedly invertible}\}.$$

The *spectral radius*  $r(T)$  is given by

$$r(T) := \sup\{|z| \mid z \in \sigma(T)\}.$$

## Definition

Given an operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , its *resolvent*  $R(z, T)$  is defined as  $(zI - T)^{-1}$ , which is holomorphic in the *resolvent set*  $\rho(T) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(T)$ .

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$  in a Banach space  $X$ , the *dual cone*  $K^* \subset X^*$  is the collection of all continuous linear functionals  $x^*$  such that  $\langle x, x^* \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x \in K$ .

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$  in a Banach space  $X$ , the *dual cone*  $K^* \subset X^*$  is the collection of all continuous linear functionals  $x^*$  such that  $\langle x, x^* \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x \in K$ .

For example, if  $K \subset L^1$  is the standard cone, then  $K^* \subset L^\infty$  is the collection of functionals represented by nonnegative functions.

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$  in a Banach space  $X$ , the *dual cone*  $K^* \subset X^*$  is the collection of all continuous linear functionals  $x^*$  such that  $\langle x, x^* \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x \in K$ .

For example, if  $K \subset L^1$  is the standard cone, then  $K^* \subset L^\infty$  is the collection of functionals represented by nonnegative functions.

## Definition

An operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is called *positive* with respect to the cone  $K \subset X$  if  $T(K) \subset K$ .

## Definition

Given a linear operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , its *Banach adjoint*  $T^* : X^* \rightarrow X^*$  is the unique operator such that  $\langle Tx, x^* \rangle = \langle x, T^*x^* \rangle$ .

## Definition

Given a linear operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , its *Banach adjoint*  $T^* : X^* \rightarrow X^*$  is the unique operator such that  $\langle Tx, x^* \rangle = \langle x, T^*x^* \rangle$ .

For example, given an integral operator  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  defined by

$$(T\varphi)(y) = \int_L^U k(y, t)\varphi(t) dt,$$



## Definition

Given a linear operator  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , its *Banach adjoint*  $T^* : X^* \rightarrow X^*$  is the unique operator such that  $\langle Tx, x^* \rangle = \langle x, T^*x^* \rangle$ .

For example, given an integral operator  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  defined by

$$(T\varphi)(y) = \int_L^U k(y, t)\varphi(t) dt,$$

its Banach adjoint is given by “transposing” the kernel function:

$$(T^*\varphi^*)(t) = \int_L^U k(y, t)\varphi^*(y) dy.$$

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$ , an element  $\varphi \in K$  is called *quasi-interior* if  $\langle \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for all nonzero  $\varphi^* \in K^*$

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$ , an element  $\varphi \in K$  is called *quasi-interior* if  $\langle \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for all nonzero  $\varphi^* \in K^*$

For example, the quasi-interior elements of  $K \subset L^1$  are the positive almost-everywhere integrable functions.

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$ , an element  $\varphi \in K$  is called *quasi-interior* if  $\langle \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for all nonzero  $\varphi^* \in K^*$

For example, the quasi-interior elements of  $K \subset L^1$  are the positive almost-everywhere integrable functions.

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$ , an element  $\varphi^* \in K^*$  is called *strictly positive* if  $\langle \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for all nonzero  $\varphi \in K$ .

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$ , an element  $\varphi \in K$  is called *quasi-interior* if  $\langle \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for all nonzero  $\varphi^* \in K^*$

For example, the quasi-interior elements of  $K \subset L^1$  are the positive almost-everywhere integrable functions.

## Definition

Given a cone  $K$ , an element  $\varphi^* \in K^*$  is called *strictly positive* if  $\langle \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for all nonzero  $\varphi \in K$ .

For the same cone  $K$  above, the strictly positive elements of  $K^* \subset L^\infty$  are those represented by positive almost-everywhere, essentially bounded functions.

# Main Theorem

## Theorem (R., 2020)

*Suppose that  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is an IPM operator such that  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ . Then under biologically reasonable assumptions,  $T$  has the following properties (among others):*

# Main Theorem

## Theorem (R., 2020)

*Suppose that  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is an IPM operator such that  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ . Then under biologically reasonable assumptions,  $T$  has the following properties (among others):*

- The spectral radius  $\lambda = r(T)$  is a positive eigenvalue for  $T$  and  $T^*$ . Moreover, the respective eigenvectors  $\psi$  and  $\psi^*$  span one-dimensional eigenspaces,  $\psi$  is quasi-interior,  $\psi^*$  represents a strictly positive linear functional, and both  $\psi$ ,  $\psi^*$  are the only eigenvectors of  $T$ ,  $T^*$  which can be scaled to be nonnegative almost-everywhere.*

# Main Theorem

## Theorem (R., 2020)

*Suppose that  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is an IPM operator such that  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ . Then under biologically reasonable assumptions,  $T$  has the following properties (among others):*

- The spectral radius  $\lambda = r(T)$  is a positive eigenvalue for  $T$  and  $T^*$ . Moreover, the respective eigenvectors  $\psi$  and  $\psi^*$  span one-dimensional eigenspaces,  $\psi$  is quasi-interior,  $\psi^*$  represents a strictly positive linear functional, and both  $\psi, \psi^*$  are the only eigenvectors of  $T, T^*$  which can be scaled to be nonnegative almost-everywhere.*
- Suppose  $\psi$  is scaled so that  $\|\psi\|_1 = 1$ , and  $\psi^*$  is scaled so that  $\langle \psi, \psi^* \rangle = 1$ . Then for any nonzero  $\varphi_0 \in K$ , we have*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T^n \varphi_0}{\lambda^n} = \langle \varphi_0, \psi^* \rangle \psi.$$



# Main Theorem

- This theorem is in large part a consequence of a general theorem of Marek [4], though the tools he used were introduced by Sawashima [6].

# Main Theorem

- This theorem is in large part a consequence of a general theorem of Marek [4], though the tools he used were introduced by Sawashima [6].
- To apply Marek's theorem, we need to show two things:

# Main Theorem

- This theorem is in large part a consequence of a general theorem of Marek [4], though the tools he used were introduced by Sawashima [6].
- To apply Marek's theorem, we need to show two things:
  - ①  $T$  is a *nonsupporting* operator, and

# Main Theorem

- This theorem is in large part a consequence of a general theorem of Marek [4], though the tools he used were introduced by Sawashima [6].
- To apply Marek's theorem, we need to show two things:
  - 1  $T$  is a *nonsupporting* operator, and
  - 2  $r(T)$  is a pole of the resolvent  $R(z, T)$ .

# $T$ is Nonsupporting

## Definition

Suppose  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is a positive operator with respect to the cone  $K$ , and suppose that  $\varphi \in K$ ,  $\varphi^* \in K^*$  are both nonzero.

# $T$ is Nonsupporting

## Definition

Suppose  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is a positive operator with respect to the cone  $K$ , and suppose that  $\varphi \in K$ ,  $\varphi^* \in K^*$  are both nonzero.

- $T$  is called *nonsupporting* if for every pair  $\varphi, \varphi^*$  there exists a positive integer  $p = p(\varphi, \varphi^*)$  such that  $\langle T^n \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for every  $n \geq p$ .

# $T$ is Nonsupporting

## Definition

Suppose  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is a positive operator with respect to the cone  $K$ , and suppose that  $\varphi \in K$ ,  $\varphi^* \in K^*$  are both nonzero.

- $T$  is called *nonsupporting* if for every pair  $\varphi, \varphi^*$  there exists a positive integer  $p = p(\varphi, \varphi^*)$  such that  $\langle T^n \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for every  $n \geq p$ .
- $T$  is called *strictly nonsupporting* if for every pair  $\varphi, \varphi^*$  there is a positive integer  $p = p(\varphi)$  such that  $\langle T^n \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for  $n \geq p$ .

# $T$ is Nonsupporting

## Definition

Suppose  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is a positive operator with respect to the cone  $K$ , and suppose that  $\varphi \in K$ ,  $\varphi^* \in K^*$  are both nonzero.

- $T$  is called *nonsupporting* if for every pair  $\varphi$ ,  $\varphi^*$  there exists a positive integer  $p = p(\varphi, \varphi^*)$  such that  $\langle T^n \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for every  $n \geq p$ .
- $T$  is called *strictly nonsupporting* if for every pair  $\varphi$ ,  $\varphi^*$  there is a positive integer  $p = p(\varphi)$  such that  $\langle T^n \varphi, \varphi^* \rangle > 0$  for  $n \geq p$ .

Our non-compact IPM operator  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is in fact strictly non-supporting, and the integer  $p$  actually doesn't depend on the choice of  $\varphi \in L^1$  either.



# T is Nonsupporting

- These concepts are useful because they are applicable to a general cone  $K$ .

# $T$ is Nonsupporting

- These concepts are useful because they are applicable to a general cone  $K$ .
- But in our particular case of  $K \subset L^1$ , an operator  $T$  is strictly nonsupporting if  $T^n \varphi$  is positive almost-everywhere for every nonzero  $\varphi \in K$  and sufficiently large  $n$ .

# $T$ is Nonsupporting

- These concepts are useful because they are applicable to a general cone  $K$ .
- But in our particular case of  $K \subset L^1$ , an operator  $T$  is strictly nonsupporting if  $T^n \varphi$  is positive almost-everywhere for every nonzero  $\varphi \in K$  and sufficiently large  $n$ .
- An easy condition to guarantee this is to assume  $b(y) > 0$  almost everywhere.

# T is Nonsupporting

- These concepts are useful because they are applicable to a general cone  $K$ .
- But in our particular case of  $K \subset L^1$ , an operator  $T$  is strictly nonsupporting if  $T^n \varphi$  is positive almost-everywhere for every nonzero  $\varphi \in K$  and sufficiently large  $n$ .
- An easy condition to guarantee this is to assume  $b(y) > 0$  almost everywhere.
- However, this is not a biologically realistic assumption. We instead imposed more conditions on the growth kernel  $g(y, x)$ , and which all IPMs satisfy (to our knowledge) in order to prove:

# T is Nonsupporting

- These concepts are useful because they are applicable to a general cone  $K$ .
- But in our particular case of  $K \subset L^1$ , an operator  $T$  is strictly nonsupporting if  $T^n \varphi$  is positive almost-everywhere for every nonzero  $\varphi \in K$  and sufficiently large  $n$ .
- An easy condition to guarantee this is to assume  $b(y) > 0$  almost everywhere.
- However, this is not a biologically realistic assumption. We instead imposed more conditions on the growth kernel  $g(y, x)$ , and which all IPMs satisfy (to our knowledge) in order to prove:

## Theorem

*The IPM operator  $T$  is strictly nonsupporting (hence, nonsupporting) under biologically reasonable assumptions. Additionally, the integer  $p$  does not depend on the choice of  $\varphi \in L^1$ .*

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Recall that the *resolvent* of an operator  $T$  is defined to be  $R(z, T) := (zI - T)^{-1}$ , which is well-defined in the resolvent set  $\rho(T) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(T)$ .

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Recall that the *resolvent* of an operator  $T$  is defined to be  $R(z, T) := (zI - T)^{-1}$ , which is well-defined in the resolvent set  $\rho(T) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(T)$ .
- To show that  $r(T)$  is a pole of  $R(z, T)$ , we will apply the theorem

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Recall that the *resolvent* of an operator  $T$  is defined to be  $R(z, T) := (zI - T)^{-1}$ , which is well-defined in the resolvent set  $\rho(T) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(T)$ .
- To show that  $r(T)$  is a pole of  $R(z, T)$ , we will apply the theorem

## Theorem (Clement, 1987 [1])

*Suppose that  $z \in \sigma(T) \setminus \sigma_e(T)$ , where  $\sigma_e(T)$  denotes the essential spectrum. Then  $z$  is a pole of  $R(z, T)$ .*

- With this theorem, you can intuitively think of the essential spectrum as “the points in the spectrum that are not poles”.



# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Definition

We say an element  $z \in \sigma(T)$  is in the *essential spectrum*, denoted  $\sigma_e(T)$ , if one of the following conditions holds:

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Definition

We say an element  $z \in \sigma(T)$  is in the *essential spectrum*, denoted  $\sigma_e(T)$ , if one of the following conditions holds:

- 1 The range of  $(zI - T)$  is not closed,

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Definition

We say an element  $z \in \sigma(T)$  is in the *essential spectrum*, denoted  $\sigma_e(T)$ , if one of the following conditions holds:

- 1 The range of  $(zI - T)$  is not closed,
- 2  $z$  is a limit point  $\sigma(T)$ , or

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Definition

We say an element  $z \in \sigma(T)$  is in the *essential spectrum*, denoted  $\sigma_e(T)$ , if one of the following conditions holds:

- 1 The range of  $(zI - T)$  is not closed,
- 2  $z$  is a limit point of  $\sigma(T)$ , or
- 3  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \ker(zI - T)^n$  is infinite-dimensional.

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Definition

We say an element  $z \in \sigma(T)$  is in the *essential spectrum*, denoted  $\sigma_e(T)$ , if one of the following conditions holds:

- 1 The range of  $(zI - T)$  is not closed,
- 2  $z$  is a limit point  $\sigma(T)$ , or
- 3  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \ker(zI - T)^n$  is infinite-dimensional.

The *essential spectral radius* is the value

$$r_e(T) := \sup\{|z| \mid z \in \sigma_e(T)\}.$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Hereafter, put  $\lambda = r(T)$ . To show the statement in the title of this slide, we need to show:

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Hereafter, put  $\lambda = r(T)$ . To show the statement in the title of this slide, we need to show:
  - 1  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ , and

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Hereafter, put  $\lambda = r(T)$ . To show the statement in the title of this slide, we need to show:
  - 1  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ , and
  - 2  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ .



# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Hereafter, put  $\lambda = r(T)$ . To show the statement in the title of this slide, we need to show:
  - ①  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ , and
  - ②  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ .
- The first inclusion is straightforward:

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Hereafter, put  $\lambda = r(T)$ . To show the statement in the title of this slide, we need to show:
  - ①  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ , and
  - ②  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ .
- The first inclusion is straightforward:

## Theorem (Schaefer (1960), [7])

*Let  $K \subset X$  be a normal cone. If  $A : X \rightarrow X$  is a positive operator with respect to  $K$ , then  $\lambda = r(A)$  is an element of  $\sigma(A)$ .*

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Hereafter, put  $\lambda = r(T)$ . To show the statement in the title of this slide, we need to show:
  - ①  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ , and
  - ②  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ .
- The first inclusion is straightforward:

## Theorem (Schaefer (1960), [7])

*Let  $K \subset X$  be a normal cone. If  $A : X \rightarrow X$  is a positive operator with respect to  $K$ , then  $\lambda = r(A)$  is an element of  $\sigma(A)$ .*

- The cone  $K \subset L^1$  of nonnegative a.e. functions is normal, and the IPM operator  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is positive w.r.t.  $K$ , so  $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ .

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- To show that  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ , we will exhibit a real-valued  $\mu \in \sigma(T)$  such that  $\mu > r_e(T)$ .

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- To show that  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ , we will exhibit a real-valued  $\mu \in \sigma(T)$  such that  $\mu > r_e(T)$ .
- This implies that

$$\lambda \geq \mu > r_e(T),$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- To show that  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ , we will exhibit a real-valued  $\mu \in \sigma(T)$  such that  $\mu > r_e(T)$ .
- This implies that

$$\lambda \geq \mu > r_e(T),$$

which in turn implies that  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ .

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- The first step in this process is to compute  $r_e(T)$ .

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- The first step in this process is to compute  $r_e(T)$ .
- There is a formula, due to Nussbaum [5] for  $r_e(T)$ :

$$r_e(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta(T^n)^{1/n},$$



# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- The first step in this process is to compute  $r_e(T)$ .
- There is a formula, due to Nussbaum [5] for  $r_e(T)$ :

$$r_e(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta(T^n)^{1/n},$$

where  $\beta(T^n) := \beta(T^n(\mathcal{U}))$ , and  $\beta$  is the *ball measure of noncompactness* (or ball-MNC).

## Definition

The *ball-MNC*, also known as the *Hausdorff-MNC*, of a subset  $V$  of the vector space  $X$  is given by

$$\beta(V) := \inf\{r > 0 \mid V \text{ can be covered by finitely many balls of radius } r\}$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Definition

The *ball-MNC*, also known as the *Hausdorff-MNC*, of a subset  $V$  of the vector space  $X$  is given by

$$\beta(V) := \inf\{r > 0 \mid V \text{ can be covered by finitely many balls of radius } r\}$$

- for  $V \subset L^p$ , there is a “nice” formula for  $\beta(V)$ :

$$\beta(V) = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \sup_{\varphi \in V} \sup_{0 < \tau \leq \delta} \|\varphi - \varphi_\tau\|_p,$$

where  $\varphi_\tau(t) := \varphi(t + \tau)$ .

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Since the mapping  $bF : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  has a one-dimensional range (spanned by  $b = b(y)$ ), it's compact.

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Since the mapping  $bF : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  has a one-dimensional range (spanned by  $b = b(y)$ ), it's compact.
- Hence, the ball-MNC  $\beta$  “doesn't see it”, and

$$\beta(T^k) = \beta((GS + bF)^k) = \beta((GS)^k).$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- Since the mapping  $bF : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  has a one-dimensional range (spanned by  $b = b(y)$ ), it's compact.
- Hence, the ball-MNC  $\beta$  “doesn't see it”, and

$$\beta(T^k) = \beta((GS + bF)^k) = \beta((GS)^k).$$

- This simplifies the problem a lot, and allows us to compute

$$r_e(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta(T^n)^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta((GS)^n)^{1/n} = r_e((GS)^n)^{1/n}.$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2018)

Put  $s_1 := \sup\{s(x)\} = s(U)$ . Then

$$r_e(GS) \leq r(GS) \leq s_1. \quad (2)$$

If  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ , then equalities hold in (2).

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2018)

Put  $s_1 := \sup\{s(x)\} = s(U)$ . Then

$$r_e(GS) \leq r(GS) \leq s_1. \quad (2)$$

If  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ , then equalities hold in (2).

## Proof sketch.

The first inequality follows from the fact that  $\sigma_e(GS) \subset \sigma(GS)$ , and the second follows from Gelfand's formula for the spectral radius:

$$r(GS) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|(GS)^n\|^{1/n}.$$



# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2018)

Put  $s_1 := \sup\{s(x)\} = s(U)$ . Then

$$r_e(GS) \leq r(GS) \leq s_1. \quad (2)$$

If  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ , then equalities hold in (2).

## Proof sketch.

The first inequality follows from the fact that  $\sigma_e(GS) \subset \sigma(GS)$ , and the second follows from Gelfand's formula for the spectral radius:

$$r(GS) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|(GS)^n\|^{1/n}.$$

Assuming that  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ , one can use the formula for  $\beta$ , with a properly chosen subsequence of functions in  $L^1$ , to show that  $s_1 \leq r_e(GS)$ . □

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem

*Suppose  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , the resolvent set of  $GS$ , and define  $\psi := (\mu I - GS)^{-1}b$ . If*

$$F\psi = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1,$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem

*Suppose  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , the resolvent set of  $GS$ , and define  $\psi := (\mu I - GS)^{-1}b$ . If*

$$F\psi = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1,$$

*then  $\psi$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\mu$ .*

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem

*Suppose  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , the resolvent set of  $GS$ , and define  $\psi := (\mu I - GS)^{-1}b$ . If*

$$F\psi = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1,$$

*then  $\psi$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\mu$ . Conversely, if  $v$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , then  $v$  is in the span of  $\psi$ , and  $F\psi = 1$ .*

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem

*Suppose  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , the resolvent set of  $GS$ , and define  $\psi := (\mu I - GS)^{-1}b$ . If*

$$F\psi = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1,$$

*then  $\psi$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\mu$ . Conversely, if  $v$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , then  $v$  is in the span of  $\psi$ , and  $F\psi = 1$ .*

- This characterizes what eigenvectors look like, and tells us exactly when  $T$  has an eigenvalue  $\mu$  (so long as  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ ).

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem

*Suppose  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , the resolvent set of  $GS$ , and define  $\psi := (\mu I - GS)^{-1}b$ . If*

$$F\psi = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1,$$

*then  $\psi$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\mu$ . Conversely, if  $v$  is an eigenvector for  $T$  with eigenvalue  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ , then  $v$  is in the span of  $\psi$ , and  $F\psi = 1$ .*

- This characterizes what eigenvectors look like, and tells us exactly when  $T$  has an eigenvalue  $\mu$  (so long as  $\mu \in \rho(GS)$ ).
- Recall that we want some  $\mu$  such that

$$r(T) \geq \mu > r_e(T) = s_1.$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2019)

Put  $E := (s_1, \infty)$ , and define the function  $P : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$P(t) := F(tI - GS)^{-1}b,$$

where  $GS$  satisfies biologically reasonable properties. Then:

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2019)

Put  $E := (s_1, \infty)$ , and define the function  $P : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$P(t) := F(tI - GS)^{-1}b,$$

where  $GS$  satisfies biologically reasonable properties. Then:

- 1  $P$  is continuous,



# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2019)

Put  $E := (s_1, \infty)$ , and define the function  $P : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$P(t) := F(tI - GS)^{-1}b,$$

where  $GS$  satisfies biologically reasonable properties. Then:

- 1  $P$  is continuous,
- 2  $P$  is strictly decreasing,

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2019)

Put  $E := (s_1, \infty)$ , and define the function  $P : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$P(t) := F(tI - GS)^{-1}b,$$

where  $GS$  satisfies biologically reasonable properties. Then:

- ①  $P$  is continuous,
- ②  $P$  is strictly decreasing,
- ③  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P(t) = 0$ ,

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

## Theorem (R., 2019)

Put  $E := (s_1, \infty)$ , and define the function  $P : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$P(t) := F(tI - GS)^{-1}b,$$

where  $GS$  satisfies biologically reasonable properties. Then:

- ①  $P$  is continuous,
- ②  $P$  is strictly decreasing,
- ③  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P(t) = 0$ ,
- ④ and if in addition there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $s(x) \equiv s_1$  for  $x \in [U - \varepsilon, U]$ , then

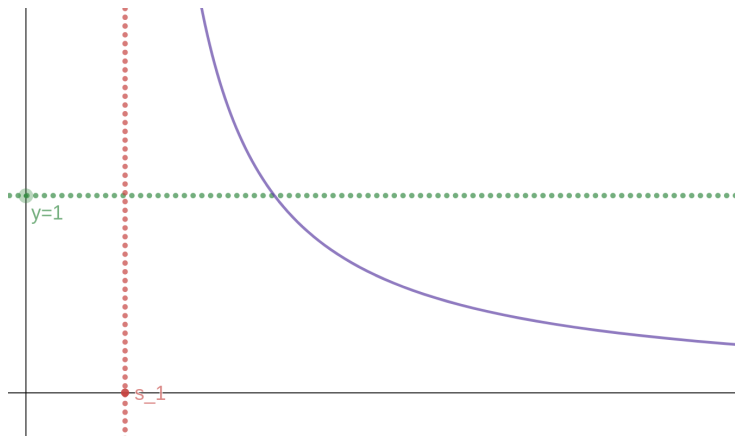
$$\lim_{t \rightarrow s_1} P(t) = \infty.$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

Here's what  $P(t)$  might look like because of this theorem:

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

Here's what  $P(t)$  might look like because of this theorem:



# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- This theorem guarantees the existence of a (unique)  $\mu > s_1$  such that

$$P(\mu) = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1.$$

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- This theorem guarantees the existence of a (unique)  $\mu > s_1$  such that

$$P(\mu) = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1.$$

- Hence,  $\mu$  is an eigenvalue of  $T$ , so  $\mu \in \sigma(T)$ .

# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- This theorem guarantees the existence of a (unique)  $\mu > s_1$  such that

$$P(\mu) = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1.$$

- Hence,  $\mu$  is an eigenvalue of  $T$ , so  $\mu \in \sigma(T)$ .
- Additionally, for  $\lambda = r(T)$ ,

$$\lambda \geq \mu > s_1 = r_e(GS).$$



# $r(T)$ is a Pole of the Resolvent

- This theorem guarantees the existence of a (unique)  $\mu > s_1$  such that

$$P(\mu) = F(\mu I - GS)^{-1}b = 1.$$

- Hence,  $\mu$  is an eigenvalue of  $T$ , so  $\mu \in \sigma(T)$ .
- Additionally, for  $\lambda = r(T)$ ,

$$\lambda \geq \mu > s_1 = r_e(GS).$$

Thus, we can conclude that  $\lambda \notin \sigma_e(T)$ . This is the last ingredient we needed to prove...

## Theorem (R., 2020)

*Suppose that  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is an IPM operator such that  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ . Then under biologically reasonable assumptions,  $T$  has the following properties (among others):*

## Theorem (R., 2020)

*Suppose that  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is an IPM operator such that  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ . Then under biologically reasonable assumptions,  $T$  has the following properties (among others):*

- *The spectral radius  $\lambda = r(T)$  is a positive eigenvalue for  $T$  and  $T^*$ . Moreover, the respective eigenvectors  $\psi$  and  $\psi^*$  span one-dimensional eigenspaces,  $\psi$  is quasi-interior,  $\psi^*$  represents a strictly positive linear functional, and both  $\psi, \psi^*$  are the only eigenvectors of  $T, T^*$  which can be scaled to be nonnegative almost-everywhere.*

## Theorem (R., 2020)

*Suppose that  $T : L^1 \rightarrow L^1$  is an IPM operator such that  $g(y, x) = 0$  for  $y < x$ . Then under biologically reasonable assumptions,  $T$  has the following properties (among others):*

- *The spectral radius  $\lambda = r(T)$  is a positive eigenvalue for  $T$  and  $T^*$ . Moreover, the respective eigenvectors  $\psi$  and  $\psi^*$  span one-dimensional eigenspaces,  $\psi$  is quasi-interior,  $\psi^*$  represents a strictly positive linear functional, and both  $\psi$ ,  $\psi^*$  are the only eigenvectors of  $T$ ,  $T^*$  which can be scaled to be nonnegative almost-everywhere.*
- *Suppose  $\psi$  is scaled so that  $\|\psi\|_1 = 1$ , and  $\psi^*$  is scaled so that  $\langle \psi, \psi^* \rangle = 1$ . Then for any nonzero  $\varphi_0 \in K$ , we have*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T^n \varphi_0}{\lambda^n} = \langle \varphi_0, \psi^* \rangle \psi.$$

# Estimating the Spectral Radius

- Before I state the result, define the functions

# Estimating the Spectral Radius

- Before I state the result, define the functions

$$Q(t) := -1 + F(tI - GS)^{-1}b = -1 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{F((GS)^k b)}{t^{k+1}},$$

$$Q_n(t) := -1 + \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{F((GS)^k b)}{t^{k+1}},$$

$$Q_{n,\delta}(t) := -1 + \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{F((G_\delta S)^k b)}{t^{k+1}},$$

# Estimating the Spectral Radius

- Before I state the result, define the functions

$$Q(t) := -1 + F(tI - GS)^{-1}b = -1 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{F((GS)^k b)}{t^{k+1}},$$

$$Q_n(t) := -1 + \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{F((GS)^k b)}{t^{k+1}},$$

$$Q_{n,\delta}(t) := -1 + \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{F((G_\delta S)^k b)}{t^{k+1}},$$

where  $G_\delta$  is the integral operator with kernel equal to  $g(y, x)$  on  $[L, U - \delta] \times [L, U]$ , and 0 otherwise.

## Theorem (R., 2020)

*For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  and a  $\delta(N) > 0$  such that for any  $n \geq N$  and  $\delta < \delta(N)$ , we have*

$$|z_{n,\delta} - \lambda| < \varepsilon,$$

*where  $z_{n,\delta}$  is the unique zero of  $Q_{n,\delta}$ , and  $\lambda$  is the unique zero of  $Q$  (i.e., the spectral radius of  $T$ ).*



# Questions or Comments?

# Questions or Comments?

① Question?

# Questions or Comments?

- 1 Question?
  - Comment.

# Questions or Comments?

## ① Question?

- Comment.
- Comment.

# Questions or Comments?

- ① Question?
  - Comment.
  - Comment.
- ② Question?

# Questions or Comments?

- ① Question?
  - Comment.
  - Comment.
- ② Question?
  - Comment.

# Questions or Comments?

## ① Question?

- Comment.
- Comment.

## ② Question?

- Comment.
- Question?

# Questions or Comments?

## ① Question?

- Comment.
- Comment.

## ② Question?

- Comment.
- Question?
  - ① Comment.



# Questions or Comments?






## ① Question?

- Comment.
- Comment.




## ② Question?

- Comment.
- Question?
  - ① Comment.
  - ② Comment.

# References I

-  P. Clément et al. *One-Parameter Semigroups*. Elsevier Science Publishers B.V., 1987.
-  N. Dunford and J.T. Schwartz. *Linear Operators, Part I: General Theory*. Interscience, New York, 1958.
-  S.P. Ellner and M. Rees. “Integral Projection Models for Species with Complex Demography”. In: *The American Naturalist* 167.3 (2006), pp. 410–428.
-  Ivo Marek. “Frobenius Theory of Positive Operators: Comparison Theorems and Applications”. In: *SIAM Journal of Applied Mathematics* 19.3 (1970), pp. 607–628.
-  R.D. Nussbaum. “The radius of the essential spectrum”. In: *Duke Mathematical Journal* 38 (1970), pp. 473–478.

# References II

-  I. Sawashima. “On Spectral Properties of Some Positive Operators”. In: *Natural Science Report, Ochanomizu University* 15.2 (1964), pp. 53–64.
-  H.H. Schaefer. “Some Properties of Positive Linear Operators”. In: *Pacific Journal of Mathematics* 10 (1960), pp. 1009–1019.
-  Y. Vindenes et al. “Effects of Climate Change on Trait-Based Dynamics of a Top Predator in Freshwater Ecosystems”. In: *The American Naturalist* 183.2 (2014), pp. 243–256.

# Estimating the Spectral Radius

- An important question is whether one can estimate  $\lambda = r(T)$  on a computer when  $T$  is not compact.

# Estimating the Spectral Radius

- An important question is whether one can estimate  $\lambda = r(T)$  on a computer when  $T$  is not compact.
- The standard methods of doing this when the operator is compact rely on approximating it uniformly with matrices.

# Estimating the Spectral Radius

- An important question is whether one can estimate  $\lambda = r(T)$  on a computer when  $T$  is not compact.
- The standard methods of doing this when the operator is compact rely on approximating it uniformly with matrices.
- But these methods do not work when  $T$  is not compact.

# Estimating the Spectral Radius

- An important question is whether one can estimate  $\lambda = r(T)$  on a computer when  $T$  is not compact.
- The standard methods of doing this when the operator is compact rely on approximating it uniformly with matrices.
- But these methods do not work when  $T$  is not compact.
- I was not able to fully resolve this question, but I did prove that the spectral radii of certain compact operators approach the spectral radius of  $T$ .