## Chapter 1

## Spectrum of bounded operators

## [Draft version, November 16, 2022]

In this chapter we introduce the basic notions of spectral theory for bounded operators. We do not too far in the general properties since many aspects will be common with the theory for unbounded operators, discussed in the next chapter.

### 1.1 Bounded operators - Examples

Let $E$ and $F$ be two Banach spaces. We denote by $\mathcal{L}(E, F)$ the set of bounded linear maps from E to F , and for $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{F})$ we set

$$
\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{~F})}=\sup _{\varphi \in \mathrm{E} \backslash\{0\}} \frac{\|A \varphi\|_{\mathrm{F}}}{\|\varphi\|_{\mathrm{E}}} .
$$

We write $\mathcal{L}(E)$ for $\mathcal{L}(E, E)$.
Remark 1.1. We recall that a linear map from $E$ to $F$ is continuous if and only if it is bounded.
Remark 1.2. Let G be a third Banach space. For $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{F})$ and $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{~F}, \mathrm{G})$ we have

$$
\|B A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{G})} \leqslant\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{~F})}\|B\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{F}, \mathrm{G})}
$$

Example 1.3. If E has finite dimension then all the linear maps from E to F are continuous.
Example 1.4. We consider on $\ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})$ the operators $S_{r}$ and $S_{\ell}$ defined by

$$
S_{r}\left(u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, \ldots\right)=\left(0, u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}, \ldots\right)
$$

and

$$
S_{\ell}\left(u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, \ldots\right)=\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n+1}, \ldots\right)
$$

Then $S_{r}$ and $S_{\ell}$ are bounded operators on $\ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})$ with $\left\|S_{r}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})\right)}=\left\|S_{\ell}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})\right)}=1$.
Example 1.5. Let $a=\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a bounded sequence in $\mathbb{C}$. For $u=\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})$ we define $M_{a} u \in \ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})$ by

$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad\left(M_{a} u\right)_{n}=a_{n} u_{n}
$$

We have $M_{a} \in \ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})$ with $\left\|M_{a}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})\right)}=\sup _{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left|a_{n}\right|$.
Example 1.6. More generally, let $(\Omega, \mu)$ be a measure space. Let $w \in L^{\infty}(\Omega)$. We consider on $L^{2}(\Omega)$ the multiplication operator $M_{w}: u \mapsto u w$. Then we have $M_{w} \in \mathcal{L}\left(L^{2}(\Omega)\right)$ with

$$
\left\|M_{w}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(L^{2}(\Omega)\right)}=\|w\|_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}
$$

Definition 1.7. We say that $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{F})$ is invertible if there exists $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{~F}, \mathrm{E})$ such that $B A=\mathrm{Id}_{\mathrm{E}}$ and $A B=\mathrm{Id}_{\mathrm{F}}$.

Example 1.8. - $S_{r}$ is not surjective and $S_{\ell}$ is not injective, so these two operators are not invertible.

- Given $a=\left(a_{n}\right) \in \ell^{\infty}(\mathbb{N})$, the operator $M_{a}$ is invertible if and only if

$$
0 \notin \overline{\left\{a_{n}, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}} .
$$

- Given $w \in L^{\infty}(\Omega, \mu)$, the operator $M_{w}$ is invertible in $L^{2}(\Omega, \mu)$ if and only if there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu(\{x \in \Omega:|w(x)| \leqslant \varepsilon\})=0 \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume that (1.1) holds. Then $w^{-1}$ is well defined almost everywhere and $\left\|w^{-1}\right\|_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)} \leqslant$ $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. Then $M_{w^{-1}} \in \mathcal{L}\left(L^{2}(\Omega)\right)$ is an inverse for $M_{w}$. Conversely, assume that $M_{w}$ is invertible. Assume by contradiction that (1.1) does not hold. Then for all $n \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ we set

$$
A_{n}=w^{-1}\left(D\left(0, \frac{1}{n}\right)\right) \quad \text { and } \quad u_{n}=\frac{\mathbb{1}_{A_{n}}}{\mu\left(A_{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$

Then $\left\|u_{n}\right\|_{L^{2}(\Omega)}=1$ and

$$
\left\|M_{w} u_{n}\right\|_{L^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}=\frac{1}{\mu\left(A_{n}\right)} \int_{A_{n}}|w(x)|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \mu(x) \leqslant \frac{1}{n^{2}}
$$

Then

$$
\left\|u_{n}\right\|_{L^{2}(\Omega)}=\left\|M_{w}^{-1} M_{w} u_{n}\right\|_{L^{2}(\Omega)} \leqslant \frac{1}{n}\left\|M_{w}^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(L^{2}(\Omega)\right)} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow+\infty]{ } 0
$$

which gives a contradiction.
The following result is a consequence of the open mapping theorem (see for instance [Bre11, Cor. 2.7]).

Proposition 1.9. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{F})$. Assume that $A$ is bijective. Then its inverse is necessarily continuous.

### 1.2 Spectrum of bounded operators - Resolvent

Let E be a Banach space.

### 1.2.1 Definition and basic properties

Definition 1.10. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(E)$.
(i) The resolvent set $\rho(A)$ of $A$ is the set of $z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $(A-z)=\left(A-z \operatorname{Id}_{\mathrm{E}}\right)$ is invertible.
(ii) The spectrum $\sigma(A)$ of $A$ is the complementery set of $\rho(A)$ in $\mathbb{C}$.

Definition 1.11. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$. We say that $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of $A$ if $(A-\lambda)$ is not injective. In other words, there exists $u \in \mathbb{E} \backslash\{0\}$ such that $A u=\lambda u$. Such a vector $u$ is called an eigenvector of $A$ for the eigenvalue $\lambda$. The geometric multiplicity of $\lambda$ is the dimension of $\operatorname{ker}(A-\lambda)$. We denote by $\sigma_{\mathrm{p}}(A)$ the set of eigenvalues of $A$.

Ex. 1.1 Remark 1.12. We have $\sigma_{\mathrm{p}}(A) \subset \sigma(A)$, but the inclusion can be strict.
Example 1.13. We consider the multiplication operator $M_{w}$ defined in Example 1.6. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Then $\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of $M_{w}$ is and only if

$$
\mu(\{x \in \Omega: w(x)=\lambda\})>0
$$

On the other hand, since $M_{w}-\lambda=M_{w-\lambda}$, we see that $\lambda$ belongs to $\sigma\left(M_{w}\right)$ if and only if for all $\varepsilon>0$ we have

$$
\mu(\{x \in \Omega:|w(x)-\lambda| \leqslant \varepsilon\})>0
$$

Proposition 1.14. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$.
(i) $\sigma(A) \subset D\left(0,\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}\right)$.
(ii) $\rho(A)$ is open. For $z_{0} \in \rho(A)$ and $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\left\|\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}^{-1}$ we have $z \in \rho(A)$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
(A-z)^{-1}=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-(n+1)} . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

(iii) $\sigma(A)$ is compact.

Proof. - Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $|z|>\|A\|$. Then we have

$$
A-z=-z\left(\operatorname{Id}-\frac{A}{z}\right) .
$$

Since

$$
\left\|\frac{A}{z}\right\|=\frac{\|A\|}{|z|}<1,
$$

the operator $\operatorname{Id}-\frac{A}{z}$ is invertible with inverse given by the Neumann series $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}}\left(\frac{A}{z}\right)^{k}$. This proves that $A-z$ is invertible with inverse

$$
(A-z)^{-1}=-\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{A^{k}}{z^{k+1}} .
$$

- Let $z_{0} \in \rho(A)$. For $z \in D\left(z_{0},\left\|\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}^{-1}\right)$ we have

$$
A-z=\left(A-z_{0}\right)-\left(z-z_{0}\right)=\left(1-\left(z-z_{0}\right)\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-1}\right)\left(A-z_{0}\right) .
$$

Since $\left(z-z_{0}\right)\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-1}$ has norm less that 1 , the operator $1-\left(z-z_{0}\right)\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-1}$ is invertible with inverse

$$
\left(1-\left(z-z_{0}\right)\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-1}\right)^{-1}=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}\left(A-z_{0}\right)^{-n} .
$$

Then $A-z$ is invertible and $(A-z)^{-1}$ is given by (1.2). This proves in particular that $\rho(A)$ is open.

- Finally, $\sigma(A)=\mathbb{C} \backslash \rho(A)$ is closed by (ii) and bounded by (i), so it is compact.

Proposition 1.15. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$ be invertible. Then

$$
\sigma\left(A^{-1}\right)=\left\{\lambda^{-1}, \lambda \in \sigma(A)\right\} .
$$

Proof. We already know that 0 is in $\rho(A) \cap \rho\left(A^{-1}\right)$. For $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ we have

$$
(A-\lambda)=\lambda A\left(\lambda^{-1}-A^{-1}\right)
$$

so $\left(A^{-1}-\lambda^{-1}\right)$ is invertible if and only if $(A-\lambda)$ is invertible.

Proposition 1.16. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$. Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Assume that there exists $c_{0}>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \varphi \in \mathrm{E}, \quad\|(A-z) \varphi\|_{\mathrm{E}} \geqslant c_{0}\|\varphi\|_{\mathrm{E}} . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We say that $z$ is a regular point of $A$. Then
(i) $(A-\lambda)$ is injective ;
(ii) $(A-\lambda)$ has closed range;
(iii) If $(A-\lambda)$ is invertible then $\left\|(A-\lambda)^{-1}\right\| \leqslant c_{0}^{-1}$.

This means that if $z$ is a regular point of $A$, then $z \in \rho(A)$ if and only if $\operatorname{Ran}(A-\lambda)$ is dense in E . Moreover, in this case we already have a bound for the inverse.

Proof. We prove the second statement. Let $\left(\psi_{n}\right)$ be a sequence in $\operatorname{Ran}(A-z)$ which converges to some $\psi$ in E . For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we consider $\varphi_{n} \in \mathrm{E}$ such that $(A-z) \varphi_{n}=\psi_{n}$. Since $\left((A-z) \varphi_{n}\right)$ is a Cauchy sequence, so is $\left(\varphi_{n}\right)$ by (1.3). Since E is complete, $\varphi_{n}$ converges to some $\varphi$ in E . Finally, since $A$ is continuous, $\psi=(A-z) \varphi \in \operatorname{Ran}(A-z)$. This proves that $\operatorname{Ran}(A-z)$ is closed in E .

### 1.2.2 Resolvent

Definition 1.17. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$. The resolvent of $A$ is the map

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{ccc}
\rho(A) & \rightarrow & \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E}), \\
z & \mapsto & (A-z)^{-1} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proposition 1.18 (Resolvent Identity). Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(E)$. For $z_{1}, z_{2} \in \rho(A)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(A-z_{1}\right)^{-1}-\left(A-z_{2}\right)^{-1} & =\left(z_{1}-z_{2}\right)\left(A-z_{1}\right)^{-1}\left(A-z_{2}\right)^{-1} \\
& =\left(z_{1}-z_{2}\right)\left(A-z_{2}\right)^{-1}\left(A-z_{1}\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. We have $\left(A-z_{2}\right)-\left(A-z_{1}\right)=z_{1}-z_{2}$. The first equality follows after composition by $\left(A-z_{1}\right)^{-1}$ on the left and by $\left(A-z_{2}\right)^{-1}$ on the right. The second equality is similar.

Remark 1.19. The resolvent identity proves in particular that $\left(A-z_{1}\right)^{-1}$ and $\left(A-z_{2}\right)^{-1}$ commute.

Proposition 1.20. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$. The resolvent $R_{A}: z \mapsto(A-z)^{-1}$ is analytic on $\rho(A)$ and $R_{A}^{\prime}=R_{A}^{2}$.

Proof. This follows from (1.2).
Proposition 1.21. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$. Then $\sigma(A) \neq \varnothing$.
Proof. Assume by contradiction that $\rho(A)=\mathbb{C}$. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $|z| \geqslant 2\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|(A-z)^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}=\frac{1}{|z|}\left\|\left(\frac{A}{z}-1\right)^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})} \leqslant \frac{1}{|z|} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\left(\frac{\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}}{|z|}\right)^{k} \leqslant \frac{2}{|z|} \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\varphi \in \mathrm{E}$ and $\ell \in \mathrm{E}^{\prime}$. The map $z \mapsto \ell\left((A-z)^{-1} \varphi\right)$ is holomorphic on $\mathbb{C}$ and bounded. Thus it is constant by the Liouville Theorem. By the previous estimate, its value must be 0 . In particular, $\ell\left(A^{-1} \varphi\right)=0$ for all $\varphi$ and all $\ell \in \mathrm{E}^{\prime}$. By the Hahn-Banach Theorem, we have $A^{-1} \varphi$ for all $\varphi \in \mathrm{E}$. This gives a contradiction and proves that $\rho(A) \neq \mathbb{C}$.

Remark 1.22. In the real case we know from the finite dimensional case that the spectrum of a bounded operator can be empty.

### 1.2.3 Spectral radius

Definition 1.23. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$. The spectral radius of $A$ is

$$
r(A)=\sup _{\lambda \in \sigma(A)}|\lambda| .
$$

By Proposition 1.14 we already know that $r(A) \leqslant\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}$. The equality is not true in general. Consider for instance the matrix

$$
A_{\alpha}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \alpha \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. We have $\sigma(A)=\{1\}$ and $\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2}\right)} \rightarrow+\infty$ as $|\alpha| \rightarrow+\infty$. In general we have at least the following result.

Proposition 1.24 (Gelfand's Formula). Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(E)$. We have

$$
r(A)=\inf _{n \in \mathbb{N}^{*}}\left\|A^{n}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}^{\frac{1}{n}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^{*}}\left\|A^{n}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})}^{\frac{1}{n}}
$$

Example 1.25. Check that $A_{\alpha}$ satisfies the Gelfand Formula.

Proof. - Assume that there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A^{N}=0$. Then $A^{n}=0$ for all $n \geqslant N$. Let $z \in \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$. Then $\left(z^{-1} A-1\right)$ is invertible with inverse

$$
\left(\frac{A}{z}-1\right)^{-1}=-\sum_{n=0}^{N-1}\left(\frac{A}{z}\right)^{n}
$$

This proves that $A-z=z\left(z^{-1} A-1\right)$ is invertible. Thus $\sigma(A) \subset\{0\}$. Since $\sigma(A) \neq \varnothing$, we have $\sigma(A)=\{0\}$ and the proposition is proved in this case. Now we assume that $A^{n} \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we set $u_{n}=\ln \left(\left\|A^{n}\right\|\right)$. For $m, p \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ we have by Remark 1.2

$$
u_{m+p} \leqslant u_{m}+u_{p}
$$

Let $p \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ and $(q, r) \in \mathbb{N} \times \llbracket 0, p-1 \rrbracket$ such that $n=q p+r$. Then we have

$$
\frac{u_{n}}{n} \leqslant \frac{q u_{p}+u_{r}}{q p+r} \leqslant \frac{u_{p}}{p}+\frac{u_{r}}{n}
$$

so

$$
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_{n}}{n} \leqslant \frac{u_{p}}{p}
$$

Then for all $p \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ we have

$$
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|A^{n}\right\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leqslant\left\|A^{p}\right\|^{\frac{1}{p}}
$$

Thus

$$
\limsup _{n \in \infty}\left\|A^{n}\right\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leqslant \inf _{p \in \mathbb{N}^{*}}\left\|A^{p}\right\|^{\frac{1}{p}}
$$

This implies that

$$
\left\|A^{n}\right\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{ } \inf _{p \in \mathbb{N}^{*}}\left\|A^{p}\right\|^{\frac{1}{p}}
$$

which gives the second inequality of the proposition.

- We set $\tilde{r}(A)=\lim \left\|A^{n}\right\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ we have $\operatorname{ker}(A-z) \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{n}-z^{n}\right)$ and

$$
A^{n}-z^{n}=(A-z) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} z^{k} A^{n-1-k}
$$

so $\operatorname{Ran}\left(A^{n}-z^{n}\right) \subset \operatorname{Ran}(A-z)$. Thus, if $A^{n}-z^{n}$ is bijective, then so is $A-z$. Now let $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$. We have $\lambda^{n} \in \sigma\left(A^{n}\right)$. By Proposition 1.14 we have $|\lambda|^{n}=\left|\lambda^{n}\right| \leqslant\left\|A^{n}\right\|$, so $|\lambda| \leqslant\left\|A^{n}\right\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and hence $|\lambda| \leqslant \tilde{r}(A)$. This proves that $r(A) \leqslant \tilde{r}(A)$.

- Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|z|>\tilde{r}(A)$. Then the power series

$$
-\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{A^{n}}{z^{n+1}}
$$

is convergent in $\mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$ and defines a bounded inverse for $(A-z)$. This proves that $\tilde{r}(A) \leqslant r(A)$ and concludes the proof.

### 1.3 Adjoint of a bounded operator

Let $\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}$ be Hilbert spaces.

### 1.3.1 Definition and basic properties

Definition 1.26. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)$. Let $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_{2}$. We denote by $A^{*} \psi$ the unique vector in $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \varphi \in \mathcal{H}_{1}, \quad\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}=\left\langle\varphi, A^{*} \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{1}} . \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The definition is justified by the Riesz representation theorem. Indeed, since $\varphi \mapsto$ $\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}$ is a continuous semilinear map on $\mathcal{H}_{1}$, there exists a unique $A^{*} \psi$ such that (1.5) holds.

Example 1.27. Assume that $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}$ are of finite dimensions $n_{1}, n_{2} \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$. Let $\beta_{1}$ and $\beta_{2}$ be orthonormal bases of $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}$, and let $M=\left(m_{j, k}\right)_{\substack{1 \leqslant j \leqslant n_{2} \\ 1 \leqslant k \leqslant n_{1}}}$ be the matrix of $A$ in $\beta_{1}$ and $\beta_{2}$. Then the matrix of $A^{*}$ in $\beta_{2}$ and $\beta_{1}$ is

$$
M^{*}=\bar{M}^{\top}=\left(\overline{m_{k, j}}\right)_{\substack{1 \leqslant j \leqslant n_{2} \\ 1 \leqslant k \leqslant n_{1}}}
$$

Example 1.28. Let $f \in L^{\infty}(\Omega, \mu)$ and let $M_{f}$ be the multiplication operator as in Example 1.6. Then the adjoint of $M_{f}$ is $M_{f}^{*}=M_{\bar{f}}$.

Example 1.29. The shift operators $S_{r}$ and $S_{\ell}$ (see Example 1.4) are adjoint of each other on $\ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})$.

Proposition 1.30. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)$.
(i) $\left(A^{*}\right)^{*}=A$.
(ii) $A^{*} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \mathcal{H}_{1}\right)$ and $\left\|A^{*}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \mathcal{H}_{1}\right)}=\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)}$.

Proof. - Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}_{1}$. For all $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_{2}$ we have

$$
\left\langle A^{*} \psi, \varphi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{1}}=\overline{\left\langle\varphi, A^{*} \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{1}}}=\overline{\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}}=\langle\psi, A \varphi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}
$$

This proves that $A^{* *} \varphi=A \varphi$.

- We leave the linearity of $A^{*}$ as an exercise. For $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_{2}$, we have

$$
\left\|A^{*} \psi\right\|_{\mathcal{H}_{1}}^{2}=\left\langle A A^{*} \psi, \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{1}} \leqslant\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)}\left\|A^{*} \psi\right\|_{\mathcal{H}_{1}}\|\psi\|_{\mathcal{H}_{2}},
$$

so $\left\|A^{*} \psi\right\|_{\mathcal{H}_{1}} \leqslant\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)}\|\psi\|_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}$. This proves that $A^{*} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \mathcal{H}_{1}\right)$ and $\left\|A^{*}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \mathcal{H}_{1}\right)} \leqslant$ $\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)}$. Then

$$
\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)}=\left\|A^{* *}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)} \leqslant\left\|A^{*}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \mathcal{H}_{1}\right)}
$$

and finally, $\left\|A^{*}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \mathcal{H}_{1}\right)}=\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)}$.
Proposition 1.31. For $A_{1} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)$ and $A_{2} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \mathcal{H}_{3}\right)$ we have $\left(A_{2} A_{1}\right)^{*}=A_{1}^{*} A_{2}^{*}$.
Proof. Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_{3}$. We have

$$
\left\langle A_{2} A_{1} \varphi, \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{3}}=\left\langle A_{1} \varphi, A_{2}^{*} \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}=\left\langle\varphi, A_{1}^{*} A_{2}^{*} \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{1}},
$$

and the conclusion follows.
Proposition 1.32. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$. If F is a subspace of $\mathcal{H}$ such that $A(\mathrm{~F}) \subset \mathrm{F}$, then $A^{*}\left(\mathrm{~F}^{\perp}\right) \subset \mathrm{F}^{\perp}$.
Proof. Let $\psi \in F^{\perp}$. Then for all $\varphi \in \mathrm{F}$ we have $\left\langle\varphi, A^{*} \psi\right\rangle=\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle=0$, so $A^{*} \psi \in F^{\perp}$.

### 1.3.2 Spectrum of the adjoint

Proposition 1.33. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)$. Then

$$
\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{*}\right)=\operatorname{Ran}(A)^{\perp} \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{*}\right)^{\perp}=\overline{\operatorname{Ran}(A)}
$$

Proof. Let $\varphi \in \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{*}\right)$. Then for all $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_{1}$ we have

$$
\langle A \psi, \varphi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}=\left\langle\psi, A^{*} \varphi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{1}}=0
$$

so $\varphi \in \operatorname{Ran}(A)^{\perp}$. Conversely, if $\varphi \in \operatorname{Ran}(A)^{\perp}$ then the same computation shows that $\varphi \in$ $\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{*}\right)$. This gives the first inequality. Then, by Proposition A. 5 we have

$$
\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{*}\right)^{\perp}=\left(\operatorname{Ran}(A)^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}=\overline{\operatorname{Ran}(A)}
$$

and the proof is complete.

Proposition 1.34. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)$. Then $A^{*}$ is invertible if and only if $A$ is, and in this case we have $\left(A^{*}\right)^{-1}=\left(A^{-1}\right)^{*}$.
Proof. - Assume that $A$ is invertible. By Proposition 1.31 we have

$$
A^{*}\left(A^{-1}\right)^{*}=\left(A^{-1} A\right)^{*}=\mathrm{Id}^{*}=\mathrm{Id}
$$

and similarly $\left(A^{-1}\right)^{*} A^{*}=\mathrm{Id}$, so $A^{*}$ is invertible and $\left(A^{*}\right)^{-1}=\left(A^{-1}\right)^{*}$.

- Similarly, if $A^{*}$ is bijective then $A^{* *}$ is bijective. But $A^{* *}=A$ by Proposition 1.30, and the proof is complete.

Proposition 1.35. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$. Then

$$
\sigma\left(A^{*}\right)=\{\bar{z}, z \in \sigma(A)\}
$$

Proof. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. By Proposition 2.49 the operator $(A-\lambda)$ is bijective if and only if $(A-\lambda)^{*}=\left(A^{*}-\bar{\lambda}\right)$ is bijective.

Example 1.36. We consider on $\ell^{2}(\mathbb{N})$ the shift operators of Example 1.4. We have

$$
\sigma_{\mathrm{p}}\left(S_{r}\right)=\varnothing \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma_{\mathrm{p}}\left(S_{\ell}\right)=D(0,1)
$$

By Proposition 1.14, $\sigma\left(S_{\ell}\right)$ is closed and contained in $\bar{D}(0,1)$, so $\sigma\left(S_{\ell}\right)=\bar{D}(0,1)$. Finally, since $S_{r}^{*}=S_{\ell}$, we also have $\sigma\left(S_{r}\right)=\bar{D}(0,1)$ by Proposition 1.30.

### 1.3.3 Normal bounded operators

Definition 1.37. We say that $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ is normal if $A A^{*}=A^{*} A$.
Remark 1.38. If $A$ is normal and invertible, then $A^{-1}$ is normal.
Proposition 1.39. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be a normal operator.
(i) For $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}$ we have $\|A \varphi\|=\left\|A^{*} \varphi\right\|$. In particular, $\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{*}\right)=\operatorname{ker}(A)$.
(ii) If $\lambda$ and $\mu$ are two distinct eigenvalues of $A$, then $\operatorname{ker}(A-\lambda)$ and $\operatorname{ker}(A-\mu)$ are orthogonal.
Proof. - Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}$. We have

$$
\|A \varphi\|^{2}=\left\langle A^{*} A \varphi, \varphi\right\rangle=\left\langle A A^{*} \varphi, \varphi\right\rangle=\left\|A^{*} \varphi\right\|^{2},
$$

which gives the first statement.

- Let $\varphi \in \operatorname{ker}(A-\lambda)$ and $\psi \in \operatorname{ker}(A-\mu)$. By the first statement we also have $\psi \in$ $\operatorname{ker}\left((A-\mu)^{*}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{*}-\bar{\mu}\right)$. Then we have

$$
(\lambda-\mu)\langle\varphi, \psi\rangle=\langle\lambda \varphi, \psi\rangle-\langle\varphi, \bar{\mu} \psi\rangle=\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle-\left\langle\varphi, A^{*} \psi\right\rangle=0
$$

Since $\lambda \neq \mu$, this proves that $\langle\varphi, \psi\rangle=0$, so $\operatorname{ker}(A-\lambda)$ and $\operatorname{ker}(A-\mu)$ are orthogonal.
Definition 1.40. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$.
(i) We say that $A$ is symmetric if

$$
\forall \varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}, \quad\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=\langle\varphi, A \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}
$$

(ii) We say that $A$ is selfadjoint if $A^{*}=A$.

Proposition 1.41. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$. Then $A$ is symmetric if and only if it is selfadjoint.
Definition 1.42. $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ is said to be skew-adjoint (or skew-symmetric) if $A^{*}=-A$. Notice that $A$ is selfadjoint if and only if iA is skew-adjoint.

Definition 1.43. Let $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}$ be two Hilbert spaces. An operator $A \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{2}\right)$ is said to be unitary if it is invertible and $A^{-1}=A^{*}$.

Remark 1.44. Selfadjoint, skew-adjoint and unitary operators on $\mathcal{H}$ are normal.
Example 1.45. The multiplication operator $M_{w}$ (see Example 1.6) is selfadjoint if and only if $w$ is almost everywhere real valued.

In Section 1.2.3 we have said that the spectral radius of a bounded operator can be smaller that its norm. This is not the case for a normal operator.

Proposition 1.46. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$ be normal. We have $r(A)=\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})}$.
Proof. - Assume that $A$ is selfadjoint. We always have $\left\|A^{2}\right\| \leqslant\|A\|^{2}$. For $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}$ we have

$$
\|A \varphi\|^{2}=\left\langle A^{*} A \varphi, \varphi\right\rangle=\left\langle A^{2} \varphi, \varphi\right\rangle \leqslant\left\|A^{2}\right\|\|\varphi\|^{2}
$$

This proves that $\|A\|^{2} \leqslant\left\|A^{2}\right\|$, and hence $\|A\|^{2}=\left\|A^{2}\right\|$. Since $A^{2^{k}}$ is selfadjoint for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we deduce by induction that $\left\|A^{2^{k}}\right\|=\|A\|^{2^{k}}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, by the Gelfand Formula we have

$$
r(A)=\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty}\left\|A^{2^{k}}\right\|^{\frac{1}{2^{k}}}=\|A\| .
$$

- Now we only assume that $A$ is normal. We have $\left\|A^{*} A\right\|=\|A\|^{2}$ (exercise). On the other hand, since $A^{*} A$ is selfadjoint we have $r\left(A^{*} A\right)=\left\|A^{*} A\right\|$, so $r\left(A^{*} A\right)=\|A\|^{2}$. On the other hand, since $A$ is normal,

$$
r\left(A^{*} A\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|\left(A^{*} A\right)^{n}\right\|^{\frac{1}{n}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|\left(A^{n}\right)^{*} A^{n}\right\|^{\frac{1}{n}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|A^{n}\right\|^{\frac{2}{n}}=r(A)^{2}
$$

This proves that $r(A)=\|A\|$.
Remark 1.47. If $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ is a normal operator such that $\sigma(A)=\{0\}$ then $A=0$. This is not the case in general, since every nilpotent operator has spectrum $\{0\}$.

Theorem 1.48. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ a normal operator. For $z \in \rho(A)$ we have

$$
\left\|(A-z)^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{dist}(z, \sigma(A))}
$$

Proof. For $\zeta \in \mathbb{C} \backslash\{z\}$ we have by Proposition 1.15

$$
\sigma\left((A-z)^{-1}\right)=\left\{(\zeta-z)^{-1}, \zeta \in \sigma(A)\right\}
$$

Since $(A-z)^{-1}$ is normal, we deduce by Proposition 1.46

$$
\left\|(A-z)^{-1}\right\|=r\left((A-z)^{-1}\right)=\sup _{\lambda \in \sigma(A)}|\lambda-z|^{-1}=\frac{1}{\inf _{\lambda \in \sigma(A)}|\lambda-z|}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{dist}(z, \sigma(A))}
$$

### 1.4 Polar decomposition

## [Not discussed in class]

Definition 1.49. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be a symmetric operator. We say that $A$ is non-negative if $\langle A \varphi, \varphi\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \geqslant 0$ for all $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}$.

Proposition 1.50. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be non-negative. Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}$. If $\langle A \varphi, \varphi\rangle=0$ then $A \varphi=0$.
Proof. By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality we have for all $\psi \in \mathcal{H}$

$$
|\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle| \leqslant\langle A \varphi, \varphi\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}\langle A \psi, \psi\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}=0 .
$$

Then $\langle A \varphi, \psi\rangle=0$ for all $\psi \in \mathcal{H}$, so $A \varphi=0$.

Proposition 1.51 (Square root of a bounded non-negative operator). Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be non-negative. There exists a unique non-negative bounded operator $S$ such that $S^{2}=A$. Moreover, $S$ commutes with $A$, and any operator which commutes with $A$ also commutes with $S$. We can write $S=\sqrt{A}$.

Proof. - Assume that the existence is proved when $\|A\| \leqslant 1$. Then in general we can multiply $A$ by $\varepsilon=\|A\|^{-1}$, so that $\|\varepsilon A\| \leqslant 1$. Then we set $S=\varepsilon^{-\frac{1}{2}} S_{\varepsilon}$, where $S_{\varepsilon}$ is the square root of $\varepsilon A$. Then $S^{2}=\varepsilon^{-1} \varepsilon A=A$ and, since $S_{\varepsilon}$ commutes with $\varepsilon A, S$ commutes with $A$.

- Now assume that $\|A\| \leqslant 1$. We set $B=\operatorname{Id}-A$. For $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}$ we have

$$
\langle B \varphi, \varphi\rangle=\|\varphi\|^{2}-\langle A \varphi, \varphi\rangle \leqslant\|\varphi\|^{2}
$$

We also have

$$
\langle B \varphi, \varphi\rangle=\|\varphi\|^{2}-\langle A \varphi, \varphi\rangle \geqslant\|\varphi\|^{2}-\|A\|\|u\|^{2} \geqslant 0
$$

Then by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality we have for $\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$
|\langle B \varphi, \psi\rangle| \leqslant\langle B \varphi, \varphi\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}\langle B \psi, \psi\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} \leqslant\|\varphi\|\|\psi\|
$$

This proves that $\|B\| \leqslant 1$. Now we use the power series for the function $z \mapsto \sqrt{1-z}$, absolutely convergent ${ }^{1}$ on $\bar{D}(0,1)$ :

$$
\forall z \in \bar{D}(0,1), \quad \sqrt{1-z}=1-\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} z^{n}, \quad a_{n}=\frac{(2 n)!}{(2 n-1)(n!)^{2} 4^{n}}
$$

Then we set

$$
S=1-\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} B^{n}
$$

Then by Cauchy product for a power series we have $S^{2}=\operatorname{Id}-B=A$. Moreover $S$ commute with $B$ and hence with $A$. Similarly, any operator which commutes with $A$ commutes with $B$ and hence with $S$.

- Now we prove uniqueness. Assume that $S^{\prime}$ is another solution. In particular $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ commute. If we set

$$
T=\left(S-S^{\prime}\right) S\left(S-S^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad T^{\prime}=\left(S-S^{\prime}\right) S^{\prime}\left(S-S^{\prime}\right)
$$

We observe that

$$
T+T^{\prime}=\left(S-S^{\prime}\right)\left(S+S^{\prime}\right)(S-S-)=\left(S-S^{\prime}\right)\left(S^{2}-S^{2}\right)=0
$$

Since $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ are non-negative, they are both 0 by Proposition 1.50. Then

$$
\left(S-S^{\prime}\right)^{4}=\left(S-S^{\prime}\right)\left(T-T^{\prime}\right)=0
$$

This implies that $\left(S-S^{\prime}\right)^{2}=0$ and finally $S-S^{\prime}=0$.
Definition 1.52. For $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ we set $|A|=\sqrt{A^{*} A}$.
This definition makes sense since $A^{*} A$ is always a non-negative operator.
Definition 1.53. We say that $U \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ is a partial isometry if for all $\varphi \in \operatorname{ker}(U)^{\perp}$ we have $\|U \varphi\|=\|\varphi\|$.
${ }^{1}$ For $x \in[0,1[$ we have

$$
\sqrt{1-x}=1-\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} x^{n}
$$

Since all the coefficients are positive we have

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=\lim _{x \rightarrow 1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} x^{n}=1-\sqrt{1-1}=1<+\infty
$$

This proves that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}<+\infty$.

Proposition 1.54. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$. There exists a unique partial isometry $U$ such that $\operatorname{ker}(U)=\operatorname{ker}(A)$ and

$$
A=U|A| .
$$

Proof. - Assume that $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$ are solutions. We have $U_{1}|A|=U_{2}|A|$ so $U_{1}=U_{2}$ on $\operatorname{Ran}(|A|)$, and then on $\overline{\operatorname{Ran}(|A|)}$ by continuity. On the other hand, on $\overline{\operatorname{Ran}(|A|)}{ }^{\perp}=\operatorname{ker}(|A|)=$ $\operatorname{ker}(A)$ (see Proposition 1.33) we have $U_{1}=U_{2}=0$ so, finally, $U_{1}=U_{2}$.

- For $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}$ we have $\||A| \varphi\|=\|A \varphi\|$. Then if $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2} \in \mathcal{H}$ are such that $|A| \varphi_{1}=|A| \varphi_{2}$, we also have $A \varphi_{1}=A \varphi_{2}$. Thus we can define $U$ on $\operatorname{Ran}(|A|)$ by

$$
U|A| \varphi=A \varphi
$$

This is a linear isometry from $\operatorname{Ran}(|A|)$ to $\operatorname{Ran}(A)$. It can be extended to a linear isometry from $\overline{\operatorname{Ran}(|A|)}$ to $\overline{\operatorname{Ran}(A)}$. Then we extend $U$ by 0 on $\overline{\operatorname{Ran}(|A|)^{\perp}}=\operatorname{ker}(A)$. In particular, $\operatorname{ker}(A) \subset \operatorname{ker}(U)$. On the other hand, since $U$ is an isometry on $\operatorname{ker}(A)^{\perp}$, we can check that $\operatorname{ker}(U)=\operatorname{ker}(A)$. Then $U$ is an isometry on $\operatorname{ker}(U)^{\perp}$, so this is a partial isometry.

### 1.5 Operators and quadratic forms - Lax-Milgram Theorem

Let $\mathcal{V}$ be a Hilbert space. Let $\mathcal{V}^{\prime}$ be the space of continuous semilinear forms on $\mathcal{V}$. We recall that

$$
\mathcal{I}:\left\{\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathcal{V} & \rightarrow & \mathcal{V}^{\prime} \\
\varphi & \mapsto & \psi \mapsto\langle\varphi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{V}}
\end{array}\right.
$$

is a bijective isometry by the Riesz theorem. We can identify $\mathcal{V}$ and $\mathcal{V}^{\prime}$ via this map, but we do not use this possibility here.

Then we can check that the map

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}) & \rightarrow & \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^{\prime}\right) \\
T & \mapsto & \mathcal{I} \circ T
\end{array}\right.
$$

is also a bijective isometry. Moreover $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})$ is invertible if and only if $(\mathcal{I} \circ T) \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^{\prime}\right)$ is.

Definition 1.55. Let $\mathcal{V}$ be a Hilbert space.
(i) A sesquilinear form q on $\mathcal{V}$ is a map $\mathrm{q}: \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that

- for all $\psi \in \mathcal{V}$ the map $\varphi \mapsto \mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)$ is linear ;
- for all $\varphi \in \mathcal{V}$ the map $\psi \mapsto \mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)$ is semilinear.
(ii) The quadratic form associated to q is the $\operatorname{map} \varphi \mapsto \mathrm{q}(\varphi, \varphi)$. It is usually also denoted $b y \mathrm{q}$.
(iii) We say that q is continuous if there exists $C \geqslant 0$ such that, for all $\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{V}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)| \leqslant C\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}\|\psi\|_{\mathcal{V}} \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

(iv) We say that q is coercive if there exists $\alpha>0$ such that for all $\varphi \in \mathcal{V}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\mathbf{q}(\varphi, \varphi)| \geqslant \alpha\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}^{2} \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

(v) The adjoint $\mathrm{q}^{*}$ of the form q is the sesquilinear form defined by

$$
\forall \varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \mathrm{q}^{*}(\varphi, \psi)=\overline{\mathrm{q}(\psi, \varphi)}
$$

Remark 1.56 . Coercivity is often defined by

$$
\mathrm{q}(\varphi, \varphi) \geqslant \alpha\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}^{2}
$$

We use a weaker property here.

Example 1.57. The map $\varphi \mapsto\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}^{2}$ is a (coercive) quadratic form on $\mathcal{V}$.
We can also define a bijection between continuous sequilinear forms on $\mathcal{V}$ and operators in $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^{\prime}\right)$. Given a continuous sesquilinar form q on $\mathcal{V}$ we define $Q \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^{\prime}\right)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \varphi \in \mathcal{V}, \forall \psi \in \mathcal{V}, \quad(Q \varphi)(\psi)=\mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi) \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, given $Q \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^{\prime}\right)$, we similarly define a corresponding continuous sesquilinear form q.

Proposition 1.58. Let q be a continuous sesquilinear form on $\mathcal{V}$. There exists a unique operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})$ such that

$$
\forall \varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)=\langle T \varphi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{V}}
$$

Moreover,

$$
\sup _{\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{V} \backslash\{0\}} \frac{|\mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)|}{\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}\|\psi\|_{\mathcal{V}}}=\|T\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})}
$$

The operator associated with the adjoint form $\mathrm{q}^{*}$ is $T^{*}$.
Proof. - Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{V}$. The map $\psi \mapsto \mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)$ is a continuous semilinear form on $\mathcal{V}$, so by the Riesz representation theorem there exists an element of $\mathcal{V}$, which we denote by $T \varphi$, such that

$$
\forall \psi \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)=\langle T \varphi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{V}}
$$

This defines a map $T: \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$.

- Let $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2} \in \mathcal{V}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. For all $\psi \in \mathcal{V}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle T\left(\varphi_{1}+\lambda \varphi_{2}\right), \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{V}} & =\mathrm{q}\left(\varphi_{1}+\lambda \varphi_{2}, \psi\right)=\mathrm{q}\left(\varphi_{1}, \psi\right)+\lambda \mathrm{q}\left(\varphi_{2}, \psi\right)=\left\langle T \varphi_{1}, \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{V}}+\lambda\left\langle T \varphi_{2}, \psi\right\rangle_{\mathcal{V}} \\
& =\left\langle T \varphi_{1}+\lambda T \varphi_{2}, \psi\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves that $T\left(\varphi_{1}+\lambda \varphi_{2}\right)=T \varphi_{1}+\lambda T \varphi_{2}$, and hence that the map $\varphi \mapsto T \varphi$ is linear.

- For $\varphi \in \mathcal{V}$ we have

$$
\|T \varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}^{2}=\langle T \varphi, T \varphi\rangle_{\mathcal{V}}=\mathrm{q}(\varphi, T \varphi) \leqslant C\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}\|T \varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}},
$$

where $C=\sup _{\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{V} \backslash\{0\}} \frac{|\mathbf{q}(\varphi, \psi)|}{\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}\|\psi\|_{\mathcal{V}}}$, so $\|T \varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}} \leqslant C\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}$. This proves that $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})$ and $\|T\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})} \leqslant C$. Conversely, for $\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{V} \backslash\{0\}$ we have

$$
|\mathbf{q}(\varphi, \psi)|=|\langle T \varphi, \psi\rangle| \leqslant\|T\|\|\varphi\|\|\psi\|
$$

- Finally, let $\tilde{T}$ be the operator associated to the adjoint form $q^{*}$. Let $\psi \in \mathcal{V}$. For all $\varphi \in \mathcal{V}$ we have

$$
\langle T \varphi, \psi\rangle=\mathrm{q}(\varphi, \psi)=\overline{\mathrm{q}^{*}(\psi, \varphi)}=\overline{\langle\tilde{T} \psi, \varphi\rangle}=\langle\varphi, \tilde{T} \psi\rangle .
$$

This proves that $\tilde{T}=T^{*}$.
Theorem 1.59 (Lax-Milgram). Let $\mathcal{V}$ be a Hilbert space. Let q be a continuous and coercive sesquilinear form on $\mathcal{V}$. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})$ be the corresponding operator. Then $T$ is bijective and $\left\|T^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})} \leqslant \alpha^{-1}$, where $\alpha$ is given by (1.7). In particular, if $\ell$ is a bounded semilinear form on $\mathcal{V}$ there exists a unique $\varphi_{\ell} \in \mathcal{V}$ such that

$$
\forall \psi \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \mathrm{q}\left(\varphi_{\ell}, \psi\right)=\left\langle T \varphi_{\ell}, \psi\right\rangle=\ell(\psi)
$$

Proof. - For $\varphi \in \mathcal{V}$ we have

$$
\alpha\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}^{2} \leqslant|\mathrm{q}(\varphi, \varphi)|=\left|\langle T \varphi, \varphi\rangle_{\mathcal{V}}\right| \leqslant\|T \varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}}
$$

so

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|T \varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}} \geqslant \alpha\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{V}} . \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

This proves in particular that $T$ is injective with closed range (see Proposition 1.16). Now let $\psi \in \operatorname{Ran}(T)^{\perp}$. In particular we have

$$
0=\left|\langle T \psi, \psi\rangle_{\mathcal{V}}\right|=|\mathrm{q}(\psi, \psi)| \geqslant \alpha\|\psi\|_{\mathcal{V}}^{2}
$$

so $\psi=0$. Since $\operatorname{Ran}(T)$ is closed, this implies that $\operatorname{Ran}(T)=\mathcal{V}$. Thus $T$ is bijective and by (1.9) we have $\left\|T^{-1}\right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V})} \leqslant \alpha^{-1}$.

- By the Riesz theorem there exists $\zeta \in \mathcal{V}$ such that $\langle\zeta, \psi\rangle=\ell(\psi)$ for all $\psi \in \mathcal{V}$. Then we set $\varphi_{\ell}=T^{-1} \zeta$ to get the last statement.
Example 1.60. We consider on $H^{1}(\mathbb{R})$ the quadratic form

$$
\mathrm{q}: u \mapsto\|u\|_{H^{1}(\mathbb{R})}^{2}=\int_{\mathbb{R}}\left(\left|u^{\prime}(x)\right|^{2}+|u(x)|^{2}\right) \mathrm{d} x .
$$

Let $f \in L^{2}(\mathbb{R})$. There exists $u \in H^{1}(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$
\forall v \in H^{1}(\mathbb{R}), \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}}\left(u^{\prime}(x) \bar{v}^{\prime}(x)+u(x) \bar{v}(x)\right) \mathrm{d} x=\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \bar{v}(x) \mathrm{d} x .
$$

Example 1.61. We consider on $H^{1}(0,1)$ the quadratic form

$$
\mathrm{q}_{N}: u \mapsto\|u\|_{H^{1}(0,1)}^{2}=\int_{0}^{1}\left(\left|u^{\prime}(x)\right|^{2}+|u(x)|^{2}\right) \mathrm{d} x . .
$$

We have the same result as above.
Example 1.62. We consider on $H_{0}^{1}(0,1)$ the quadratic form

$$
\tilde{\mathrm{q}}_{D}: u \mapsto\|u\|_{H^{1}(0,1)}^{2} .
$$

This is also a coercive form.
Example 1.63. We consider on $H_{0}^{1}(0,1)$ the quadratic form

$$
\mathrm{q}_{D}: u \mapsto\left\|u^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{2}(0,1)}^{2}
$$

By the Poincaré inequality, $\mathrm{q}_{D}$ is a coercive form on $H_{0}^{1}(0,1)$.

### 1.6 Exercises

Exercise 1.1. We consider on $\ell^{2}\left(\mathbb{N}^{*}\right)$ the operator $A$ defined by

$$
A\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, \ldots, u_{k}, \ldots\right)=\left(0, \frac{u_{1}}{2}, \frac{u_{2}}{4}, \frac{u_{3}}{8}, \ldots, \frac{u_{k}}{2^{k}}, \ldots\right) .
$$

1. Prove that $A \in \mathcal{L}\left(\ell^{2}\left(\mathbb{N}^{*}\right)\right)$ and compute $\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}\left(\ell^{2}\left(\mathbb{N}^{*}\right)\right)}$.
2. Compute $\sigma(A)$.
3. Compute $\sigma_{\mathrm{p}}(A)$.

Exercise 1.2. We define on $\mathbb{R}$ the function $w$ defined by

$$
w(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{x+1} & \text { if } x>0 \\ 0 & \text { if } x \leqslant 0\end{cases}
$$

Then we consider on $L^{2}(\mathbb{R})$ the operator $M_{w}$ of multiplication by $w$.

1. What is $\sigma\left(M_{w}\right)$ ?
2. What is $\sigma_{\mathrm{p}}\left(M_{w}\right)$ ? For each eigenvalue $\lambda$ of $M_{w}$, give a corresponding eigenvector.

Exercise 1.3. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathrm{E})$. Let $P \in \mathbb{C}[X]$. Prove that

$$
\sigma(P(A))=\{P(\lambda), \lambda \in \sigma(A)\}
$$

Let $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$. There exists $Q \in \mathbb{C}[X]$ such that $P(X)-P(\lambda)=Q(X)(X-\lambda)=$ $(X-\lambda) Q(X)$.

Exercise 1.4. Let $\Pi \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be a projection of $\mathcal{H}\left(\Pi^{2}=\Pi\right)$. Prove that $\Pi$ is an orthogonal projection if and only if is selfadjoint.

Exercise 1.5. For $u=\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \in \ell^{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ we set

$$
S\left(\ldots, u_{-2}, u_{-1}, u_{0}, u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots\right)=\left(\ldots, u_{-1}, u_{0}, u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, \ldots\right)
$$

1. Prove that this defines a unitary operator $A$ on $\ell^{2}(\mathbb{Z})$.
2. Prove that $\sigma(S) \subset \mathbb{U}=\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}:|\lambda|=1\}$.
3. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{U}$. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ we consider

$$
u^{(k)}=\left(\ldots, 0,0,1, \lambda, \lambda^{2}, \ldots, \lambda^{k}, 0,0, \ldots\right)
$$

Compute $\left\|u^{(k)}\right\|_{\ell^{2}(\mathbb{Z})}$ and $\left\|(S-\lambda) u^{(k)}\right\|_{\ell^{2}(\mathbb{Z})}$. Prove that $\lambda \in \sigma(S)$.
Exercise 1.6. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$. Let $U \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be unitary. Prove that

$$
\sigma\left(U^{*} A U\right)=\sigma(A) \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma_{\mathrm{p}}\left(U^{*} A U\right)=\sigma(A)
$$

Exercise 1.7. We consider on $\ell^{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ the operator $H_{0}$ which maps the sequence $u=\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ to the sequence $H_{0} u$ defined by

$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad\left(H_{0} u\right)_{n}=u_{n+1}+u_{n-1}-2 u_{n}
$$

1. Prove that $H_{0} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\ell^{2}(\mathbb{Z})\right)$.
2. We denote by $L^{2}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ the set of $L^{2}$-functions on the torus $\mathbb{S}^{1}=\mathbb{R} / 2 \pi \mathbb{Z}$. Functions on $\mathbb{S}^{1}$ can also be seen as $2 \pi$-periodic functions on $\mathbb{R}$. For $v \in L^{2}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ we have

$$
\|v\|_{L^{2}\left(S^{1}\right)}^{2}=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi}|v(s)|^{2} \mathrm{~d} s
$$

Given a sequence $u=\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ we define $\Theta u \in L^{2}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$ by

$$
(\Theta u)(s)=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} u_{n} e^{i n s}
$$

Prove that $\Theta$ is a unitary operator from $\ell^{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ to $L^{2}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1}\right)$.
3. Prove that $\Theta H_{0} \Theta^{-1}$ is a multiplication operator on $\mathbb{S}^{1}$.
4. Compute the spectrum of $\Theta H_{0} \Theta^{-1}$ and deduce the spectrum of $H_{0}$ (use Exercise 1.6).

