

Solutions for exercise sheet 13

1. We need to show that the graph of ∇

$$\mathcal{G} = \{(f, \partial_1 f, \dots, \partial_d f) : f \in H^1(\mathbb{T}^d)\} \subset H^1(\mathbb{T}^d) \times L^2(\mathbb{T}^d)^d$$

is closed. So let $(f_k)_k$ be a sequence in $H^1(\mathbb{T}^d)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} f_k &\rightarrow g \in H^1(\mathbb{T}^d) \\ (\partial_1 f_k, \dots, \partial_d f_k) &\rightarrow (g_1, \dots, g_d) \in L^2(\mathbb{T}^d)^d \end{aligned}$$

as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Recall that we interpret $H^1(\mathbb{T}^d)$ as a subspace of $L^2(\mathbb{T}^d)$ (as a function determines its weak derivatives) but in fact defined the Sobolev space $H^1(\mathbb{T}^d)$ as a closure in $L^2(\mathbb{T}^d)^d$. More precisely, g (as well as f_k) as an element of $H^1(\mathbb{T}^d)$ should be viewed as a tuple

$$(g, \partial_1 g, \dots, \partial_d g)$$

where by Lemma 5.2, $\partial_1 g, \dots, \partial_d g$ are uniquely determined by g . By definition of the Sobolev space, $f_k \rightarrow g \in H^1(\mathbb{T}^d)$ means that

$$(f_k, \partial_1 f_k, \dots, \partial_d f_k) \rightarrow (g, \partial_1 g, \dots, \partial_d g)$$

as $k \rightarrow \infty$ in L^2 . This shows that $\partial_1 g = g_1, \dots, \partial_d g = g_d$ and hence

$$(g, g_1, \dots, g_d) = (g, \partial_1 g, \dots, \partial_d g) \in \mathcal{G}$$

as claimed.

2. Let us first note that the formula

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \psi(x) \partial_\alpha f(x) \, dx = (-1)^{|\alpha|} \int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \partial_\alpha \psi(x) f(x) \, dx \quad (1)$$

holds by partial integration for any $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T}^d)$ and $\psi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T}^d)$.

- Assume that $f \in H^k(\mathbb{T}^d)$ and denote by $(f_\alpha)_{\|\alpha\|_1 \leq k}$ the corresponding tuple of functions in $L^2(\mathbb{T}^d)$. By definition, there exists a sequence of functions $g_k \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T}^d)$ so that $\partial_\alpha g_k \rightarrow f_\alpha$ in L^2 as $k \rightarrow \infty$ for any α . Now note that the left-hand side of (1) when applied to g_k must converge to

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \psi(x) f_\alpha(x) dx.$$

This is in essence a consequence of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. Applying the same reasoning to the right-hand side we obtain

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \psi(x) f_\alpha(x) dx = (-1)^{\|\alpha\|_1} \int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \partial_\alpha \psi(x) f(x) dx$$

for any $\psi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T}^d)$. Since $f_\alpha \in L^2(\mathbb{T}^d)$ we have thus found the α -weak derivative of f .

- Now suppose that all α -weak derivatives for $\|\alpha\|_1 \leq k$ exist and denote them by f_α . Let us compute the Fourier series of f_α : Applying the definition of the weak derivative to $\psi = \chi_{-n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ we obtain that

$$a_n(f_\alpha) = \int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \chi_{-n}(x) f_\alpha(x) dx = (-1)^{\|\alpha\|_1} \int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \partial_\alpha \chi_{-n}(x) f(x) dx.$$

Now note that

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\alpha \chi_{-n}(x) &= (2\pi i)^{\|\alpha\|_1} (-n_1)^{\alpha_1} \cdots (-n_d)^{\alpha_d} \chi_{-n}(x) \\ &= (2\pi i)^{\|\alpha\|_1} (-1)^{\|\alpha\|_1} n^\alpha \chi_{-n}(x) \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$a_n(f_\alpha) = (2\pi i)^{\|\alpha\|_1} n^\alpha a_n(f).$$

Let $g_N = \sum_{n=-N}^N a_n(f) \chi_n$. Since $f_\alpha \in L^2(\mathbb{T}^d)$ and the Fourier series of f_α has the above shape, $\partial_\alpha g_N \rightarrow f_\alpha$ in L^2 for any α with $\|\alpha\|_1 \leq k$. This shows that $f \in H^k(\mathbb{T}^d)$ as desired.

3. To fix some notation, let us denote by x_i , $0 \leq i \leq n$, the points where the derivative f' does not exist. To simplify notational matters a bit, let us also assume that $x_0 = 0$ is one of these points (this is just throwing away information). We view f and all other functions on \mathbb{T} below as functions on $[0, 1]$ (with periodicity of course).

- a) Let $\psi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T})$ and fix a closed interval $[a, b] \subset (x_{i-1}, x_i)$ for some $i \geq 1$. Then by the fundamental theorem of calculus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b \psi(x) f'(x) dx &= [\psi(x) f(x)]_a^b - \int_a^b \psi'(x) f(x) dx \\ &= \psi(b) f(b) - \psi(a) f(a) - \int_a^b \psi'(x) f(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

Since f is continuous (also at the points x_i) the limit of the right-hand side for $a \rightarrow x_{i-1}$ and $b \rightarrow x_i$ exists and so

$$\int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \psi(x) f'(x) dx = \psi(x_i) f(x_i) - \psi(x_{i-1}) f(x_{i-1}) - \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \psi'(x) f(x) dx.$$

(The left-hand side can be viewed as a Lebesgue integral or a improper Riemann integral.) Summing over i we therefore obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \psi(x) f'(x) dx &= \sum_{i=1}^n \psi(x_i) f(x_i) - \psi(x_{i-1}) f(x_{i-1}) - \int_0^1 \psi'(x) f(x) dx \\ &= \psi(1) f(1) - \psi(0) f(0) - \int_0^1 \psi'(x) f(x) dx \\ &= - \int_0^1 \psi'(x) f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

using periodicity. This shows the claim in a).

- b)** By a) and Exercise 2 it suffices to show that $f' \in L^2(\mathbb{T})$. For this, it suffices to show that $f'|_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]}$ for $i \geq 1$ is in L^2 . However, this follows directly from the fact that $f'|_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]}$ is continuous as the one-sided limits at the endpoints are assumed to exist.

- 4.** Assume first that $f \in H^1(\mathbb{T})$. For the converse we will apply the same strategy as in Exercise 3. As $f \in H^1(\mathbb{T})$ there exists a weak derivative $g \in L^2(\mathbb{T})$ as in Exercise 2. We first claim that $g(x) = f'(x)$ almost everywhere. Here, the derivative of f is defined i.e. at points $x \neq 0$. Let $\psi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T})$ be such that $\text{supp}(\psi) \subset (0, 1)$. Then by partial integration

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} \psi(x) f'(x) dx = \psi(1) - \psi(0) - \int_{\mathbb{T}} \psi'(x) f(x) dx = - \int_{\mathbb{T}} \psi'(x) f(x) dx$$

where the left-hand side makes sense by the assumption on the support of ψ . Combining this with the definition of the weak derivative we see that

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} \psi(x) (f'(x) - g(x)) dx = 0$$

Since the function ψ as above are dense in $L^2(\mathbb{T})$, this shows that $f' = g$ almost everywhere. In explicit formulas,

$$f'(x) = \varkappa x^{\varkappa-1}$$

for $x \in (0, \delta)$. Therefore,

$$\infty > \|f'\|_{L^2}^2 \geq \varkappa^2 \int_0^\delta x^{2\varkappa-2} dx.$$

and so the latter integral exists. By explicit integration, this is the case if and only if $2\varkappa - 2 > -1$ i.e. if and only if $\varkappa > \frac{1}{2}$.

Now conversely assume that $\varkappa > \frac{1}{2}$. Then f' defines an L^2 -function (essentially by the argument just given) as it is in L^2 on each of the intervals $[0, \delta]$, $[\delta, 1 - \delta]$ and $[1 - \delta, 1]$. It remains to show that f' is indeed the weak derivative. As before, one immediately checks by partial integration that

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} \psi(x) f'(x) dx = - \int_{\mathbb{T}} \psi'(x) f(x) dx$$

for all $\psi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T})$ with $\text{supp}(\psi) \subset (0, 1)$. It remains to settle the case where $\psi(0) \neq 0$. By an Urysohn-type of argument (or rather a partition of unity) we may assume that $\text{supp}(\psi) \cap [\delta, 1 - \delta] = \emptyset$. Therefore (viewing ψ and f as functions on $(-\delta, \delta)$),

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\delta}^\delta \psi(x) f'(x) dx &= \int_0^\delta \psi(x) f'(x) dx = \lim_{a \searrow 0} \int_a^\delta \psi(x) f'(x) dx \\ &= - \lim_{a \searrow 0} \int_a^\delta \psi'(x) f(x) dx = - \int_0^\delta \psi'(x) f(x) dx \\ &= - \int_{-\delta}^\delta \psi'(x) f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

where we used the fact that f vanishes identically on the left of 0 and where the first limit exists as the second one exists. This concludes the exercise.

5. a) Let $x, y \in [0, 1)$ and assume without loss of generality that $x < y$ and that the absolute value $|y - x|$ is indeed the distance (otherwise one can work in the interval $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$). We estimate using the fundamental theorem of calculus

$$|f(y) - f(x)| \leq \int_x^y |f'(t)| dt = \int_{\mathbb{T}} \mathbb{1}_{[x,y]}(t) |f'(t)| dt \leq \|\mathbb{1}_{[x,y]}\|_{L^2} \|f'\|_{L^2}$$

by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. Now note that

$$\|\mathbb{1}_{[x,y]}\|_{L^2}^2 = \int_x^y dt = y - x = |y - x|.$$

- b) By part a) we have

$$\sup_{x,y \in \mathbb{T}} \frac{|f(y) - f(x)|}{|y - x|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \leq \|f'\|_{L^2} \leq \|f\|_{H^1}$$

for all $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{T})$. Also, by the Sobolev embeddings theorem

$$\|f\|_\infty \ll \sqrt{\|f\|_{L^2}^2 + \|f'\|_{L^2}}$$

Therefore, the inclusion operator $C^\infty(\mathbb{T}) \rightarrow C^{0, \frac{1}{2}}(\mathbb{T})$ is bounded when $C^\infty(\mathbb{T})$ is equipped with the $H^1(\mathbb{T})$ -norm. Since $C^\infty(\mathbb{T}) \subset H^1(\mathbb{T})$ is dense, the inclusion operator extends uniquely to the completion $H^1(\mathbb{T})$.

c) The argument here is exactly the same as in the proof of Theorem 5.6.

6. a) Notice that the closure of the image of the unit ball in $C(\mathbb{T}^d)$ contains the characters χ_n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^d$. The set of characters certainly does not have compact closure as by orthogonality for any $m \neq n$

$$\|\chi_n - \chi_m\|_{L^2} = \sqrt{2}.$$

- b) Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be bounded and open. Let $f_n \in C_b^{k+1}(U) \subset C_b^k(U)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ define a sequence with $\|f_n\|_{C_b^{k+1}(U)} \leq 1$. The norm we consider on the space $C_b^k(U)$ here is given by

$$\|f\|_{C_b^k(U)} = \max_{\|\alpha\|_1 \leq k} \|\partial_\alpha f\|_\infty$$

for $f \in C_b^k(U)$. Note that this is just a convenient choice and any other, similarly defined, norm would also do.

Fix some $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^d$ with $\|\alpha\|_1 \leq k$. We claim that the sequence $(\partial_\alpha f_n)_n$ contains a Cauchy-sequence in $C_b(U)$ and would like to invoke the theorem of Arzela-Ascoli for this. Though this is not the kind of space we may Arzela-Ascoli as formulated in Theorem 2.38 to (that version applies to $C(X)$ where X is a compact metric space) the proof applies verbatim – see also Sheet 3. We need to show that $\{\partial_\alpha f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is equicontinuous at every point. So let $x \in U$ and $y \in U$ be such that the straight line from x to y is contained in U . Then by the fundamental theorem of calculus

$$\partial_\alpha f(y) - \partial_\alpha f(x) = \int_0^1 \sum_{i=1}^d \partial_i \partial_\alpha f((1-t)x + ty)(x_i - y_i) dt$$

and so

$$|\partial_\alpha f(y) - \partial_\alpha f(x)| \ll \|f\|_{C_b^{k+1}(U)} \|x - y\|$$

where the implicit constant is absolute (i.e. does not depend on anything). This shows equicontinuity and thus $(\partial_\alpha f_n)_n$ contains a Cauchy-sequence in $C_b(U)$.

Since we are only considering finitely many α 's and α above was arbitrary we may find a subsequence of $(f_n)_n$ in $C_b^k(U)$ which is Cauchy. This proves the claim.

It remains to show that claim about $U = \mathbb{R}$. Let $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ be non-trivial with compact support in $(0, 1)$ and so that $\|f\|_{C_b^{k+1}(\mathbb{R})} \leq 1$. Then set for any $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$

$$f_\ell : x \in \mathbb{R} \mapsto f(x - \ell).$$

Note that the support of f_ℓ is contained in $(\ell, \ell + 1)$ by definition. We may thus conclude that

$$\|f_{\ell_1} - f_{\ell_2}\|_\infty = \|f\|_\infty > 0.$$

Thus, no subsequence of $(f_\ell)_\ell$ can be a Cauchy-sequence in $C_b^k(\mathbb{R})$. This shows the remaining claim.

- c) Define K to be the closure of the image of the unit ball in $H^1(\mathbb{T})$ inside $L^2(\mathbb{T})$. Since $L^2(\mathbb{T})$ is complete and K is closed, K is complete. We shall show that K is totally bounded and begin by proving that elements of K have uniformly small tails. Let $f \in K$ be in the image of the unit ball of $H^1(\mathbb{T})$ and let f' be the weak derivative of f . Then by Lemma 5.2,

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} n^2 |a_n(f)|^2 \ll \|f'\|_{L^2} \leq 1.$$

where $a_n(f)$ denotes the n -th Fourier coefficient. For any $N \in \mathbb{N}$ we then have

$$\sum_{|n| \geq N} |a_n(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{|n| \geq N} N^2 |a_n(f)|^2 \leq \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{|n| \geq N} n^2 |a_n(f)|^2 \ll \frac{1}{N^2}$$

where the implicit constant is the same as above and in particular does not depend on N . By continuity the inequality also holds for any other $f \in K$.

We now prove that K is totally bounded. So let $\epsilon > 0$ and let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be small enough so that

$$\sum_{|n| \geq N} |a_n(f)|^2 \leq \frac{\epsilon^2}{4}$$

Denote by

$$K' = \left\{ f \in K : f = \sum_{|n| \leq N} a_n(f) \chi_n \right\}$$

which is a closed, bounded subset of a finite-dimensional space and thus compact. We may hence choose a finite subset $A \subset K'$ so that for any $f \in K'$ there is $a \in A$ with $\|f - a\|_2 < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$.

Let $f \in K$ be arbitrary, set $\tilde{f} = \sum_{|n| \leq N} a_n(f) \chi_n$ and choose $a \in A$ with the property $\|\tilde{f} - a\|_2 < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Then

$$\|f - a\|_2 \leq \|f - \tilde{f}\|_2 + \|\tilde{f} - a\|_2 < \left(\sum_{|n| \geq N} |a_n(f)|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq \epsilon$$

In other words, the balls of radius $\epsilon > 0$ around the points in the finite set A cover K . Since $\epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, K is totally bounded.

7. a) As noted in the hint, we only need to show that a linear combination of compact operators is compact – see Lemma 6.3. So let λ be a scalar and let $L_1, L_2 \in B(X)$ be compact. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{(\lambda L_1 + L_2)(B_1^X)} &\subset \overline{\lambda L_1(B_1^X) + L_2(B_1^X)} \subset \overline{\lambda L_1(B_1^X)} + \overline{L_2(B_1^X)} \\ &= \overline{\lambda L_1(B_1^X)} + \overline{L_2(B_1^X)} \end{aligned}$$

by continuity of addition and multiplication. By the same continuity, the latter set is compact and so $\overline{(\lambda L_1 + L_2)(B_1^X)}$ is compact as desired.

- b) It follows directly from Lemma 6.7 that $K(X)$ is a closed ideal. In particular, the Calkin algebra, when equipped with the quotient norm, forms a Banach space. It remains to show that the quotient norm satisfies the required property of a Banach algebra. For this, let $A_1, A_2 \in B(X)$ and given $\epsilon > 0$ choose $K_1, K_2 \in K(X)$ with

$$\|A_1 + K_1\| \leq \|A_1 + K(X)\| + \epsilon, \quad \|A_2 + K_2\| \leq \|A_2 + K(X)\| + \epsilon.$$

To simplify notation set $A'_1 = A_1 + K_1$ and $A'_2 = A_2 + K_2$. Then by definition of the quotient and the norm $\|A'_1 + K(X)\| = \|A_1 + K(X)\|$ and similarly for A'_2 . Also, $A_1 A_2 + K(X) = A'_1 A'_2 + K(X)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|A_1 A_2 + K(X)\| &\leq \|A'_1 A'_2\| \leq \|A'_1\| \|A'_2\| \\ &\leq \|A_1 + K(X)\| \|A_2 + K(X)\| \\ &\quad + (\|A_1 + K(X)\| + \|A_2 + K(X)\| + \epsilon)\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

and as $\epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary this shows

$$\|A_1 A_2 + K(X)\| \leq \|A_1 + K(X)\| \|A_2 + K(X)\|$$

as desired.

8. a) As proved in the lecture, operators with finite-dimensional range are compact. Now it suffices to note that all P_n 's are of this shape.

- b) The definition of the strong operator topology is such that $P_n \rightarrow \text{id}$ if and only if $P_n(x) \rightarrow x$ for all $x \in \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. See also Exercise 8.57. But now note that for any $x \in \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$

$$\|x - P_n(x)\|_{\ell^2}^2 = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} |x_k|^2 \rightarrow 0$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by absolute convergence. Thus, $P_n \rightarrow \text{id}$ in the strong operator topology.

The identity operator on any infinite-dimensional Banach space X is not compact. Indeed, $\overline{\text{id}(B_1^X)} = \overline{B_1^X}$ is not compact by Proposition 2.35.

9. For simplicity of the exposition, let us first assume that $T = \text{id}_X - K$ is injective. We thus have a bijective bounded operator $T : X \rightarrow T(X)$ and so in order to prove that $T(X)$ is closed we may also prove that T^{-1} is bounded. In other words, if there is a constant $C > 0$ such that

$$\|x\| \leq C\|Tx\| \tag{2}$$

for all $x \in X$ then any Cauchy-sequence $Tx_n = x_n - Kx_n$ in $T(X)$ has the property that x_n is a Cauchy-sequence in X . Since X is a Banach space, the limit x exists. It satisfies $Tx_n \rightarrow Tx$ then as required showing that $T(X)$ is complete and hence closed. So suppose that such a constant C does not exist and choose $(x_n)_n$ in X so that

$$\|x_n\| = 1 \text{ and } 1 > n\|Tx_n\|.$$

Thus, $Tx_n = x_n - Kx_n \rightarrow 0$. But $Kx_n \in K(B_1^X)$ where $K(B_1^X)$ has compact closure by choice of K . Thus, there is $y \in X$ so that $Kx_n \rightarrow y$. This implies that

$$x_n = (x_n - Kx_n) + Kx_n \rightarrow 0 + y = y.$$

Thus, $Kx_n \rightarrow Ky$ as K is bounded. But since $Kx_n \rightarrow y$ also holds, we have $Ky = y$ which implies $y = 0$ by assumption. We also know that $\|x_n\| = 1$ for all n which is impossible as $x_n \rightarrow y = 0$. This is a contradiction and hence the inequality (2) holds for some constant C . We already proved that this implies the claim.

We now drop the assumption that $T = \text{id}_X - K$ is injective and let V be the kernel of $\text{id}_X - K$. Notice that V is finite-dimensional. Indeed, $K|_V : V \rightarrow X$ is compact and equal to the identity operator, which can only be compact if V is finite-dimensional by Proposition 2.35. We know from Exercise 6, Sheet 9 that V has a closed complement. Denote this complement by W . Notice that the image of $\text{id}_X - K$ restricted to W is equal to the image of the whole space X under the same map as V is the kernel. Furthermore, W is a Banach space and $K|_W$ is compact. One can therefore apply the argument from the first part of the exercise to the new injective operator $(\text{id}_X - K)|_W$ and obtain the claim in the general case.

10. a) Recall that the adjoint operator of, say, $L \in B(\mathcal{H})$ is characterized uniquely by the equation

$$\langle Lv, w \rangle = \langle v, L^*w \rangle$$

for all $v, w \in \mathcal{H}$.

Now consider the operator $L = aS + bT$. We see that for any $v, w \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle (aS + bT)v, w \rangle &= \langle aSv + bTv, w \rangle = a \langle Sv, w \rangle + b \langle Tv, w \rangle \\ &= a \langle v, S^*w \rangle + b \langle v, T^*w \rangle = \langle v, \bar{a}S^*w \rangle + \langle v, \bar{b}T^*w \rangle \\ &= \langle v, (\bar{a}S^* + \bar{b}T^*)w \rangle \end{aligned}$$

and so the claim follows from the above uniqueness statement.

Similarly, we compute for $L = ST$ and $v, w \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\langle STv, w \rangle = \langle Tv, S^*w \rangle = \langle v, T^*S^*w \rangle$$

which concludes part a).

- b) We first prove the equality $\text{im}(T)^\perp = \ker(T^*)$. So let $v \in \ker(T^*)$ and let $w \in \mathcal{H}$. Then $\langle v, Tw \rangle = \langle T^*v, w \rangle = 0$ implies that $v \in \text{im}(T)^\perp$. Conversely, if $v \in \text{im}(T)^\perp$ then $\langle T^*v, w \rangle = \langle v, Tw \rangle = 0$ for all $w \in \mathcal{H}$ implies that $T^*v = 0$.

We now prove the equality $\ker(T)^\perp = \overline{\text{im}(T^*)}$ or by taking orthogonal complements rather the equivalent statement

$$\ker(T) = \text{im}(T^*)^\perp$$

Replacing T with T^* and using that $(T^*)^* = T$, this is in fact the same equality as the one we already proved.

- c) Assume that T is unitary i.e. that T is surjective and that

$$\|Tv\|^2 = \langle Tv, Tv \rangle = \|v\|^2.$$

for all $v \in \mathcal{H}$ We first claim that $\langle Tv, Tw \rangle = \langle v, w \rangle$ for all $v, w \in \mathcal{H}$. By the polarization identity (see Exercise 3, Sheet 4)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Tv, Tw \rangle &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=0}^3 i^k \|Tv + i^k Tw\|^2 = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=0}^3 i^k \|T(v + i^k w)\|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=0}^3 i^k \|v + i^k w\|^2 = \langle v, w \rangle \end{aligned}$$

and so this proves the claim. As in a), the equality

$$\langle v, T^*Tw \rangle = \langle Tv, Tw \rangle = \langle v, w \rangle$$

proves that $T^*T = \text{id}_{\mathcal{H}}$. Since this shows that $T^{-1} = T^*$ as T is surjective, we also have $TT^* = \text{id}_{\mathcal{H}}$.

Let us turn to the converse and assume that $T^*T = TT^* = \text{id}_{\mathcal{H}}$. By the latter equality, T must be surjective. Furthermore, we have for all $v \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\langle v, v \rangle = \langle v, T^*Tv \rangle = \langle Tv, Tv \rangle$$

which finishes the exercise.

- 11.** We do not give the statement right away, but rather discover it while using all the theory we can. Let us apply Theorem 6.27 to the self-adjoint compact operator T_2 . It follows there is a sequence λ_n of non-zero distinct eigenvalues with $\lambda_n \rightarrow 0$ so that we can write

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_0 \oplus \bigoplus_n \mathcal{H}_n \tag{3}$$

where \mathcal{H}_0 is the kernel of T_2 and \mathcal{H}_n is the eigenspace of T_2 to the eigenvalue λ_n . By assumption on T_2 , the kernel \mathcal{H}_0 is trivial. Also, it is contained in Theorem 6.27 that each eigenspace \mathcal{H}_n is finite-dimensional.

We claim that the eigenspaces \mathcal{H}_n are also invariant under T_1 . Indeed, if $v \in \mathcal{H}_n$ then by commutativity

$$T_2(T_1v) = T_1T_2v = \lambda_n T_1v$$

and so $T_1v \in \mathcal{H}_n$.

Recall that any self-adjoint operator on a finite-dimensional inner product space is diagonalizable! Applying this for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ to $T_1|_{\mathcal{H}_n}$ we find an orthonormal basis \mathcal{B}_n of \mathcal{H}_n of eigenvectors of T_1 . Since $T_2|_{\mathcal{H}_n}$ is a scalar multiplication map, this orthonormal basis also consist of eigenvectors of T_2 . Let $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, \dots$ be an enumeration of $\bigcup_n \mathcal{B}_n$. By Equation 3 this forms an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} of eigenvectors for T_1, T_2 simultaneously. By the spectral theorem as applied above, we have that the eigenvalue of v_k goes to zero as k goes to infinity.

- 12.** Recall from the discussion after the proof of Lemma 2.68 that the functions

$$s_n : x \in [0, 1] \mapsto \sin(\pi nx)$$

for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ satisfy $K(s_n) = \frac{-1}{(\pi n)^2} s_n$ and are therefore eigenvectors of the Hilbert-Schmidt operator K with eigenvalues $\mu_n = \frac{-1}{(\pi n)^2}$. It remains to show that these are all eigenvalues and that all these eigenvalues have (geometric) multiplicity one.

To achieve this, suppose that f is an eigenvector of K with eigenvalue $\lambda \neq 0$. In particular, $Kf = \lambda f$. By Lemma 2.68 this is another way of saying that $f \in C^2([0, 1])$ with $\lambda f'' = f$ and $f(0) = f(1) = 0$. Thus, since $f'' = \frac{1}{\lambda} f \in C^2([0, 1])$ we have that $f \in C^4([0, 1])$ and continuing in this fashion, f must be smooth.

Suppose that $\lambda < 0$. By uniqueness of solutions to second order ODE's we must have

$$f(x) = A \sin(\sqrt{|\lambda|x}) + B \cos(\sqrt{|\lambda|x})$$

for all $x \in [0, 1]$. Since $f(1) = 0$, $B = 0$. Since $f(0) = 0$, $\sqrt{|\lambda|} \in \pi\mathbb{Z}$ and so $\sqrt{|\lambda|} = \pi n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus, $f(x) = A \sin(\pi n x)$ as desired.

Suppose that $\lambda > 0$. Then

$$f(x) = A \sinh(\sqrt{\lambda}x) + B \cosh(\sqrt{\lambda}x)$$

for all x and as $f(0) = 0$ we have $B = 0$. Since $\sinh' = \cosh$ is positive, \sinh is strictly increasing and therefore $f(1) > f(0) = 0$ so there is no eigenvector to positive eigenvalue.

Remark: An alternative approach uses Fourier series on the interval. For a smooth function (such as an eigenfunction) the Fourier series is absolutely convergent. If an eigenfunction apart linearly independent from the s_n would exist, it would need to be orthogonal to these. But these functions form a orthogonal basis of L^2 (see Exercise 3.55).

It remains to compute the kernel of K . So suppose that $Kf = 0$. The proof of Lemma 2.68 then shows that (taking the second derivative of Kf) $f = 0$ so the kernel is trivial.