## 2

## Operators

### 2.1 Bounded Linear Operators

Recall from real analysis that if $J$ is a subset of $\mathbb{R}$ and if $f$ is a real valued function defined on $J$, then
(i) $f$ continuous at a point $t_{0} \in J$ does not imply that it is continuous at another point $t_{1} \in J$;
(ii) $f$ continuous at every point $t \in J$ does not imply that it is uniformly continuous on $J$;
(iii) $f$ uniformly continuous on $J$ does not imply that it is Lipschitz continuous on $J$.

However, we prove below that for a linear operator between normed linear spaces, Lipschitz continuity, uniform continuity, continuity, and continuity at a point are all equivalent.

First recall that a linear operator or linear transformation between linear spaces $X$ and $Y$ is a function $A: X \rightarrow Y$ satisfying the conditions

$$
A(x+y)=A(x)+A(y) \quad \text { and } \quad A(\alpha x)=\alpha A(x)
$$

for all $x, y \in X$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$.
Theorem 2.1.1 Let $X, Y$ be normed linear spaces and $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator. Then the following are equivalent.
(i) $A$ is continuous at the point 0 .
(ii) There exists $c>0$ such that $\|A x\| \leq c\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$.
(iii) $A$ is uniformly continuous on $X$.

Proof. The implications (ii) $\Longrightarrow$ (iii) $\Longrightarrow$ (i) are obvious. Hence, it is enough to prove (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii).

Assume that (i) holds. Since $A(0)=0$, there exists $\delta>0$ such that

$$
\|x\|<\delta \Longrightarrow\|A x\|<1
$$

Hence, for every $x \neq 0$, since the vector $\delta x / 2\|x\|$ is of norm less than $\delta$, we have

$$
\left\|A\left(\frac{\delta x}{2\|x\|}\right)\right\|<1
$$

so that

$$
\|A x\| \leq \frac{2}{\delta}\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Thus, (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii).
Continuity of a linear operator $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is also equivalent to the following:
(a) The image of every bounded subset of $X$ is bounded in $Y$.
(b) The set $\{\|A x\|:\|x\|=1\}$ is bounded.

In view of the characterization (a) above for a continuous linear operator, we have the following definition.

Definition 2.1.1 A continuous linear operator is also called a bounded linear operator.

### 2.1.1 Space of bounded linear operators

Throughout this chapter, when we say that $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is a bounded linear operator, it is assumed that $X$ and $Y$ are normed linear spaces.

Notation 2.1.1 The set of all bounded linear operators from $X$ to $Y$ is denoted by $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

Thus,

$$
A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y) \Longleftrightarrow \exists c>0 \text { such that }\|A x\| \leq c\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Theorem 2.1.2 Let $X, Y$ be normed linear spaces. Then $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ is a linear space, and the function $\nu: \mathcal{B}(X, Y) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$
\nu(A):=\inf \{c>0:\|A x\| \leq c\|x\| \forall x \in X\}, \quad A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)
$$

is a norm on $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

Proof. Clearly $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ is a subset of the linear space $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ of all linear operators from $X$ to $Y$. We observe that for $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, we have

$$
\nu(A)=0 \Longleftrightarrow A=0
$$

and

$$
\|A x\| \leq \nu(A)\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Thus, for $A, B$ in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\|(A+B) x\| \leq(\nu(A)+\nu(B))\|x\|, \quad \forall x \in X \\
\|(\alpha A)(x)\|=|\alpha|\|A x\| \leq|\alpha| \nu(A)\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
\end{gathered}
$$

Therefore $A+B, \alpha A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and

$$
\nu(A+B) \leq \nu(A)+\nu(B), \quad \nu(\alpha A) \leq|\alpha| \nu(A)
$$

In particular, $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ is a subspace of the space $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$. Further, the equality $\|(\alpha A)(x)\|=|\alpha|\|A x\|$ for all $x \in X$ also shows that $|\alpha| \nu(A) \leq \nu(\alpha A)$ so that

$$
\nu(\alpha A)=|\alpha| \nu(A) .
$$

Thus, we have also shown that $\nu$ is a norm on $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

Convertion: Hereafter, the norm on the space $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ will be the one given in Theorem 2.1.2, and it will be denoted by $\|A\|$.

Remark 2.1.1 If $c>0$ is such that $\|A x\| \leq c\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$, then

$$
\|A\| \leq c
$$

If in addition, there exists $x_{0} \neq 0$ in $X$ such that $\left\|A x_{0}\right\|=c\left\|x_{0}\right\|$, then we also have $c \leq\|A\|$ so that we obtain $\|A\|=c$. This observation will help us computing the norms of certain operators.

- For $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, the quantities

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha_{A} & :=\sup \{\|A x\|:\|x\| \leq 1\} \\
\beta_{A} & :=\sup \{\|A x\|:\|x\|=1\} \\
\gamma_{A} & :=\sup \left\{\frac{\|A x\|}{\|x\|}: x \neq 0\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

are finite and are equal to $\|A\|$.

Definition 2.1.2 We use the notation $\mathcal{B}(X)$ for $\mathcal{B}(X, X)$ and $X^{\prime}$ for $\mathcal{B}(X, \mathbb{K})$.

1. The space $X^{\prime}$ is called the dual space or simply the dual of $X$ and its elements are called continuous linear functionals or bounded linear functionals. Continuous linear functionals are usually denoted by small scale letters $f, g$, etc.
2. An operator in $\mathcal{B}(X)$ is called a a bounded linear operator on $X$.

Theorem 2.1.3 If $Y$ is a Banach space, then $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ is a Banach space. In particular, for every normed linear space $X, X^{\prime}$ is a Banach space.

Proof. Suppose $Y$ is a Banach space. We have to show that every Cauchy sequence of operators in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ converges to an operator in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. So, let $\left(A_{n}\right)$ be a Cauchy sequence in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $\varepsilon>0$ be given. Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that

$$
\left\|A_{n}-A_{m}\right\|<\varepsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N
$$

Hence, for any $x \in X$, we have

$$
\left\|\left(A_{n}-A_{m}\right) x\right\| \leq\left\|A_{n}-A_{m}\right\|\|x\|<\varepsilon\|x\| \quad \forall n, m \geq N
$$

Thus, for each $x \in X,\left(A_{n} x\right)$ is a Cauchy sequence in $Y$. Since $Y$ is a Banach space, $\left(A_{n} x\right)$ converges in $Y$. Let $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be defined by

$$
A x:=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A_{n} x, \quad x \in X
$$

It can be easily seen that $A$ is a linear operator. Also, since $\left(A_{n}\right)$ is a Cauchy sequence, it is bounded. Let $M>0$ be such that $\left\|A_{n}\right\| \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence,

$$
\|A x\|=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|A_{n} x\right\| \leq M\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Thus, $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. Further, we have

$$
\left\|A_{n} x-A x\right\|=\lim _{m \rightarrow \infty}\left\|\left(A_{n}-A_{m}\right) x\right\| \leq \varepsilon\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X, n \geq N .
$$

Thus, $\left\|A_{n}-A\right\| \leq \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq N$, showing that $\left(A_{n}\right)$ converges to $A$ in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

Remark 2.1.2 We shall prove in the next chapter, as a consequence of a theorem called Hahn-Banach extension theorem, that the converse of Theorem 2.1.3 is also true.

The following theorem gives a class of examples of bounded operators.

Theorem 2.1.4 Let $X$ and $Y$ normed linear spaces and $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator. If $\operatorname{dim}(X)<\infty$, then $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

Proof. Let $\operatorname{dim}(X)=n$ and $E=\left\{u_{1}, \ldots, u_{k}\right\}$ be an ordered basis of $X$. For $x=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} u_{i}$ in $X$, let

$$
\|x\|_{E}:=\max \left\{\left|\alpha_{i}\right|: i=1, \ldots, k\right\}
$$

We know that $\|\cdot\|_{E}$ is a norm on $X$ which is equivalent to the original norm on $X$. Thus, there exists $c_{0}>0$ such that $\|x\|_{E} \leq c_{0}\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$. Hence, for all $x \in X$,

$$
\|A x\| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{k}\left|\alpha_{i}\right|\left\|A u_{i}\right\| \leq\|x\|_{E} \sum_{i=1}^{k}\left\|A u_{i}\right\|=c\|x\|
$$

where $c=c_{0} \sum_{i=1}^{k}\left\|A u_{i}\right\|$.
A natural question is whether the assumption $\operatorname{dim}(X)<\infty$ in the above theorem can be dropped or can be replaced by $\operatorname{dim}(Y)<\infty$. The following example shows that the answer is in negative.

Example 2.1.1 (A discontinuous linear functional) Let $X$ be the space $c_{00}$ with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ and let $f: c_{00} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ be defined by

$$
f(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x(j), \quad x \in c_{00}
$$

Then $f$ is a linear functional on $X$. But, $f \notin X^{\prime}$. To see this, let

$$
x_{n}(i)= \begin{cases}1, & j \leq n \\ 0, & j>n\end{cases}
$$

for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The we see that $x_{n} \in c_{00},\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{\infty}=1$ and $f\left(x_{n}\right)=n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus, $\left(x_{n}\right)$ is a bounded sequence whose image is not a bounded sequence.

The following corollary is immediate from Theorem 2.1.4 by observing that the inverse of a linear operator is a linear operator.

Corollary 2.1.5 Any two finite dimensional normed linear spaces of the same dimension are linearly homeomorphic.

### 2.1.2 Examples of bounded linear operators

Now, let us give some examples of bounded linear operators whose domains are infinite dimensional spaces.

Example 2.1.2 Let $\left(\lambda_{n}\right)$ be a bounded sequence of scalars and $A: \ell^{p} \rightarrow \ell^{p}$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(i)=\lambda_{i} x(i), \quad i \in \mathbb{N}
$$

Let $\beta:=\sup _{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left|\lambda_{n}\right|$. Then we obtain

$$
\|A x\|_{p} \leq \beta\|x\|_{p} \quad \forall x \in \ell^{p}
$$

so that $A$ is a bounded linear operator and $\|A\| \leq \beta$. Also, we have

$$
\left|\lambda_{n}\right|=\left\|\lambda_{n} e_{n}\right\|_{p}=\left\|A e_{n}\right\|_{p} \leq\|A\| \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}
$$

so that $\beta \leq\|A\|$. Thus, we have proved that $\|A\|=\beta$.
Example 2.1.3 Let $X=C[a, b]$ with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$. For $u \in C[a, b]$, let

$$
\left(A_{u} x\right)(t)=u(t) x(t), \quad x \in C[a, b], \quad t \in[a, b] .
$$

Then we have

$$
\left\|A_{u} x\right\|_{\infty} \leq\|u\|_{\infty}\|x\|_{\infty} \quad \forall x \in C[a, b]
$$

so that $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\left\|A_{u}\right\| \leq\|u\|_{\infty}$. Further, if $x_{0}(t)=1$ for all $t \in[a, b]$, then we have

$$
|u(t)|=\left|\left(A_{u} x_{0}\right)(t)\right| \leq\left\|A_{u}\right\| \quad \forall t \in[a, b]
$$

so that $\|u\|_{\infty} \leq\left\|A_{u}\right\|$. Thus, we have proved that $\left\|A_{u}\right\|=\|u\|_{\infty}$.
Also, the function $T: X \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(X)$ defined by

$$
T(u)=A_{u}, \quad u \in X
$$

is a linear operator. Note also that

$$
\|T(u)\|=\left\|A_{u}\right\|=\|u\|, \quad u \in X
$$

so that $T$ is a linear isometry. Thus, $X$ can be viewed as the subspace

$$
R(T)=\left\{A_{u}: u \in C[a, b]\right\}
$$

of the space $\mathcal{B}(X)$.
Example 2.1.4 Let $X=C[a, b]$ with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$.
(i) Let

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{s} x(t) d t, \quad x \in C[a, b], \quad s \in[a, b] .
$$

Then we see that $A x \in C[a, b]$ for every $x \in C[a, b]$ and $A$ is a linear operator on $X$. Further, we have

$$
|(A x)(s)| \leq \int_{a}^{s}|x(t)| d t \leq(b-a)\|x\|_{\infty} \quad \forall x \in C[a, b], s \in[a, b] .
$$

Hence, we have $\|A x\|_{\infty} \leq(b-a)\|x\|_{\infty}$ for all $x \in C[a, b]$, and consequently, $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|A\| \leq b-a$. Also, since $x_{0}$ defined by $x_{0}(t)=1$ for all $t \in[a, b]$ satisfies $\left\|A x_{0}\right\|_{\infty}=(b-a)\left\|x_{0}\right\|_{\infty}$, we have $\|A\|=b-a$.
(ii) Let

$$
f(x)=\int_{a}^{b} x(t) d t, \quad x \in C[a, b] .
$$

Then it can be seen (Verify) that $f \in X^{\prime}$ and $\|f\|=b-a$.
Example 2.1.5 Let $X=\ell^{2}$, and $a_{i j} \in \mathbb{K}$ be such that

$$
\beta:=\sup _{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|<\infty \quad \text { and } \quad \gamma:=\sup _{j \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|<\infty .
$$

We show that

$$
A x=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{i j} x(j)\right) e_{i}, \quad x \in \ell^{2},
$$

defines a bounded linear operator from $\ell^{2}$ to itself and $\|A\| \leq \sqrt{\beta \gamma}$.
Let $x \in X$. Then for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j} x(j)\right| & =\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|^{1 / 2}\left|a_{i j}\right|^{1 / 2}|x(j)| \\
& \leq\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|\right)^{1 / 2}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right||x(j)|^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j} x(j)\right|\right)^{2} \leq \beta \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right||x(j)|^{2}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j} x(j)\right|\right)^{2} & \leq \beta \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j} \| x(j)\right|^{2} \\
& =\beta \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|\right)|x(j)|^{2} \\
& \leq \beta \gamma\|x\|_{2}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, for each $x \in \ell^{2}$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$
(A x)(i):=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{i j} x(j)
$$

is well-defined, $A x \in \ell^{2}$ and $\|A x\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{\beta \gamma}\|x\|_{2}$. Thus, $A: \ell^{2} \rightarrow \ell^{2}$ is a a bounded operator and $\|A\| \leq \sqrt{\beta \gamma}$.

Taking $a_{i j}=\lambda_{i} \delta_{i j}$ for $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$, we recover the Example 2.1.2.
Example 2.1.6 Let $k(\cdot, \cdot) \in C([a, b] \times[a, b])$. For $x \in C[a, b]$, let

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{b} k(s, t) x(t) d t, \quad s \in[a, b]
$$

We see that $A x \in C[a, b]$ for every $x \in C[a, b]$.
(i) Let $X=C[a, b]$ with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$. Let $x \in C[a, b]$. We have

$$
|(A x)(s)| \leq \int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)||x(t)| d t \leq\|x\|_{\infty}\left(\int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)| d t\right)
$$

Thus,

$$
\|A x\|_{\infty} \leq \beta\|x\|_{\infty}, \quad \beta:=\sup _{a \leq s \leq b} \int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)| d t
$$

Therefore, $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|A\| \leq \beta$. In fact, it is also known that $\|A\|=\beta$ (cf. Nair [5]).
(ii) Let $X=C[a, b]$ with $\|\cdot\|_{2}$. Let $x \in C[a, b]$. We have

$$
|(A x)(s)| \leq \int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)||x(t)| d t \leq\|x\|_{2}\left(\int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)|^{2} d t\right)^{1 / 2}
$$

so that

$$
\|A x\|_{2}^{2}=\int_{a}^{b}|(A x)(s)|^{2} d s \leq\left(\int_{a}^{b} \int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)|^{2} d t\right)\|x\|_{2}^{2}
$$

Thus, $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|A\| \leq\left(\int_{a}^{b} \int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)|^{2} d t\right)^{1 / 2}$.
Example 2.1.7 Consider the linear operator $A: C^{1}[0,1] \rightarrow C[0,1]$ defined by

$$
(A x)(t)=x^{\prime}(t), \quad x \in C^{1}[0,1], \quad t \in[0,1] .
$$

Taking

$$
x_{n}(t)=\frac{t^{n}}{n+1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad t \in[0,1]
$$

we have

$$
\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{\infty}=\frac{1}{n+1} \quad \text { and } \quad\left\|A x_{n}\right\|_{\infty}=\frac{n}{n+1}
$$

Thus, with respect to $\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{\infty} \rightarrow 0$, but $\left\|A x_{n}\right\|_{\infty} \nrightarrow 0$. Hence, with respect to the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ on both the spaces $C^{1}[0,1]$ and $C[0,1], A$ is not a bounded operator. However, if we take the norm

$$
\|x\|_{*}:=\|x\|_{\infty}+\left\|x^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty}, \quad x \in C^{1}[0,1]
$$

on $C^{1}[0,1]$, we have

$$
\|A x\|_{\infty}=\left\|x^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty} \leq\|x\|_{*} \quad \forall x \in C^{1}[0,1]
$$

Thus, taking

$$
X=C^{1}[0,1] \text { with }\|\cdot\|_{*} \text { and } Y=C[0,1] \text { with }\|\cdot\|_{\infty},
$$

we obtain

$$
A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y) \quad \text { and } \quad\|A\| \leq 1
$$

Also, with $x_{n}$ as above, we have $\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{*}=1$ and

$$
\frac{n}{n+1}=\left\|A x_{n}\right\|_{\infty} \leq\|A\|\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{*}=\|A\| \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}
$$

so that we obtain $\|A\|=1$.

Example 2.1.8 Let $X$ be an inner product space and $P: X \rightarrow X$ be a nonzero orthogonal projection. Then for every $x \in X$, since

$$
P x \in R(P) \quad \text { and } \quad(I-P) x \in N(P)=R(P)^{\perp}
$$

we have

$$
\|x\|^{2}=\|P x+(I-P) x\|^{2}=\|P x\|^{2}+\|(I-P) x\|^{2} \geq\|P x\|^{2}
$$

Hence,

$$
\|P x\| \leq\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
$$

showing that $P \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|P\| \leq 1$. Since $P$ is nonzero, there exists a nonzero $x \in X$ such that $P x=x$ so that

$$
\|x\|=\|P x\| \leq\|P\|\|x\|,
$$

and hence, we also have $\|P\| \leq 1$. Thus, $\|P\|=1$.
Example 2.1.9 Let $X$ be an infinite dimensional Hilbert space and $\left(u_{n}\right)$ be an orthonormal sequence in $X$. Let $\left(\lambda_{n}\right)$ be a bounded sequence of scalars. For $x \in X$, define

$$
A x=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{n}\left\langle x, u_{n}\right\rangle u_{n}
$$

The above operator $A: X \rightarrow X$ is well defined. Indeed, if $M$ is a bound for $\left(\left|\lambda_{n}\right|\right)$, then for every $x \in X$,

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left|\lambda_{n}\right|^{2}\left|\left\langle x, u_{n}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \leq M^{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left|\left\langle x, u_{n}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \leq M\|x\|^{2}
$$

so that by Riesz-Fischer theorem (Theorem 1.5.4), the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{n}\left\langle x, u_{n}\right\rangle u_{n}$ is convergent. It can be easily seen that $A$ is a linear operator from $X$ to itself. Further, we have

$$
\|A x\|^{2} \leq M^{2}\|x\|^{2} \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Hence, $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|A\| \leq M$. Note also that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$
\left|\lambda_{n}\right|=\left\|\lambda_{n} u_{n}\right\|=\left\|A u_{n}\right\| \leq\|A\|
$$

so that

$$
\sup _{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left|\lambda_{n}\right| \leq\|A\|
$$

Taking $M=\sup _{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left|\lambda_{n}\right|$, we also obtain $M \leq\|A\|$. Thus, we proved that $\|A\|=\sup _{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left|\lambda_{n}\right|$.

Taking $X=\ell^{2}$ and $u_{n}=e_{n}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, Example 2.1.2 becomes a special case.

Example 2.1.10 Let $X$ and $Y$ be inner product spaces and $A \in$ $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. Then

$$
\|A\|=\sup \{|\langle A x, y\rangle|: x \in X, y \in Y \text { with }\|x\|=1=\|y\|\}
$$

### 2.1.3 Conditions for continuity

In the following theorem we specify a necessary and sufficient condition for a linear functional on a general normed linear space to be continuous.

Theorem 2.1.6 Suppose $X$ is a normed linear space and $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is a nonzero linear functional. Then $f$ is continuous if and only if $N(f)$ is closed, and in that case,

$$
\|f\|=\frac{\left|f\left(x_{0}\right)\right|}{\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)}
$$

for any $x_{0} \notin N(f)$.
Proof. Clearly, if $f$ is continuous, then $N(f)$ is closed.
Conversely, suppose $N(f)$ is closed. Let $x_{0} \in X$ with $f\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0$. Then we know that $d:=\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)>0$. Now, every $x \in X$ can be expressed as $x=y+z$, where

$$
y=x-\frac{f(x)}{f\left(x_{0}\right)} x_{0}, \quad z=\frac{f(x)}{f\left(x_{0}\right)} x_{0}
$$

Note that $y \in N(f)$. Thus, for $x \in X$,

$$
\operatorname{dist}(x, N(f))=\operatorname{dist}(z, N(f))=\left|\frac{f(x)}{f\left(x_{0}\right)}\right| \operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)
$$

and hence,

$$
|f(x)| \leq \frac{\left|f\left(x_{0}\right)\right|}{\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)} \operatorname{dist}(x, N(f)) \leq \frac{\left|f\left(x_{0}\right)\right|}{\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)}\|x\|
$$

Therefore, $f \in X^{\prime}$ and

$$
\|f\| \leq \frac{\left|f\left(x_{0}\right)\right|}{\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)}
$$

Also, for every $u \in N(f)$,

$$
\left|f\left(x_{0}\right)\right|=\left\|f\left(x_{0}-u\right)\right\| \leq\|f\|\left\|x_{0}-u\right\|
$$

Hence, taking infimum over all $u \in N(f)$, we obtain

$$
\left|f\left(x_{0}\right)\right| \leq\|f\| \operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)
$$

so that

$$
\|f\| \geq \frac{\left|f\left(x_{0}\right)\right|}{\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{0}, N(f)\right)}
$$

This completes the proof.

Next theorem would help in inferring the continuity of a linear operator and also in obtaining an estimate for its norm, in the case when the spaces involved are inner product spaces.

Theorem 2.1.7 Let $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator between inner product spaces $X$ and $Y$. Then $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ if and only if there exists $\beta>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\langle A x, y\rangle| \leq \beta\|x\|\|y\| \quad \forall(x, y) \in X \times Y \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

and in that case

$$
\|A\|=\sup \{|\langle A x, y\rangle|:\|x\|=1=\|y\|\} \leq \beta
$$

Proof. Suppose $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. Then for every $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, by Cauchy Schwarz inequality, we have

$$
|\langle A x, y\rangle| \leq\|A x\|\|y\| \leq\|A\|\|x\|\|y\|
$$

Thus (*) is satisfied with $\beta=\|A\|$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sup \{|\langle A x, y\rangle|:\|x\|=1=\|y\|\} \leq\|A\| \tag{**}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, suppose there exists $\beta>0$ such that $(*)$ holds. We know that for every $x \in X$,

$$
\|A x\|=\sup \{|\langle A x, v\rangle|: v \in Y,\|v\|=1\}
$$

Hence,

$$
\|A x\|=\sup \left\{\frac{|\langle A x, y\rangle|}{\|y\|}: y \in Y,\|y\| \neq 0\right\} \leq \beta\|x\|
$$

so that $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $\|A\| \leq \beta$. Also, for $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ with $\|x\|=1=\|y\|$,

$$
\|A x\|=\sup \{|\langle A x, y\rangle|: y \in Y,\|y\|=1\},
$$

so that

$$
\|A\| \leq \sup \{|\langle A x, y\rangle|:\|x\|=1=\|y\|\} .
$$

This, together with (**) shows that

$$
\|A\|=\sup \{|\langle A x, y\rangle|:\|x\|=1=\|y\|\} .
$$

Thus the proof is over.
Next theorem provides a sufficient condition for a linear operator to have a continuous inverse.

Theorem 2.1.8 Let $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator between normed linear spaces $X$ and $Y$. Suppose there exists $\gamma>0$ such that

$$
\|A x\| \geq \gamma\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Then
(i) $A$ is injective,
(ii) $A^{-1}: R(A) \rightarrow X$ is continuous, and
(iii) $\left\|A^{-1}\right\| \leq 1 / \gamma$.

Proof. It is clear that $A$ is injective. Then, for every $y \in R(A)$, if $x \in X$ is the unique element in $X$ such that $A x=y$, then we obtain

$$
\|y\|=\|A x\| \geq \gamma\|x\|=\left\|A^{-1} y\right\| .
$$

Thus, $A^{-1}$ is continuous and $\left\|A^{-1}\right\| \leq 1 / \gamma$.
Definition 2.1.3 A linear operator $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be bounded below if there exists $\gamma>0$ such that

$$
\|A x\| \geq \gamma\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X
$$

The following two corollaries are immediate from Theorem 2.1.8.
Corollary 2.1.9 Let $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator between nonzero inner product spaces $X$ and $Y$. Suppose there exists $\gamma>0$ such that

$$
|\langle A x, y\rangle| \geq \gamma\|x\|\|y\| \quad \forall(x, y) \in X \times Y
$$

Then the conclusions in Theorem 2.1.8 hold.
Corollary 2.1.10 Let $A: X \rightarrow X$ be a linear operator on an inner product space $X$. Suppose there exists $\gamma>0$ such that

$$
|\langle A x, x\rangle| \geq \gamma\|x\|^{2} \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Then the conclusions in Theorem 2.1.8 hold.
Now, we deduce a theorem which is important in view of its applications to the theory of partial differential equations.

Theorem 2.1.11 Let $X$ be a Hilbert space and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ be such that there exist $\gamma>0$ satisfying

$$
|\langle A x, x\rangle| \geq \gamma\|x\|^{2} \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Then $A$ is bijective, $A^{-1} \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\left\|A^{-1}\right\| \leq 1 / \gamma$.
Proof. By Corollary 2.1.10, $A$ is injective, $A^{-1}: R(A) \rightarrow X$ is continuous and $\left\|A^{-1}\right\| \leq 1 / \gamma$. Hence, it is enough to prove that $R(A)=X$. Now, the condition on $A$ implies that $R(A)$ is closed and $R(A)^{\perp}=\{0\}$. Hence, by projection theorem, $R(A)=X$.

### 2.2 Riesz Representation Theorem

Let $X$ be an inner product space. Cooresponding to an element $u \in X$, consider $f_{u}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ defined by

$$
f_{u}(x)=\langle x, u\rangle, \quad x \in X
$$

Clearly, $f_{u}$ is a linear functional. Also, by Cauchy Schwarz inequality,

$$
\left|f_{u}(x)\right|=|\langle x, u\rangle| \leq\|u\|\|x\|, \quad x \in X
$$

so that $f \in X^{\prime}$. Also, since $\left\|f_{u}(u) \mid=\right\| u \|^{2}$ we have $\left\|f_{u}\right\|=\|u\|$.
What about the converse? Is every continuous linear functional on $X$ is of the form $f_{u}$ for some $u \in X$ ? The answer is in negative as the following example shows.

Example 2.2.1 Let $X=c_{00}$ with $\ell^{2}$-inner product. Consider the linear functional $f$ on $X$ defined by

$$
f(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{x(j)}{j}, \quad x \in c_{00}
$$

Note that, by Schwarz inequality,

$$
|f(x)| \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{|x(j)|}{j} \leq\|x\|_{2} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j^{2}}, \quad x \in c_{00}
$$

Hene, $f \in X^{\prime}$. But, there is no $u \in c_{00}$ such that $f(x)=\langle x, u\rangle$ for all $x \in c_{00}$. To see this, suppose there exists $u \in c_{00}$ such that $f(x)=\langle x, u\rangle$ for all $x \in c_{00}$. Then, in particular, we have

$$
\frac{1}{k}=f\left(e_{k}\right)=\left\langle e_{k}, u\right\rangle=\overline{u(k)} \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}
$$

This is a contradiction to the fact that $u \in c_{00}$.
Now, we show that we do have an affirmative answer to the question raised above if $X$ is a Hilbert space.

Theorem 2.2.1 (Riesz Representation Theorem) Let $X$ be $a$ Hilbert space. Then for every $f \in X^{\prime}$, there exists a unique $u_{f} \in X$ such that

$$
f(x)=\left\langle x, u_{f}\right\rangle, \quad x \in X
$$

Further, $\left\|u_{f}\right\|=\|f\|$.
Proof. Let $f \in X^{\prime}$. Let us settle the uniqueness issue first. Suppose $u_{1}, u_{2} \in X$ be such that

$$
f(x)=\left\langle x, u_{1}\right\rangle \quad \text { and } \quad f(x)=\left\langle x, u_{2}\right\rangle
$$

for all $x \in X$. Then we have

$$
\left\langle x, u_{1}-u_{2}\right\rangle=0 \quad \forall x \in X
$$

so that $u_{1}=u_{2}$.
Next, if $f=0$, then $u=0$ serves the purpose. So, assume that $f \neq 0$. Then, by projection theorem (Theorem 1.5.6) $N(f)^{\perp}$ is a
nonzero proper closed subspace. Let $x_{0} \in N(f)^{\perp}$ such that $\left\|x_{0}\right\|=1$. Now, let $x \in X$. Since $x=y+z$ with

$$
y=x-\frac{f(x)}{f\left(x_{0}\right)} x_{0}, \quad z=\frac{f(x)}{f\left(x_{0}\right)} x_{0}
$$

and since $y \in N(f)$ and $z \in N(f)^{\perp}$, we have

$$
\left\langle x, x_{0}\right\rangle=\frac{f(x)}{f\left(x_{0}\right)}\left\langle x_{0}, x_{0}\right\rangle=\frac{f(x)}{f\left(x_{0}\right)}
$$

Thus,

$$
f(x)=\left\langle x, u_{f}\right\rangle \quad \text { with } \quad u_{f}=\overline{f\left(x_{0}\right)} x_{0}
$$

The fact that $\|f\|=\left\|u_{f}\right\|$ follows, since $|f(x)| \leq\left\|u_{f}\right\|\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$ and $\left|f\left(u_{f}\right)\right|=\left\|u_{f}\right\|^{2}$.

The terminology defined below will be used in the due course.
Definition 2.2.1 Let $X$ and $Y$ be linear spaces. Then a function $T: X \rightarrow Y$ is called a conjugate linear if

$$
T(x+y)=T(x)+T(y) \quad \text { and } \quad T(\alpha x)=\bar{\alpha} T(x)
$$

for all $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$.
Remark 2.2.1 Let $X$ be a Hilbert space, and for $f \in X^{\prime}$, let $u_{f}$ is the unique element in $X$ obtained as in Riesz representation theorem. Then

$$
\langle f, g\rangle^{\prime}:=\left\langle u_{g}, u_{g}\right\rangle, \quad f, g \in X^{\prime}
$$

defines an inner product on $X^{\prime}$ and $T: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$ defined by

$$
T f=u_{f}, \quad f \in X^{\prime}
$$

is a surjective isometry which is also conjugate linear, i.e., for every $f, g \in X^{\prime}$, and $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$,

$$
T(f+g)=T f+T g \quad \text { and } \quad T(\alpha f)=\bar{\alpha} T f
$$

In view of the above remark, we can identify $X^{\prime}$ with $X$ if $X$ is a Hilbert space.

Often, certain problems in partial differential equations can be converted into the problem of finding a unique $u \in X$ such that

$$
\varphi(u, v)=f(v) \quad \forall v \in X
$$

where $X$ is a Hilbert space, $f$ is a continuous linear functional on $X$, and the function $\varphi: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is such that for each $y \in X$, $x \mapsto \varphi(x, y)$ is linear on $X$ and for each $x \in X, y \mapsto \varphi(x, y)$ is conjugate linear on $X$. Riesz representation theorem (Theorem 2.2.1) and Theorem 2.1.11 can be effectively used in showing the existence of such solutions.

Definition 2.2.2 Let $X$ and $Y$ be inner product spaces. A function $\varphi: X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is said to be a sesquilinear form on an inner product space $X \times Y$ if for each $y \in Y$,

$$
x \mapsto \varphi(x, y)
$$

is a linear functional on $X$ and for each $x \in X$,

$$
y \mapsto \varphi(x, y)
$$

is a conjugate linear on $Y$.
Theorem 2.2.2 Let $X$ be a Hilbert space, $Y$ be an inner product space, and $\varphi: X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ be a sesquilinear form on $X \times Y$. Suppose there exist $\beta$ such that

$$
|\varphi(x, y)| \leq \beta\|x\|\|y\| \quad \forall(x, y) \in X \times Y
$$

Then there exits a unique $B \in \mathcal{B}(Y, X)$ such that

$$
\varphi(x, y)=\langle x, B y\rangle \quad \forall(x, y) \in X \times Y
$$

and in that case $\|B\| \leq \beta$.

Proof. Let $y \in X$. Since $x \mapsto \varphi(x, y)$ is a continuous linear functional on $X$, by Riesz representation theorem, there exists a unique $z_{y} \in X$ such that

$$
\varphi(x, y)=\left\langle x, z_{y}\right\rangle \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Let $B y:=z_{y}, y \in X$. Note that, for every $x \in X$ and $y_{1}, y_{2} \in Y$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle x, B\left(\alpha y_{1}+y_{2}\right)\right\rangle & =\varphi\left(x, \alpha y_{1}+y_{2}\right) \\
& =\bar{\alpha} \varphi\left(x, y_{1}\right)+\varphi\left(x, y_{2}\right) \\
& =\bar{\alpha}\left\langle x, B y_{1}\right\rangle+\left\langle x, B y_{2}\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle x, \alpha B y_{1}+B y_{2}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, $B: Y \rightarrow X$ is a linear operator on $X$. Also, we have

$$
|\langle x, B y\rangle|=|\varphi(x, y)| \leq \beta\|x\|\|y\| \quad \forall x, y \in X
$$

ao that $B \in \mathcal{B}(Y, X)$ and $\|B\| \leq \beta$. It is easy to see that such an operator $B$ is unique.
Theorem 2.2.3 (Lax-Milgram theorem) Let $X$ be a Hilbert space and $\varphi: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ be a sesquilinear form on $X$. Suppose there exist $\beta, \gamma>0$ such that

$$
\begin{gather*}
|\varphi(x, y)| \leq \beta\|x\|\|y\| \quad \forall x, y \in X  \tag{i}\\
|\varphi(x, x)| \geq \gamma\|x\|^{2} \quad \forall x \in X . \tag{ii}
\end{gather*}
$$

Then, for every $f \in X^{\prime}$, there exists a unique $u \in X$ such that

$$
\varphi(x, u)=f(x) \quad \forall x \in X,
$$

and in that case $\|u\| \leq \frac{1}{\gamma}\|f\|$.
Proof. Let us settle the uniqueness issue first: Suppose there exist $u_{1}, u_{2}$ such that

$$
\varphi\left(x, u_{1}\right)=f(x)=\varphi\left(x, u_{2}\right) \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Then, we have

$$
\varphi\left(x, u_{1}-u_{2}\right)=0 \quad \forall x \in X
$$

This implies $\varphi\left(u_{1}-u_{2}, u_{1}-u_{2}\right)=0$, which implies, by condition (ii), $u_{1}-u_{2}=0$.

Now, the rest of the results: By Riesz representation theorem, there exists a unique $v \in X$ be such that

$$
f(x)=\langle x, v\rangle \quad \forall x \in X,
$$

and in that case we also have $\|f\|=\|v\|$.
By Theorem 2.2.2, there exists a unique $B \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ such that

$$
\varphi(x, y)=\langle x, B y\rangle \quad \forall x, y \in X
$$

Note that

$$
|\langle x, B x\rangle|=|\varphi(x, x)| \geq \gamma\|x\|^{2} \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Thus, $B \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ satisfies the assumption in Theorem 2.1.11. Therefore, there exists a unique $u \in X$ such that

$$
B u=v \quad \text { and } \quad\|u\| \leq \frac{1}{\gamma}\|v\|
$$

Thus,

$$
\varphi(x, u)=\langle x, B u\rangle=\langle x, v\rangle=f(x), \quad \forall x \in X
$$

and

$$
\|u\| \leq \frac{1}{\gamma}\|v\|=\frac{1}{\gamma}\|f\|
$$

This completes the proof.

### 2.2.1 Adjoint of an operator

In Theorem 1.5.10 we have seen that if $P$ is an orthogonal projection on an inner product space $X$, then

$$
\langle P x, y\rangle=\langle x, P y\rangle \quad \forall x, y \in X
$$

Definition 2.2.3 A linear operator $A: X \rightarrow X$ on an inner product space $X$ is called a self adjoint operator if

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle x, A y\rangle \quad \forall x, y \in X
$$

Here are a few examples of self adjoint operator.
Example 2.2.2 Let $X=\mathbb{K}^{n}$ with $\|\cdot\|_{2}$ and $A: \mathbb{K}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^{n}$ be the linear operator induced by an $n \times n$ matrix $\left(a_{i j}\right)$ which satisfies

$$
a_{i j}=\bar{a}_{j i} \quad \forall i, j=1, \ldots, n
$$

Then we see that $A$ is a self adjoint operator.

Example 2.2.3 Let $X=\ell^{2}$, and $a_{i j} \in \mathbb{K}$ be such that

$$
\beta:=\sup _{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|<\infty \quad \text { and } \quad \gamma:=\sup _{j \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|<\infty .
$$

We have seen in Example 2.1.5 that

$$
A x=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{i j} x(j)\right) e_{i}
$$

is well defined for each $x \in \ell^{2}, A x \in \ell^{2}, A \in \mathcal{B}\left(\ell^{2}\right)$ and $\|A\| \leq \sqrt{\beta \gamma}$. Suppose, in addition, that

$$
a_{i j}=\bar{a}_{j i} \quad \forall i, j \in \mathbb{N}
$$

Then, using the representation $y=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} y(k) e_{k}$, we can see that

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle x, A y\rangle \quad \forall x, y \in \ell^{2}
$$

Thus, $A$ is a self adjoint operator.
In particular, if $\left(\lambda_{n}\right)$ is a bounded sequence of real numbers, then the operator

$$
x \mapsto\left(\lambda_{1} x(1), \lambda_{2} x(2), \ldots,\right), \quad x \in \ell^{2}
$$

is a self adjoint operator.
Example 2.2.4 Let $k(\cdot, \cdot) \in C([a, b] \times[a, b])$, and for $x \in C[a, b]$, let

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{b} k(s, t) x(t) d t, \quad s \in[a, b]
$$

Let $X=C[a, b]$ with the norm $\|\cdot\|_{2}$. We have seen in Example 2.1.6 that $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|A\| \leq \int_{a}^{b} \int_{a}^{b}|k(s, t)|^{2} d t$. If, in additiion,

$$
k(s, t)=\overline{k(t, s)} \quad \forall s, t \in[a, b]
$$

then we see that

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle x, A y\rangle \quad \forall x, y \in C[a, b]
$$

so that, in this case, $A$ is a self adjoint operator on $X$.

There are plenty of examples of linear operators on inner product spaces which are not self adjoint. However, corresponding to a linear operator $A$ on $X$, one may be able to find an operator $B: X \rightarrow X$ such that

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle x, B y\rangle \quad \forall x, y \in X .
$$

Note that if such an operator $B$ exists, then it is unique.
Definition 2.2.4 Let $X$ and $Y$ be inner product spaces and let $A$ : $X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator. If there is a linear operator $B: Y \rightarrow X$ such that

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle x, B y\rangle \quad \forall x \in X, y \in Y,
$$

then $B$ is called the adjoint of $A$, and it is denoted by $A^{*}$.

- A linear operator $A: X \rightarrow X$ on an inner product space $X$ is self adjoint if and only if $A^{*}$ exists and $A^{*}=A$.

A linear operator between inner product spaces need not have an adjoint as the following examples shows.

Example 2.2.5 Let $X=c_{00}$ be with $\ell^{2}$-inner product and let $A: X \rightarrow X$ be defined by

$$
A x=\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{x(j)}{j}\right) e_{1}, \quad x \in c_{00} .
$$

Then for every $x, y \in c_{00}$, we have

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\overline{y(1)} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{x(j)}{j} .
$$

In particular,

$$
\left\langle A e_{n}, e_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

Assume for a moment that this $A$ has an adjoint, say $B$. Then we have

$$
\frac{1}{n}=\left\langle A e_{n}, e_{1}\right\rangle=\left\langle e_{n}, B e_{1}\right\rangle=\overline{\left(B e_{1}\right)(n)} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

This is a contradiction to the fact that $B e_{1} \in c_{00}$. Thus, we have proved that the operator $A$ does not have an adjoint.

However, every bounded operator between Hilbert spaces does have the adjoint, as the following theorem shows.

Theorem 2.2.4 Let $X$ and $Y$ be Hilbert spaces and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. Then $A^{*}$ exists and $A^{*} \in \mathcal{B}(X)$. Further,

$$
\left\|A^{*}\right\|=\|A\| \quad \text { and } \quad\left\|A^{*} A\right\|=\|A\|^{2} .
$$

Proof. Note that $\varphi: X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ defined by

$$
\varphi(x, y)=\langle A x, y\rangle, \quad(x, y) \in X \times Y
$$

is a sesquilinear functional. Hence, by Theorem 2.2.2, there exists a unique $B \in \mathcal{B}(Y, X)$ such that

$$
\varphi(x, y)=\langle x, B y\rangle, \quad(x, y) \in X \times Y
$$

Thus, $B=A^{*}$. From the relation

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\left\langle x, A^{*} y\right\rangle, \quad(x, y) \in X \times Y,
$$

it follows, using Cauchy Schwarz inequality that $\|A\|=\|B\|$. Further,

$$
\left\|A^{*} A\right\| \leq\left\|A^{*}\right\|\|A\|=\|A\|^{2}
$$

and for every $x \in X$,

$$
\|A x\|^{2}=\langle A x, A x\rangle=\left\langle A^{*} A x, x\right\rangle \leq\left\|A^{*} A x\right\|\|x\| \leq\left\|A^{*} A\right\|\|x\|^{2} .
$$

From this, we obtain,

$$
\|A\|^{2} \leq\left\|A^{*} A\right\| .
$$

Thus, we have proved $\left\|A^{*} A\right\|=\|A\|^{2}$. This completes the proof.
We observe the following facts (Exercise):

1. Let $X$ and $Y$ be Hilbert spaces, and $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$. Then

$$
\left(A^{*}\right)^{*}=A, \quad(A+\alpha B)^{*}=A^{*}+\bar{\alpha} B^{*} .
$$

2. Let $X, Y, Z$ be Hilbert spaces, and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $B \in$ $\mathcal{B}(Y, Z)$. Show that $(B A)^{*}=A^{*} B^{*}$.

Remark 2.2.2 We have seen that adjoint for a linear operator need not exist if the space is an incomplete inner product space.

Can we weaken the requirement in the definition so that an adjoint always exist?

Suppose $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear operator between inner product spaces. Let us consider the set

$$
Y_{0}:=\{y \in Y: \exists z \in X \text { such that }\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle x, z\rangle \forall x \in X\} .
$$

It can be easily seen that $Y_{0}$ is a subspace of $Y$ and for every $y \in Y_{0}$ there exists a unique $z_{y} \in X$ such that

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\left\langle x, z_{y}\right\rangle \quad \forall x \in X .
$$

Thus, we can define $B: Y_{0} \rightarrow X$ by

$$
B y=z_{y}, \quad y \in Y_{0},
$$

and we see that $B: Y_{0} \rightarrow X$ is a linear operator satisfying

$$
\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle x, B y\rangle \quad \forall x \in X, y \in Y_{0} .
$$

The above $B$ may also be called an adjoint of $A$. The problem with this definition is that the the space $Y_{0}$ may be too small or the operator $B$ may be the zero operator. For instance, in Example 2.2.5, we have $e_{1} \notin Y_{0}$ and for $k=2,3, \ldots$,

$$
\left\langle A x, e_{k}\right\rangle=0 \quad \forall x \in X,
$$

so that

$$
Y_{0}=\operatorname{span}\left\{e_{k}: k=2,3, \ldots\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad B y=0 \quad \forall y \in Y_{0} .
$$

### 2.2.2 Self adjoint, normal and unitary operators

Let $X$ be Hilbert space and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. Then we know that
$A$ is self adjoint if and only if $A^{*}=A$.
Definition 2.2.5 Let $X$ be Hilbert space and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. Then $A$ is said to be a
(a) normal operator if $A^{*} A=A A^{*}$,
(c) unitary operator if $A^{*} A=I=A A^{*}$.

Theorem 2.2.5 Let $X$ be a Hilbert space. If $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ is a self adjoint operator, then

$$
\|A\|=\sup \{|\langle A x, x\rangle|: x \in X,\|x\|=1\}
$$

Proof. Let $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ be a self adjoint operator. Clearly,

$$
\gamma:=\sup \{|\langle A x, x\rangle|: x \in X,\|x\|=1\} \leq\|A\| .
$$

Next, let $x \in X$ be such that $\|x\|=1$ and $\|A x\| \neq 0$. It is enough to show that $\|A x\| \leq \gamma$.

First we observe, using the self adjointness of $A$, that for every $y \in X$,

$$
\langle A(x+y),(x+y)\rangle-\langle A(x-y),(x-y)\rangle=4 \operatorname{Re}\langle A x, y\rangle
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Re}\langle A x, y\rangle & =\frac{1}{4}(\langle A(x+y),(x+y)\rangle-\langle A(x-y),(x-y)\rangle) \\
& =\frac{1}{4}(|\langle A(x+y),(x+y)\rangle|+|\langle A(x-y),(x-y)\rangle|) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{4} \gamma\left(\|x+y\|^{2}+\|x-y\|^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\|x+y\|^{2}+\|x-y\|^{2}=2\left(\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2}\right)$, by using parallelogram law, we have

$$
\operatorname{Re}\langle A x, y\rangle \leq \frac{\gamma}{2}\left(\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2}\right)
$$

Now, taking $y=\frac{A x}{\|A x\|}$, we obtain $\|A x\|=\operatorname{Re}\langle A x, y\rangle \leq \gamma$.
The proof of the following corollary is immediate.
Corollary 2.2.6 Let $X$ be a Hilbert space and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ be a self adjoint operator. Then

$$
A=0 \Longleftrightarrow\langle A x, x\rangle=0 \quad \forall x \in X
$$

The above corollary shows that a self adjoint operator $A$ is uniquely determined by its values $\langle A x, x\rangle, x \in X$. Indeed, if $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are self adjoint operators on a Hilbert sapce $X$ such that $\left\langle A_{1} x, x\right\rangle=\left\langle A_{2} x, x\right\rangle$ for all $x \in X$, then

$$
\left\langle\left(A_{1}-A_{2}\right) x, x\right\rangle=0 \quad \forall x \in X
$$

so that by by Corollary $2.2 .6, A_{1}=A_{2}$.

Theorem 2.2.7 Let $X$ be a Hilbert space and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.
(i) $A$ is a normal operator if and only if $\|A x\|=\left\|A^{*} x\right\|$ for every $x \in X$.
(ii) $A$ is a unitary operator if and only if $\|A x\|=\|x\|$ for every $x \in X$ and $A$ is surjective.

Proof. Observe that for $x \in X$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|A x\|^{2} & =\langle A x, A x\rangle=\left\langle x, A^{*} A x\right\rangle \\
\left\|A^{*} x\right\|^{2} & =\left\langle A^{*} x, A^{*} x\right\rangle=\left\langle x, A A^{*} x\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, for $x \in X$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|A x\|=\left\|A^{*} x\right\| & \Longleftrightarrow\left\langle x,\left(A^{*} A-A A^{*}\right) x\right\rangle=0 \\
\|A x\|=\|x\| & \Longleftrightarrow\left\langle x,\left(A^{*} A-I\right) x\right\rangle=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $A^{*} A-A A^{*}$ and $A^{*} A-I$ are self adjoint, by Corollary 2.2.6,
(i) $A^{*} A-A A^{*}=0$ if and only if $\|A x\|=\left\|A^{*} x\right\|$ for every $x \in X$,
(ii) $A^{*} A=I$ if and only if $\|A x\|=\|x\|$ for every $x \in X$.

Note that, if $A^{*} A=I$, then $A$ is injective, and if, in addition, $A$ is surjective, then $A$ is bijective and $A^{*}=A^{-1}$ so that $A$ is unitary. This completes the proof.

### 2.3 The Dual Space of Certain Spaces

We know that if $X$ is a Hilbert space, then its dual can be identified with $X$ by a conjugate linear isometry. Also, we know that for every normed linear space $X$, its dual space $X^{\prime}$ is a Banach space with respect to the norm

$$
\|f\|:=\sup \{|f(x)|:\|x\| \leq 1\}, \quad f \in X^{\prime}
$$

So, in general, we cannot expect that $X$ is linearly isometric with $X^{\prime}$, not even necessary to be homeomorphic with $X^{\prime}$. Of course, if $X$ is finite dimensional, then $X^{\prime}$ is of the same dimension as that of $X$, and $X^{\prime}$ is linearly homeomorphic with $X$.

In the following we give some representations of dual spaces of certain sequence spaces.

### 2.3.1 Dual of some sequence spaces

First, let us consider the sequence space $c_{00}$ with norms $\|\cdot\|_{p}$ for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$.

Theorem 2.3.1 Let $X_{p}=c_{00}$ with $\|\cdot\|_{p}$ for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ and let $q$ be the conjugate exponent of $p$. Then for every $f \in X_{p}^{\prime}$, there exists a unique $u_{f} \in \ell^{q}$ such that

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) \overline{u_{f}(i)} \quad \forall x \in X_{p}
$$

and the map $f \mapsto u_{f}$ is a surjective isometry. In particular, $X_{p}^{\prime}$ is linearly isometric with $\ell^{q}$,

Proof. Let $f \in X_{p}^{\prime}, u:=\left(f\left(e_{1}\right), f\left(e_{2}\right), \ldots\right)$ and $x \in X_{p}$. Since $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ is a basis of $X_{p}$, we have

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) f\left(e_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) u(i)
$$

First we show that $u \in \ell^{q}$ and $\|u\|_{q} \leq\|f\|$.
Note that

$$
|u(i)|=\left|f\left(e_{i}\right)\right| \leq\|f\| \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N}
$$

Hence, $u \in \ell^{\infty}$ and $\|u\|_{\infty} \leq\|f\|$. Thus, for $p=1$, we have $u \in \ell^{q}$ and $\|u\|_{q} \leq\|f\|$, where $q=\infty$. Next, let $1<p \leq \infty$ and for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let

$$
x_{n}(i)= \begin{cases}|u(i)|^{q} / u(i), & u(i) \neq 0, i \leq n \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then, we have $x_{n} \in c_{00}$ and

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}|u(i)|^{q}=\left|f\left(x_{n}\right)\right| \leq\|f\|\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{p}
$$

If $p=\infty$, then $q=1$ and $\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{\infty} \leq 1$ so that in this case, $u \in \ell^{1}$ and $\|u\|_{1} \leq\|f\|$. So, let $1<p<\infty$. Then, using the fact that $p q-p=q$, we have

$$
\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{p}^{p}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|x_{n}(i)\right|^{p}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}|u(i)|^{q} .
$$

Therefore,

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}|u(i)|^{q}=\left|f\left(x_{n}\right)\right| \leq\|f\|\left\|x_{n}\right\|_{p}=\|f\|\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}|u(i)|^{q}\right)^{1 / p}
$$

so that

$$
\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}|u(i)|^{q}\right)^{1 / q} \leq\|f\| ; \quad \text { equivalently, } \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n}|u(i)|^{q} \leq\|f\|^{q} .
$$

Hence, $u \in \ell^{q}$ and $\|u\|_{q} \leq\|f\|$. By Hölder's inequality, we also have

$$
|f(x)| \leq\|x\|_{p}\|u\|_{q} .
$$

Thus, we have proved that $u \in \ell^{q}$ and $\|u\|_{q}=\|f\|$.
For $f \in X_{p}^{\prime}$, let the element $u \in \ell^{q}$ defined above be denoted by $u_{f}$. We have already shown that the function $T: X_{p}^{\prime} \rightarrow \ell^{q}$ defined by $T(f)=u_{f}$ is an isometry. It can be easily seen that it is linear as well. Now, we show that $T$ is onto. For this, let $y \in \ell^{q}$, and let $f: X_{p} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ be defined by

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) y(i), \quad x \in X_{p} .
$$

Then, by Hölder's inequality, $f \in X_{p}^{\prime}$ and $\|f\| \leq\|y\|_{q}$, and $f\left(e_{i}\right)=$ $y(i)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, $y=u_{f}$, i.e., $T(f)=y$.

Next, we show that the dual of $\ell^{p}$ can be identified with $\ell^{q}$ for the case $1 \leq p<\infty$. For this, first we observe the following lemma.

Lemma 2.3.2 Let $X$ be a normed linear space and $X_{0}$ be a dense subspace of $X$. If $f_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is a continuous linear functional, then there exists a unique continuous linear functional $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ such that

$$
f(x)=f_{0}(x) \quad \forall x \in X_{0} \quad \text { and } \quad\|f\|=\left\|f_{0}\right\| .
$$

Proof. Let $f_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ be a continuous linear functional. For $x \in X$, let $\left(x_{n}\right)$ in $X_{0}$ be such that $\left\|x_{n}-x\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, for every $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$
\left|f_{0}\left(x_{n}\right)-f_{0}\left(x_{m}\right)\right| \leq\left\|f_{0}\right\|\left\|x_{n}-x_{m}\right\| .
$$

Hence $\left(f_{0}\left(x_{n}\right)\right)$ is a Cauchy sequence in $\mathbb{K}$. Define

$$
f(x):=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f_{0}\left(x_{n}\right), \quad x \in X
$$

Then, it follows that $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is linear and $f(x)=f_{0}(x)$ for all $x \in X_{0}$. Further,

$$
|f(x)|=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|f_{0}\left(x_{n}\right)\right| \leq\left\|f_{0}\right\| \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|x_{n}\right\|=\left\|f_{0}\right\|\|x\|
$$

Hence, $f \in X^{\prime}$ and $\|f\| \leq\left\|f_{0}\right\|$. Clearly, $\left\|f_{0}\right\| \leq\|f\|$. Thus, existence result is proved. For the uniqueness, suppose, there exists $\tilde{f} \in X^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\tilde{f}(x)=f_{0}(x) \quad \forall x \in X_{0} \quad \text { and } \quad\|\tilde{f}\|=\left\|f_{0}\right\|
$$

Then, for $x \in X$, taking $\left(x_{n}\right)$ in $X_{0}$ such that $\left\|x_{n}-x\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$
\tilde{f}(x)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{f}\left(x_{n}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f_{0}\left(x_{n}\right)=f(x)
$$

Thus, $\tilde{f}=f$.
Theorem 2.3.3 Let $1 \leq p<\infty$. Then, for every $f \in\left(\ell^{p}\right)^{\prime}$, there exists a unique $u_{f} \in \ell^{q}$ such that

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) u_{f}(i) \quad \forall x \in \ell^{p}
$$

and the map $f \mapsto u_{f}$ is a surjective linear isometry from $\left(\ell^{p}\right)^{\prime}$ to $\ell^{q}$.
Proof. For $1 \leq p<\infty$, let $X_{p}=c_{00}$ with the norm $\|\cdot\|_{p}$. Let $f \in\left(\ell^{p}\right)^{\prime}$ and $g: X_{p} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ be defined by

$$
g(x)=f(x) \quad \forall x \in X_{p} .
$$

Note that $g \in X_{p}^{\prime}$. By Theorem 2.3.1, there exists a unique $u \in \ell^{q}$ such that

$$
g(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) u(i) \quad \forall x \in X_{p}
$$

and $\|g\|=\|u\|_{q}$. Since $c_{00}$ is dense in $\ell^{p}$ for $1 \leq p<\infty$ (see Example 1.3.2), by Lemma 2.3.2, $f$ is the unique extension of $g$ such that
$\|f\|=\|g\|$ so that we also have $\|f\|=\|u\|$. Further, for $x \in \ell^{p}$, let $\left(x_{n}\right)$ be in $c_{00}$ such that $\left\|x-x_{n}\right\|_{p} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, we have

$$
f(x)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f\left(x_{n}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} g\left(x_{n}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x(i) u(i)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) u(i) .
$$

Clearly, $f\left(e_{i}\right)=u(i)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. From this, uniqueness of $u$ also follows. To see the surjectivity of the map $f \mapsto u_{f}:=u$, let $y \in \ell^{q}$. Define $f: \ell^{p} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ by

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) y(i) \quad \forall x \in \ell^{p} .
$$

Then, by Hölder's inequality, $f \in\left(\ell^{p}\right)^{\prime}$. By the argument as in the beginning of this proof, we see that $\|f\|=\|y\|_{q}$ and $u_{f}=y$. This completes the proof.

Theorem 2.3.4 Let $X=c_{0}$ with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$. Then, for every $f \in X^{\prime}$, there exists a unique $u_{f} \in \ell^{1}$ such that

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x(i) u_{f}(i) \quad \forall x \in c_{0},
$$

and the map $f \mapsto u_{f}$ is a surjective linear isometry from $X^{\prime}$ to $\ell^{1}$.
Proof. We observe that $c_{00}$ is dense in $c_{0}$ with respect to the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$. Hence, the proof follows using the arguments as in the proof of Theorem 2.3.3 by replacing $\ell^{p}$ by $X$ and $\ell^{q}$ by $\ell^{1}$.

Remark 2.3.1 It can also be shown that the dual of $c$ (the space of convergent scalar sequences with respect to the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ ) is linearly isometric with $\ell^{1}$ (cf. Nair [5]).

### 2.3.2 Dual of some function spaces

Now, we consider dual of the space $C[a, b]$ with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ and of the space $L^{p}[a, b]$ for $1 \leq p<\infty$. We shall state the main theorems without proofs. Interested readers may see the proofs in Nair [5]. However, we provide here all necessary details required for their statements.

Recall from Remark 1.3.2 that $L^{p}[a, b]$ for $1 \leq p<\infty$ is the linear space of all measurable functions $x:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ such that $\int_{a}^{b}|x(t)|^{p} d m(t)<\infty$, where $m(\cdot)$ is the Lebesgue measure on $[a, b]$.

The set $L^{\infty}[a, b]$ is the set of all essentially bounded functions on $[a, b]$, that is, $x:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ belongs to $L^{\infty}[a, b]$ if and only if it is measurable and there exists $M>0$ such that $|x(t)| \leq M$ for almost all (a.a) $t \in[a, b]$. In fact, we do not distinguish functions in $L^{p}[a, b]$ which are equal almost every where on $[a, b]$. Thus, for functions $x, y \in L^{p}[a, b]$, we write

$$
x=y \Longleftrightarrow x(t)=y(t) \quad \text { a.a. } t \in[a, b] .
$$

For $x \in L^{p}[a, b]$ with $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, let

$$
\|x\|_{p}:=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left(\int_{a}^{b}|x|^{p} d \mu\right)^{1 / p}, \quad 1 \leq p<\infty, \\
\inf \{M>0:|x(t)| \leq M \text { a.a. } t \in[a, b]\}, \quad p=\infty .
\end{array}\right.
$$

It is known (cf. Nair [5] or Rudin [10]) that

- $L^{p}[a, b]$ is a linear space and
- the map $x \mapsto\|x\|_{p}$ is a complete norm on $L^{p}[a, b]$.

Definition 2.3.1 A function $v:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is said to be a function of bounded variation on $[a, b]$ if there exists $M>0$ such that for every partition $a=t_{0}<t_{1}<\ldots<t_{n}=b$ of $[a, b]$, we have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|v\left(t_{i}\right)-v\left(t_{i-1}\right)\right| \leq M
$$

- The set $B V[a, b]$ of all functions of bounded variation on $[a, b]$ is a linear space,
- The function $v \mapsto\|v\|:=|v(a)|+\sup \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|v\left(t_{i}\right)-v\left(t_{i-1}\right)\right|$ is a norm on $B V[a, b]$, where the supremum is taken over all partitions of $[a, b]$, and
- $B V[a, b]$ is a Banach space with respect to the above norm.

Further, it is known (See Royden [8]) that every real valued function of bounded variation is a difference of two monotonically increasing functions. Thus, we can define Riemann-Stieltjes integral of a continuous function with respect to a function in $B V[a, b]$ in a natural way.

Definition 2.3.2 A function $v \in B V[a, b]$ is said to be a normalized function of bounded variation if $v(a)=0$ and if it is right continuous at every point in $[a, b]$, i.e., for every $t \in[a, b], \lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0} v(t+\delta)$ exists and it is equal to $v(t)$.

- The set $N B V[a, b]$ of all normalized functions of bounded variation on $[a, b]$ is a closed subspace of $B V[a, b]$.

Thus, $N B V[a, b]$ is a Banach space with respect to the norm

$$
v \mapsto\|v\|:=\sup \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|v\left(t_{i}\right)-v\left(t_{i-1}\right)\right| .
$$

Now, we can state the main theorems of this subsection.
Theorem 2.3.5 For each $y \in N B V[a, b]$, let

$$
f_{y}(x):=\int_{a}^{b} x(t) d y(t), \quad x \in C[a, b] .
$$

Then $f_{y}$ is a continuous linear functional on $C[a, b]$ (with respect to $\left.\|\cdot\|_{\infty}\right)$ ) and $y \mapsto f_{y}$ is a surjective linear isometry from NBV[a,b] onto the dual of $C[a, b]$.

Theorem 2.3.6 Let $1 \leq p<\infty$ and $q>0$ be the conugate exponent of $p$. For each $y \in L^{q}[a, b]$, let

$$
f_{y}(x):=\int_{a}^{b} x(t) y(t) d m(t), \quad x \in L^{p}[a, b] .
$$

Then $f_{y}$ is a continuous linear functional on $L^{p}[a, b]$ and the the map $y \mapsto f_{y}$ is a surjective linear isometry from $L^{q}[a, b]$ onto the dual of $L^{p}[a, b]$.

### 2.4 Compact Operators

Definition 2.4.1 Let $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator between normed linear spaces $X$ and $Y$. We say that $A$ is a finite rank operator if

$$
\operatorname{dim} R(A)<\infty .
$$

A linear operator $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be of infinite rank if it is not of finite rank.

If $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is of finite rank, then we write

$$
\operatorname{rank}(A)=\operatorname{dim} R(A)
$$

Finite rank operators appear naturally in applications in the form of approximation of operators of infinite rank.

Let us illustrate the approximation procedure by one example.
Example 2.4.1 Let $X$ and $Y$ be Hilbert spaces, $\left(u_{n}\right)$ and $\left(v_{n}\right)$ be orthonormal sets in $X$ and $Y$, respectively, and let $\left(\mu_{n}\right)$ be a bounded sequence of scalars. Define $A: X \rightarrow Y$ by

$$
A x=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu_{j}\left\langle x, u_{j}\right\rangle v_{j}, \quad x \in X
$$

We have seen in Example 2.1.9 that $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|A\|=\sup _{j \in \mathbb{N}}\left|\mu_{j}\right|$. Now, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $A_{n}: X \rightarrow Y$ be defined by

$$
A_{n} x=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{j}\left\langle x, u_{j}\right\rangle v_{j}, \quad x \in X
$$

Then we have

$$
\left\|\left(A-A_{n}\right) x\right\|^{2}=\sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty}\left|\mu_{j}\right|^{2}\left|\left\langle x, u_{n}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \leq \max _{j>n}\left|\mu_{j}\right|^{2}\|x\|^{2} \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Hence,

$$
\left\|A-A_{n}\right\| \leq \max _{j>n}\left|\mu_{j}\right|
$$

so that if $\mu_{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we obtain $\left\|A-A_{n}\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Note that $A$ is an infinite rank operator, whereas $\operatorname{rank}\left(A_{n}\right) \leq n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Remark 2.4.1 Example 2.4 .1 shows that the limit of a sequence of finite rank operators in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ need not be of finite rank.

One of the important property of a finite rank operator is that image of the closed unit ball is relatively compact. This property is shared by a large class of operators. Recall from real analysis that a subset of a metric space is said to be relatively compat if its closure is compact.

Definition 2.4.2 Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed linear spaces. Then a linear operator $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be a compact operator if $\{A x:\|x\| \leq 1\}$ is relatively compact.

Notation 2.4.1 We denote the set of all compact operators from $X$ to $Y$ by $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$, and also we denote $\mathcal{K}(X, X)$ by $\mathcal{K}(X)$

Clearly,

$$
\mathcal{K}(X, Y) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(X, Y)
$$

Theorem 2.4.1 The following hold.
(ii) Every bounded finite rank operator is compact.
(iii) The identity operator on a normed linear space is compact if and only if the space is finite dimensional.

Proof. Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed linear spaces.
(i) Let $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a bounded operator of finite rank. Then cl $\{A x:\|x\| \leq 1\}$ is a closed and bounded subset of the finite dimensional space $Y_{0}:=R(A)$, so that $\mathrm{cl}\{A x:\|x\| \leq 1\}$ is compact in $Y_{0}$, and hence compact in $Y$ as well.
(ii) This follows from the fact that the closed unit ball $\{x \in X$ : $\|x\| \leq 1\}$ is compact if and only if the space $X$ is finite dimensional (cf. Theorem 1.3.7).

The following proposition is a consequence of the fact that a subset $S$ of a metric space $\Omega$ is compact if and only if every sequence in $S$ has a subsequence which converges in $S$.

Proposition 2.4.2 Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed linear spaces. A linear operator $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is compact if and only if for every bounded sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)$ in $X$, the sequence $\left(A x_{n}\right)$ has a convergent subsequence.

Theorem 2.4.3 Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed linear spaces.
(i) $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.
(i) If $Y$ is a Banach space, then $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ is closed in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

Proof. (i) Let $A$ and $B$ be in $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$. Let $\left(x_{n}\right)$ be a bounded sequence in $X$. In view of Proposition 2.4.2, it is enough to show that the sequence $\left((A+\alpha B) x_{n}\right)$ has a convergent subsequence. Since $A$ and $B$ are compact, by Proposition 2.4.2, there exists a
subsequence $\left(x_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ for $\left(x_{n}\right)$ and a subsequence $\left(x_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for $\left(x_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ such that $\left(A x_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(B x_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ converge, say to $y$ and $z$ respectively. Hence,

$$
A x_{n}^{\prime \prime}+\alpha B x_{n}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow z+\alpha z \quad \text { as } \quad n \rightarrow \infty
$$

(ii) Suppose $Y$ be a Banach space. Let $\left(A_{n}\right)$ be a sequence in $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ such that $\left\|A_{n}-A\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for some $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. We have to show that $A \in \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$. Again, let $\left(x_{n}\right)$ be a bounded sequence in $X$, say $\left\|x_{n}\right\| \leq c$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In view of Proposition 2.4.2, it is enough to show that the sequence $\left(A x_{n}\right)$ has a convergent subsequence. Since $Y$ is complete, it enough to show that $\left(A x_{n}\right)$ has a Cauchy subsequence.

Since each $A_{k}$ is compact, there exists a subsequence $\left(x_{n}^{(k)}\right)$ for $\left(x_{n}\right)$ such that $\left(A_{k} x_{n}^{(k)}\right)$ converges. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\left(x_{n}^{(k+1)}\right)$ is a subsequence of $\left(x_{n}^{(k)}\right)$ for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Note that, for each $k \in \mathbb{N},\left(x_{k+n}^{(k+n)}\right)$ is a subsequence of $\left(x_{k+n}^{(k)}\right)$. Hence, $\left(A_{k} x_{n}^{(n)}\right)$ converges for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Now, let $\varepsilon>0$ and let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $\left\|A-A_{k}\right\|<\varepsilon$. Corresponding to this $k$, let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that

$$
\left\|A_{k} x_{n}^{(n)}-A_{k} x_{m}^{(m)}\right\|<\varepsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N
$$

Then, for all $n, m \geq N$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|A x_{n}^{(n)}-A x_{m}^{(m)}\right\| \leq & \left\|\left(A-A_{k}\right) x_{n}^{(n)}\right\|+\|\left(A_{k} x_{n}^{(n)}-A_{k} x_{m}^{(m)} \|\right. \\
& +\left\|\left(A_{k}-A\right) x_{n}^{(n)}\right\| \\
\leq & c \varepsilon+\varepsilon+c \varepsilon \\
= & (2 c+1) \varepsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $\left(A x_{n}^{(n)}\right)$ is a Cauchy subsequence of $\left(A x_{n}\right)$.

Remark 2.4.2 We shall see in Chapter 4 that if $X$ and $Y$ are Hilbert spaces, then every operator in $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ can be approximated by a sequence of finite rank operators in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

### 2.4.1 Examples of compact operators

Example 2.4.2 By Theorem 2.4.3 the operator $A$ in Example 2.4.1 is a compact operator.

Example 2.4.3 Let $\left(\lambda_{n}\right)$ be a sequence of scalars which converges to 0 , and $A: \ell^{p} \rightarrow \ell^{p}$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(i)=\lambda_{i} x(i), \quad i \in \mathbb{N}
$$

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $A_{n}: \ell^{p} \rightarrow \ell^{p}$ be defined by

$$
\left(A_{n} x\right)(i)= \begin{cases}\lambda_{i} x(i), & i \leq n \\ 0, & i>n\end{cases}
$$

Then we see that

$$
\left\|\left(A-A_{n}\right) x\right\|_{p} \leq \sup _{j>n}\left|\lambda_{j}\right|\|x\|_{p} \quad \forall x \in \ell^{p}
$$

so that

$$
\left\|A-A_{n}\right\| \leq \sup _{j>n}\left|\lambda_{j}\right| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } \quad n \rightarrow \infty
$$

Note that each $A_{n}$ is a finite rank bounded operator so that $A_{n}$ is a compact operator, and hence by Theorem 2.4.3, $A$ is a compact operator.

Note that, for $p=2$, this example is a particular case of Example 2.4.2.

For the next few examples we shall make use of Arzela-Ascoli theorem.

Theorem 2.4.4 (Arzela-Ascoli theorem) A subset $\mathcal{S}$ of $C[a, b]$ is relatively compact if and only if $S$ is pointwise bounded and equicontinuous.

In stating the above theorem we used the following definitions: Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a set of $\mathbb{K}$-valued functions defined on metric space $\Omega$.

1. $\mathcal{S}$ is pointwise bounded if for each $t \in \Omega$, there exists $M_{t}>0$ such that

$$
|f(t)| \leq M_{t} \quad \forall f \in S
$$

2. $\mathcal{S}$ is equi-continuous if for every $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $\delta>0$ such that

$$
s, t \in \Omega,|s-t|<\delta \Longrightarrow|f(s)-f(t)|<\varepsilon \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{S}
$$

Example 2.4.4 (i) For $x \in C[a, b]$, define

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{s} x(t) d t
$$

We have already seen that $A: C[a, b] \rightarrow C[a, b]$ is a bounded linear operator with respect to the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$. Further, since

$$
|(A x)(s)-(A x)(\tau)| \leq \int_{\tau}^{s}|x(t)| d t \leq\|x\|_{\infty}|s-\tau|
$$

for every $x \in C[a, b]$ and for every $s, \tau \in[a, b]$, it follows that the set

$$
S:=\left\{A x:\|x\|_{\infty} \leq 1\right\}
$$

is bounded and equi-continuous in $C[a, b]$. Hence, by Arzela-Ascoli's theorem, $S$ is relatively compact. Hence $A$ is a compact operator.
(ii) Let $X=L^{2}[a, b]$ and

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{s} x(t) d t, \quad x \in L^{2}[a, b]
$$

Note that, for $s, \tau \in[a, b]$ with $s, \tau$, and $x \in L^{2}[a, b]$, we have, $A x \in$ $C[a, b]$ and

$$
|(A x)(s)-(A x)(\tau)| \leq \int_{s}^{\tau}|x(t)| d t \leq(\tau-s)^{1 / 2}\|x\|_{2}
$$

Hence, it follows that

$$
S:=\left\{A x:\|x\|_{2} \leq 1\right\}
$$

is bounded and equi-continuous in $C[a, b]$, and hence, by ArzelaAscoli's theorem, it is relatively compact in $C[a, b]$ with respect to $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$. Therefore, using the fact that

$$
\|y\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{b-a}\|y\|_{\infty} \quad \forall y \in C[a, b]
$$

$S$ is relatively compact in $L^{2}[a, b]$. Thus, $A: L^{2}[a, b] \rightarrow L^{2}[a, b]$ is a compact operator.

Example 2.4.5 Let $k(\cdot, \cdot)$ be a continuous function defined on $[a, b] \times[c, d]$. For $x \in L^{1}[a, b]$, let

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{b} k(s, t) x(t) d \mu(t), \quad s \in[c, d]
$$

It can seen easily that $A x \in C[c, d]$ for all $x \in L^{1}[a, b]$. We show that $A: L^{1}[a, b] \rightarrow C[c, d]$ is a compact operator with respect to the norms $\|\cdot\|_{1}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ on $L^{1}[a, b]$ and $C[c, d]$ respectively.

Observe that for $x \in L^{1}[a, b]$ and $s, \tau \in[c, d]$,

$$
(A x)(s)-(A x)(\tau)=\int_{a}^{b}[k(s, t)-k(\tau, t)] x(t) d \mu(t)
$$

so that

$$
|(A x)(s)-(A x)(\tau)| \leq\left(\sup _{t \in[a, b]}|k(s, t)-k(\tau, t)|\right)\|x\|_{1} .
$$

From this, it follows that $A x \in C[c, d]$ for every $x \in C[c, d]$ and

$$
\left\{A x: x \in L^{1}[a, b],\|x\|_{1} \leq 1\right\}
$$

is bounded and equi-continuous in $C[c, d]$. Therefore, the operator $A: L^{1}[a, b] \rightarrow C[c, d]$ is compact with respect to the norms $\|\cdot\|_{1}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ on $L^{1}[a, b]$ and $C[c, d]$ respectively.

### 2.4.2 Examples of non-compact operators

Example 2.4.6 (i) Consider the right-shift operator

$$
A:\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots\right) \mapsto\left(0, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots\right)
$$

from $\ell^{p}$ to $\ell^{r}$, where $p, r \in[1, \infty]$.
Note that the sequence $\left(e_{n}\right)$, where $e_{n}=\left(\delta_{1 n}, \delta_{2 n}, \ldots\right)$, is bounded in $\ell^{p}$, but its image $\left(A e_{n}\right)$ does not have a convergent subsequence. Indeed, for $n \neq m$,

$$
\left\|A e_{n}-A e_{m}\right\|_{r}=\left\|e_{n+1}-e_{m+1}\right\|_{r}= \begin{cases}1, & r=\infty \\ 2^{1 / r}, & r \neq \infty .\end{cases}
$$

Thus, $A$ is not a compact operator.
(ii) Following the arguments as in (i) above, it can be seen that the left-shift operator

$$
A:\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots\right) \mapsto\left(\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}, \ldots\right)
$$

from $\ell^{p}$ to $\ell^{r}$, where $p, r \in[1, \infty]$, is not a compact operator.

Example 2.4.7 Let $\left(\lambda_{n}\right)$ be a sequence of scalars which converges to a nonzero scalar $\lambda$, and $A: \ell^{p} \rightarrow \ell^{p}$ be defined as in Example 2.4.3, i.e.,

$$
(A x)(i)=\lambda_{i} x(i), \quad i \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

Note that, $A e_{n}=\lambda_{n} e_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ so that for $n \neq m$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|A e_{n}-A e_{m}\right\|_{p} & =\left\|\lambda_{n} e_{n}-\lambda_{m} e_{m}\right\|_{p} \\
& \geq\left\|\lambda_{n}\left(e_{n}-e_{m}\right)\right\|_{p}-\left\|\left(\lambda_{n}-\lambda_{m}\right) e_{m}\right\|_{p} \\
& =c_{p}\left|\lambda_{n}\right|-\left|\lambda_{n}-\lambda_{m}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
c_{p}:= \begin{cases}1, & p=\infty \\ 2^{1 / p}, & p \neq \infty .\end{cases}
$$

Since $\lambda_{n} \rightarrow \lambda \neq 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
\left|\lambda_{n}\right| \geq|\lambda| / 2 \quad \text { and } \quad\left|\lambda_{n}-\lambda_{m}\right|<c_{p}|\lambda| / 4 \quad \forall n, m \geq N .
$$

Then we have

$$
\left\|A e_{n}-A e_{m}\right\|_{p} \geq c_{p}|\lambda| / 4 \quad \forall n, m \geq N
$$

so that $\left(A e_{n}\right)$ does not have a convergent subsequence. Consequently, $A$ is not a compact operator.

### 2.5 Problems

1. Let $X, Y$ be normed linear spaces and $A: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator. Then show that the following are equivalent:
(a) $A$ is continuous
(b) For every bounded subset $S$ of $X$, the set $A(S)$ is bounded in $Y$.
(c) The set $\{\|A x\|:\|x\|<1\}$ is bounded.
2. Prove that for $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, the quantities

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha_{A} & :=\sup \{\|A x\|:\|x\| \leq 1\}, \\
\beta_{A} & :=\sup \{\|A x\|:\|x\|=1\}, \\
\gamma_{A} & :=\sup \left\{\frac{\|A x\|}{\|x\|}: x \neq 0\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

are finite and are equal to $\|A\|$.
3. If $T: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear operator such that there exists $c>0$ and $x_{0} \neq 0$ in $X$ satisfying $\|T x\| \leq c\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$ and $\left\|T x_{0}\right\|=c\left\|x_{0}\right\|$, then show that $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $\|T\|=c$.
4. Let $X$ be an inner product space and $u \in X$. Prove that, for every $u \in X, f_{u}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ defined by $f_{u}(x)=\langle x, u\rangle, x \in X$, belongs to $X^{\prime}$ and $\left\|f_{u}\right\|=\|u\|$.
5. Let $X_{p}=c_{00}$ be with $p$-norm for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ and $A: X \rightarrow X$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(j)=j x(j), \quad x \in c_{00} .
$$

Show that $A$ is an unbounded linear operator.
6. For $1 \leq p<\infty$, let $X=\left\{x \in \ell^{p}: \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j^{p}|x(j)|^{p}<\infty\right\}$ with $\|\cdot\|_{p}$ and $A: X \rightarrow \ell^{p}$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(j)=j x(j), \quad x \in X .
$$

Show that $A$ is an unbounded linear operator.
7. Let $k(\cdot, \cdot) \in C([a, b] \times[a, b])$. For $x \in C[a, b]$, let

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{b} k(s, t) x(t) d t, \quad s \in[a, b] .
$$

For $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, if $X_{p}:=C[a, b]$ with $\|\cdot\|_{p}$, then prove that $A \in \mathcal{B}\left(X_{p}, X_{r}\right)$ for any $p, r \in[1, \infty]$. Also, find an estimate for $\|A\|$ for each $p, r \in[1, \infty]$.
8. Let $X=\mathbb{K}^{n}$ and $Y=\mathbb{K}^{m}$ be with $\|\cdot\|_{1}$ and let $\left(a_{i j}\right)$ be an $m \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb{K}$. For $x \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$, let $A x$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i j} x(j), \quad i=1, \ldots, m .
$$

Show that $\|A\|=\max _{1 \leq j \leq n} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left|a_{i j}\right|$.
9. Let $X=\mathbb{K}^{n}$ and $Y=\mathbb{K}^{m}$ be with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ and let $\left(a_{i j}\right)$ be an $m \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb{K}$. For $x \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$, let $A x$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i j} x(j) \quad i=1, \ldots, m .
$$

Show that $\|A\|=\max _{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^{m}\left|a_{i j}\right|$.
10. Let $X=\ell^{1}$ and let $\left(a_{i j}\right)$ be an infinite matrix of scalars such that $\alpha_{0}:=\sup _{j \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|<\infty$. For $x \in \ell^{1}$, let $A x$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{i j} x(j), \quad i \in \mathbb{N}
$$

Show that $A \in \mathcal{B}\left(\ell^{1}\right)$ and $\|A\|=\alpha_{0}$.
11. Let $X=\ell^{\infty}$ and let $\left(a_{i j}\right)$ be an infinite matrix of scalars such that $\beta_{0}:=\sup _{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left|a_{i j}\right|<\infty$. For $x \in \ell^{\infty}$, let $A x$ be defined by

$$
(A x)(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{i j} x(j), \quad i \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

Show that $A \in \mathcal{B}\left(\ell^{\infty}\right)$ and $\|A\|=\beta_{0}$.
12. Let $\left(\lambda_{n}\right)$ be a bounded sequence of scalars, and for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, let

$$
A x=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{n} x(n) e_{n}, \quad x \in \ell^{p}
$$

Show that $A \in \mathcal{B}\left(\ell^{p}\right)$ and $\|A\|=\sup \left|\lambda_{n}\right|$.
13. Show that for every $f \in\left(\ell^{2}\right)^{\prime}$, there exists a unique $y \in \ell^{2}$ such that $f(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x(j) y(j)$ for all $x \in \ell^{2}$.
14. Let $X$ and $Y$ be inner product spaces, and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. Prove that
(a) $\|x\|=\sup \{|\langle x, u\rangle|: u \in X,\|u\|=1\}$,
(b) $\|A\|=\sup \{\mid\langle A x, y\rangle: x \in X, y \in Y,\|x\|=1=\|y\|\}$.
15. Let $C[a, b]$ with $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$. Prove that the inclusion operators
(a) from $C[a, b] \rightarrow L^{p}[a, b]$ for any $p \in[1, \infty]$,
(b) from $L^{p}[a, b] \rightarrow L^{r}[a, b]$ for any $p, r \in[1, \infty]$ with $p \geq r$ are bounded operators.
16. Let $X$ be a Hilbert space and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ be such that there exist $\gamma>0$ satisfying

$$
|\langle A x, x\rangle| \geq \gamma\|x\|^{2} \quad \forall x \in X
$$

Prove that $R(A)$ is closed and $R(A)^{\perp}=\{0\}$.
17. Let $X$ be a Hilbert space and for $f \in X^{\prime}$, let $u_{f} \in X$ be the unique element obtained as in Riesz representation theorem. For $f, g$ in $X^{\prime}$, let $\langle f, g\rangle^{\prime}=\left\langle u_{g}, u_{f}\right\rangle$. Prove the following.
(a) $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle^{\prime}$ is an inner product on $X^{\prime}$,
(b) $X^{\prime}$ is a Hilbert space with respect to the inner product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle^{\prime}$.
18. Prove the following
(a) Let $X$ and $Y$ be Hilbert spaces, and $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$. Then

$$
\left(A^{*}\right)^{*}=A, \quad(A+\alpha B)^{*}=A^{*}+\bar{\alpha} B^{*} .
$$

(b) Let $X, Y, Z$ be Hilbert spaces, and $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $B \in$ $\mathcal{B}(Y, Z)$. Show that $(B A)^{*}=A^{*} B^{*}$.
19. Let $X_{0}$ be a dense subspace of a normed linear space $X$. Prove that $X_{0}^{\prime}$ and $X^{\prime}$ are linearly isometric.
20. Prove Proposition 2.4.2.
21. Let $A$ be as in Example 2.4.1. Prove that, if $A$ is a compact operator, then 0 is the only limit point of $\left\{\mu_{n}: n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$.
22. Let $k(\cdot, \cdot) \in C([a, b] \times[a, b])$ and let

$$
(A x)(s)=\int_{a}^{b} k(s, t) x(t) d t, \quad x \in L^{1}[a, b] .
$$

Prove that $A$ as an operator
(a) from $L^{p}[a, b] \rightarrow C[a, b]$ for any $p \in[1, \infty]$,
(b) from $C[a, b] \rightarrow L^{p}[a, b]$ for any $p \in[1, \infty]$,
(c) from $L^{p}[a, b] \rightarrow L^{r}[a, b]$ for any $p, r \in[1, \infty]$ with $p \geq r$,
is a compact bounded operator.
(Hint: Use the fact that $A: L^{1}[a, b] \rightarrow C[a, b]$ is a compact operator and Problem 15.)
23. Prove that a projection operator on a Banach space is compact if and only it is finite rank.

