# Classes of Operators on Hilbert Spaces Extended Lecture Notes

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### **1** Basic Definitions and Examples

We shall continue to denote by B(H) the set of all bounded operators acting on a complex Hilbert space H. For  $T \in B(H)$  let  $R(T) = \overline{T(H)}$ . I will denote the identity operator acting on H.

Algebraic properties inside B(H) endowed with the \* operation lead to striking analytic spectral properties.

numbers	functions	operators
complex, $z\overline{z} = \overline{z}z$	complex	normal, $T^*T = TT^*$ .
real, $z = \overline{z}$	real	self-adjoint, $T = T^*$ .
positive, $z\overline{z}$	positive	positive, $T^*T$
complex unit	into unit circle	unitary, $T^*T = TT^* = I$
$\{0, 1\}$	indicator function	projection, $T = T^2 = T^*$

Recall that there is a bijection between bounded operators on H and bounded conjugate linear bilinear forms on H given by

$$T \in B(H) \to B_T$$
, where  $B_T(x, y) = (Tx, y)$   $x, y \in H$ .

In fact, there is a bijection between operators acting on H and quadratic forms on H given by the assignment

$$T \in B(H) \to Q_T$$
, where  $Q_T(x) = (Tx, x)$   $x \in H$ .

This is the content of the following proposition.

**1.1. Proposition.** For  $T_1, T_2 \in B(H)$  we have that  $Q_{T_1} = Q_{T_2}$  if, and only if,  $T_1 = T_2$ .

Proof: Polarization identity for  $T \in B(H)$  gives us

$$(Tx,y) = (T(x+y), x+y) - (T(x-y), x-y) +i(T(x+iy), x+iy) - i(T(x-iy), x-iy).$$

Consequently,  $(T_1x, x) = (T_2x, x)$  for all  $x \in H$  implies that  $B_{T_1} = B_{T_2}$  and so  $T_1 = T_2$ .

- **1.2. Definition.** An operator  $T \in B(H)$  is called
  - (i) normal if  $TT^* = T^*T$ .
  - (ii) self-adjoint if  $T = T^*$ .
- (iii) positive if  $(Tx, x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in H$ .
- (iv) unitary if  $T^*T = TT^* = I$
- (v) projection if  $T = T^2 = T^*$ .

**1.3. Proposition.** Let  $T \in B(H)$ . Then

- (i) T is normal if, and only if,  $||Tx|| = ||T^*x||$  for all  $x \in H$ .
- (ii) T is self-adjoint if, and only if, (Tx, x) is real for all  $x \in H$ .
- (iii) T is unitary if, and only if, T is an inner product preserving surjection.

Proof: (i) For all  $x \in H$  we have

$$(T^*Tx, x) - (TT^*x, x) = (Tx, Tx) - (T^*x, T^*x) = ||Tx||^2 - ||T^*x||^2$$

This, together with Proposition 1.1, implies (i). (ii) For all  $x \in H$  we have

$$(Tx, x) - (T^*x, x) = (Tx, x) - (x, Tx) = 2i \Im(Tx, x).$$

It means that  $T = T^*$  if, and only if, (Tx, x) is real for all  $x \in H$ . (iii) If T is unitary, then, for  $x, y \in H$ ,

$$(Tx, Ty) = (x, T^*Tx) = (x, x).$$

If  $x \in R(T)^{\perp}$ , then

$$0 = (TT^*x, x) = (x, x)$$

and so x = 0. Hence, T is a surjection which preserves the inner product. On the other hand, if T is an inner product preserving surjection, then T has an inverse and

$$(T^*Tx, x) = (Tx, Tx) = (x, x),$$

which implies that  $T^{-1} = T^*$  and so  $T^*T = TT^* = I$ .

**1.4. Example.** (Discrete diagonal) Let H be a Hilbert space with orthonormal basis  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . Let  $g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{C}$  be a bounded function. Define

$$Tx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g(n) (x, e_n) e_n$$

(This is a diagonal operator uniquely given by  $Te_n = g(n) e_n$ .) Let us observe that

$$||T|| = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |g(n)|.$$

As  $(Te_n, e_n) = (e_n, \overline{g(n)}e_n)$  we see that

$$T^*x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{g(n)} (x, e_n) e_n$$

for all  $x \in H$ . All diagonal operators are normal. In a certain sense the converse holds - see below.

• T is self-adjoint  $\iff g(n) = \overline{g(n)}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  (g is real).

• T is positive  $\iff (Tx, x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \iff \sum_n g(n) |(x, e_n)|^2 \ge 0$  for all  $x \in H$ . But this is equivalent to  $g(n) \ge 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

• T is unitary  $\iff T^*T = TT^* = I$ . But  $T^*Tx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{g(n)}g(n)(x, e_n) e_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |g(n)|^2 (x, e_n)e_n$ . In other words, T is unitary  $\iff |g(n)| = 1$  for all n.

Now we shall deal with a generalization of this example to cover also operators with continuous spectrum.

**1.5. Example.** Let  $(X, \mu)$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite measure space. For a measurable function, f, on X define

$$||f||_{\infty} = \inf\{K \ge 0 \mid |f(x)| \le K \text{ for a.a. } x \in X\}$$
$$= \sup\{L \ge 0 \mid |f| > L \text{ on some set of nonzero measure}\}$$

 $L^{\infty}(X,\mu)$  ... space of all measurable function with finite  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ . Put  $H = L^{2}(X,\mu)$  and fix  $f \in L^{\infty}(X,\mu)$ .

Define multiplication operator  $M_f$  acting on H by

$$M_f(g) = f g$$
,  $g \in L^2(X, \mu)$ .

Observe that

$$\int_X |M_f g(x)|^2 d\mu(x) = \int_X |f(x)|^2 |g(x)|^2 d\mu(x) \le ||f||_\infty^2 ||g||^2.$$

It implies  $||M_f|| \leq ||f||_{\infty}$ .

On the other hand, if  $0 < \alpha < ||f||_{\infty}$ , then  $\mu\{x \mid |f(x)| > \alpha\} > 0$  and so there is a set  $Y \subset \{x \mid |f(x)| > \alpha\}$  of finite nonzero measure. Then, for the characteristic function  $\chi_Y$ , of the set Y

$$||M_f(\chi_Y)||^2 = \int_Y |f(x)|^2 d\mu(x) > \alpha^2 \mu(Y) = \alpha^2 ||\chi_Y||^2.$$

Therefore,  $||M_f|| \ge \alpha$ . In summary,

$$\|M_f\| = \|f_\infty\|.$$

We have  $M_f^* = M_{\overline{f}}$  and so  $M_f^* M_f = M_f M_f^* = M_{|f|^2}$ . Notably,  $M_f$  is normal.

Deep spectral theorem says that all normal operators arise in this way !

•  $M_f$  is self-adjoint  $\iff f$  is real:

$$||M_f - M_f^*|| = ||M_{f-\bar{f}}|| = ||f - \bar{f}||_{\infty}.$$

•  $M_f$  is positive  $\iff f \ge 0$  a.e. :

$$(M_f g, g) = \int_X f(x) |g(x)|^2 d\mu(x),$$

and so  $M_f$  is positive if, and only if,  $\int_Y f(x)d\mu(x) \ge 0$  for each measurable set Y, which is equivalent to  $f \ge 0$  a.e.

•  $M_f$  is unitary  $\iff |f| = 1$  a.e. :

$$||I - M_f M_f^*|| = ||M_{(1-|f|^2)}|| = ||1 - |f|^2||_{\infty}.$$

•  $M_f$  is a projection  $\iff f = \chi_Y$  for some measurable Y: f is real and

$$||M_f - M_f^2|| = ||M_{f-f^2}|| = ||f - f^2||_{\infty}.$$

Consequently, f is 0 or 1 a.e.

Note that  $M_f$  may have no eigenvalue: Consider  $L^{\infty}[0,1]$  and f(x) = x. Let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ .

 $xg(x) = \lambda g(x)$  for almost all x implies  $(x - \lambda)g(x) = 0$  and so g = 0 a.e..

Matrix point of view: If H is a Hilbert space with an orthonormal basis  $(e_n)$ , then  $T \in B(H)$  is determined by an infinite matrix

$$((Te_m, e_n))_{m,n}$$
.

 $T^\ast$  corresponds to adjoint matrix. In Example 1.4 we have seen T whose matrix is diagonal.

**1.6. Example.** Let  $x, y \in H$  be distinct. Define

$$T_{x,y}(z) = (z,x) y \quad z \in H$$
 .

For  $u, v \in H$  we obtain

$$(T_{x,y}u,v) = (u,x)(y,v) = (u,(v,y)x) = (u,T_{y,x}(v)),$$

implying

$$T_{x,y}^* = T_{y,x}$$

Now

$$T_{x,y}T_{x,y}^*(z) = (x,x)(z,y)y = ||x||^2 T_{y,y}(z)$$

By exchanging the roles of x and y, we obtain

$$T_{x,y}^*T_{x,y} = \|y\|^2 T_{x,x}$$

(If x and y are unit vectors, then the map  $T_{x,y}$  is called a partial isometry exchanging one dimensional projections onto span of x and span of y, respectively. This is important for the structure theory of projections – we have to deal with non-normal operators!)

**1.7. Proposition.** Any projection  $P \in B(H)$  is an orthogonal projection of H onto P(H).

Proof: Put M = P(H). M is closed because  $P^2 = P$  implies that  $P(H) = \{x \in H \mid Px = x\}$ . We can write  $H = M \oplus M^{\perp}$ . If  $y \in M^{\perp}$ , then (x, Py) = (Px, y) = 0 for each  $x \in H$  and so Py = 0. Therefore, if z = x + y, where  $x \in M$  and  $y \in M^{\perp}$ , then

$$P(x+y) = x.$$

### 2 Spectral Theory of Normal Operators

Recall that for  $T \in B(H)$  the spectrum,  $\operatorname{Sp} T$ , is a subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  defined by

 $\lambda \in \operatorname{Sp} T \iff (T - \lambda I)$  has not an inverse in B(H).

Point spectrum

$$\operatorname{Sp}_p T = \sigma_p(T) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid (T - \lambda I) \text{ is not one-to one.} \}$$

In other words, for each  $\lambda \in \sigma_p(T)$  there is a nonzero y in H such that

$$Ty = \lambda y$$
.

Vector y is called an eigenvector.

Spectral radius  $r(T) = \sup\{|\lambda| \mid \lambda \in \operatorname{Sp}(T)\}.$ 

Spectrum is always a compact subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**2.1. Proposition.** Let  $T \in B(H)$  be normal. Then the following statements hold:

(i) If  $Tx = \lambda x$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $x \in H$ , then  $T^*x = \overline{\lambda}x$ .

(ii) If  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$  are complex numbers, then

$$\operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda_1 I) \perp \operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda_2 I).$$

Proof (i) By normality of T, for each  $x \in H$ ,

$$|(T - \lambda I)x|| = ||(T - \lambda I)^*x|| = ||(T^* - \overline{\lambda}I)x||.$$

It implies (i).

(ii) Suppose that  $x, y \in H$  and  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$  are in  $\mathbb{C}$  such that  $Tx = \lambda_1 x$ ,  $Ty = \lambda_2 y$ . Then

$$\lambda_1(x,y) = (Tx,y) = (x,T^*y) = (x,\overline{\lambda_2}y) = \lambda_2(x,y).$$
  
Since  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2, (x,y) = 0.$ 

Spectrum of a normal operator has a simpler structure than in general case.

#### **2.2. Proposition.** Let $T \in B(H)$ be a normal operator. Then

$$\lambda \notin \operatorname{Sp} T \iff \text{ there is } c > 0 \text{ such that} \\ \|(T - \lambda I)x\| > c\|x\| \text{ for all } x \in H.$$

$$(1)$$

Proof: Without loss of generality assume that  $\lambda = 0$ . Suppose that there is c > 0 satisfying the condition (1). Then T is one-to-one. It follows from (1) that range T(H) is complete and thereby closed in H. It remains to prove that R(T) = H. Choose  $x \in R(T)^{\perp}$ . Then

$$0 = (x, TT^*x) = (x, T^*Tx) = (Tx, Tx) = ||Tx||^2 \ge c^2 ||x||^2.$$

In other words, x = 0 and R(T) = H. So (1) implies  $0 \notin \operatorname{Sp} T$ . The reverse implication is clear.

**2.3. Corollary.** If  $T \in B(H)$  is normal and  $\lambda \in \text{Sp } T \setminus \sigma_p(T)$ , then  $(T - \lambda I)(H)$  is not closed.

Proof: If  $T - \lambda I$  is one-to-one and  $(T - \lambda I)(H)$  is closed, then, by the Inverse Mapping Theorem, there is a continuous linear map  $S: (T - \lambda I)(H) \to H$  such that  $S(T - \lambda I)x = x$  for all  $x \in H$ . It means that  $||x|| \leq ||S|| ||(T - \lambda I)x||$ . As  $||S|| \neq 0$ , we see that

$$||(T - \lambda I)x|| \ge \frac{1}{||S||} ||x||.$$

In view of Proposition 2.2,  $\lambda \notin \operatorname{Sp} T$ .

**2.4. Corollary.** (Approximate Spectrum) If  $T \in B(H)$  is normal, then  $\lambda \in \text{Sp }T$  if, and only if, there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  of unit vectors such that  $||(T - \lambda I)x_n|| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

Proof: By Proposition 2.2  $\lambda \in \operatorname{Sp} T \iff \inf_{\|x\|=1} \|(T - \lambda I)x\| = 0.$ 

Spectrum of a normal operator is equal to approximate point spectrum.

**2.5.** Corollary. If  $T \in B(H)$  is normal, then

$$\operatorname{Sp} T \subset \overline{\{(Tx, x) \mid ||x|| = 1\}}.$$

Proof: If  $\lambda \in \text{Sp } T$  then there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  of unit vectors such that

$$\|T x_n - \lambda x_n\| \to 0.$$

It implies

$$(Tx_n - \lambda x_n, x_n) \to 0$$
  
 $(Tx_n, x_n) \to \lambda$ .

**2.6. Theorem.** If  $T \in B(H)$  is a normal operator, then the following statements hold:

- (i) T is self-adjoint if, and only if,  $\operatorname{Sp} T \subset \mathbb{R}$ .
- (ii) T is positive if, and only if,  $\operatorname{Sp} T \subset \mathbb{R}^+$ .
- (iii) T is unitary if, and only if,  $\operatorname{Sp} T \subset \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}.$
- (iv) T is a projection if, and only if,  $\operatorname{Sp} T \subset \{0, 1\}$ .

Proof: We shall prove the implications  $\implies$  (the reverse implications are more complicated). In case of (i) and (ii), these implications follow from Corollary 2.5.

Suppose that T is unitary. Then ||T|| = 1 and so  $|(Tx, x)| \leq ||x||^2 = 1$ for all unit vectors x. By Proposition 2.5 Sp T is a subset of the unit disc. If  $\lambda \in \text{Sp } T$ , then  $\lambda$  is nonzero and  $\frac{1}{\lambda} \in \text{Sp } T^{-1} = \text{Sp } T^*$ . As  $T^*$  is unitary we have that  $|\frac{1}{\lambda}| \leq 1$ . Hence,  $|\lambda| = 1$ . (iv) is a consequence of proposition 1.7

#### **2.7. Proposition.** ( $C^*$ -property) If $T \in B(H)$ , then

 $||T^*T|| = ||T||^2.$ 

Proof: First observe that  $\|T\|=\|T^*\|$  (consider e.g. corresponding bilinear forms). For  $x\in H$  we have

$$||Tx||^{2} = (Tx, Tx) = (T^{*}Tx, x) \le ||T^{*}T|| \cdot ||x||^{2}.$$

Hence,

$$||T||^{2} \le ||T^{*}T|| \le ||T^{*}|| \cdot ||T|| = ||T||^{2}$$

**2.8. Proposition.** If  $T \in B(H)$  is normal, then

$$r(T) = \|T\|.$$

Proof: First suppose that T is self-adjoint. Then by the  $C^*$ -property

$$||T||^{2} = ||T^{*}T|| = ||T^{2}||.$$

If T is normal, then

$$||T^2||^2 = ||(T^2)^*T^2|| = ||(T^*T)^2|| = ||T^*T||^2 = ||T||^4$$

(We have used the fact that  $T^*T$  is self-adjoint.) Consequently,

$$||T^2|| = ||T||^2,$$

and in turn  $||T^{2^n}|| = ||T||^{2^n}$  for all *n*. By the spectral radius formula

$$r(T) = \lim_{n} ||T^{n}||^{1/n} = \lim_{n} ||T^{2^{n}}||^{1/2^{n}} = \lim_{n} ||T|| = ||T||.$$

Very useful concept in operator theory is that of *numerical range* of an operator  $T \in B(H)$ :

$$N(T) = \overline{\{(Tx, x) \mid ||x|| = 1\}}.$$

By a *numerical radius* of T we mean

$$n(T) = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |(Tx, x)|.$$

It is clear that, in general,  $n(T) \leq ||T||$ .

**2.9.** Proposition. Let  $T \in B(H)$ . Then the following statements hold

(i) If T is normal, then

$$||T|| = r(T) = n(T).$$

(ii) If T is self-adjoint, then ||T|| or -||T|| is in SpT.

Proof: (i) If T is normal, then  $\operatorname{Sp} T \subset N(T)$  by Proposition 2.5. Obviously,

$$r(T) \le n(T) \le ||T|| = r(T)$$

and so r(T) = n(T).

(ii) By working with  $||T||^{-1}T$  in place of T, we can assume that ||T|| = 1. Then there is a sequence of unit vectors  $(x_n)$  such that  $||Tx_n|| \to 1$ . Thanks to this

$$\|(I - T^2)x_n\|^2 = \|x_n\|^2 + \|T^2x_n\|^2 - 2\Re(T^2x_n, x_n) \le 2 - 2\|Tx_n\|^2 \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ . We see that  $1 \in \operatorname{Sp} T^2$ . It means that T + I or T - I has no inverse, for otherwise,

$$T^2 - I = (T + I)(T - I)$$

would have an inverse, which is not possible.

In view of the previous result we can say that the norm of a normal operator is given by the extreme of the corresponding quadratic form.

### **3** Algebraic Aspects and Applications

The facts mentioned below follow from Exercises. The set of normal operators is stable under forming powers and scalar multiples. If T is normal, then the smallest \*-subalgebra of B(H) containing T is commutative. Any operator  $T \in B(H)$  can be written as  $T = T_1 + iT_2$ , where  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are self-adjoint. Moreover, any self adjoint operator is a difference of two positive operators. If T is self-adjoint, then  $T^2$  is always positive. The converse also holds. (The proof is more complicated and will be omitted.)

**3.1. Proposition.** For  $T \in B(H)$  the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) T is positive
- (ii)  $T = A^*A$  for some  $A \in B(H)$ .
- (iii)  $T = S^2$  for some self-adjoint  $S \in B(H)$ . (S is denoted by  $T^{1/2}$  and called the square root of T).

If T is self-adjoint, then  $e^{iT}$  is unitary. The converse also holds:

**3.2. Proposition.** For any unitary operator  $U \in B(H)$  there is a selfadjoint operator  $T \in B(H)$  with  $||T|| \leq 2\pi$  such that  $U = e^{iT}$ .

In Physics:  $t \in \mathbb{R} \to e^{itH}$ , where *H* is Hamiltonian (Energy), describes time development of the system (solution of the Schrödinger equation).

Another important example of a unitary map is the Fourier-Plancherel transform:

$$f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) \to \hat{f}(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) e^{-it\omega} dt$$

### 4 Compact Operators

Notation:

*B* – Banach space For  $x \in B$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  denote  $B_{\varepsilon}(x) = \{y \mid ||x - y|| \le \varepsilon\}$  $B_1 = B_1(0).$ 

**4.1. Definition.** A set X in a Banach space B is said to be *compact* if for each system U of open subsets of B with  $X \subset \bigcup_{O \in U} O$  there is a finite subset  $U' \subset U$  with  $X \subset \bigcup_{O \in U'} O$ . A set  $X \subset B$  is said to be *relatively compact* if its closure,  $\overline{X}$ , is compact.

Related concept to compactness is total boundedness.

**4.2. Definition.** A set X in a Banach space B is said to be *totally bounded* if for each  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exist  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$  such that

$$X \subset \cup_{i=1}^n B_{\varepsilon}(x_i)$$

**4.3. Theorem.**  $X \subset B$  is compact if, and only if, X is closed and totally bounded.  $X \subset B$  is relatively compact if, and only if, X is totally bounded.

Basic facts about compact sets:

- If  $X \subset B$  is relatively compact, then for each sequence  $(x_n) \subset X$  there is a cauchy subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$ .
- Any relatively compact set is bounded.
- Any bounded set in a finite-dimensional space is relatively compact.
- Unit ball  $B_1$  is compact if, and only if, dim  $B < \infty$ .
- Let  $f : B_1 \to B_2$  be a continuous map between Banach spaces. If  $X \subset B_1$  is (relatively) compact, then the image f(X) is (relatively) compact in  $B_2$ .

**4.4. Definition.** A linear operator  $T: F \to G$  between Banach spaces F and G is called *compact* if

$$T(F_1)$$
 is relatively compact.

Basic facts about compact operators:

 $T: F \to G$  is a linear map between Banach spaces.

- T is compact if it maps bounded sets to relatively compact sets. In particular, compact maps are continuous.
- If T is compact, then for each bounded sequence  $(x_n) \subset F$  there is a subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  such that  $(Tx_{n_k})$  is convergent.
- The identity map on a Banach space B is compact if, and only if,  $\dim B < \infty$ .
- Any bounded operator with finite-dimensional range is compact.

**4.5. Corollary.** If  $T : B \to B$  is a compact map, then for each nonzero  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ 

$$\dim \operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda I) < \infty$$

Proof: T restricted to  $\operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda I)$  is a nonzero multiple of I. Therefore  $T : \operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda I) \to \operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda I)$  is compact if, and only if, dim  $\operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda I) < \infty$ .

Compact operators on Banach spaces have special spectral properties.

**4.6. Theorem.** Let  $T : B \to B$  be a compact operator. Then  $\operatorname{Sp} T$  is countable, and each nonzero point of  $\operatorname{Sp} T$  is an eigenvalue and an isolated point of  $\operatorname{Sp} T$ . For each nonzero  $\lambda \in \operatorname{Sp} T$ , the space  $\operatorname{Ker}(T - \lambda I)$  has finite dimension.

We shall prove this theorem for normal compact operators on Hilbert spaces later.

Notation:

K(H) ... compact operators acting on a Hilbert space H

F(H) ... finite rank operators acting on a Hilbert space H.  $(T \in F(H)$  if, and only if, dim  $T(H) < \infty$ .)

These classes of operators form a special structure in B(H)

**4.7. Definition.** An *ideal*  $J \subset B(H)$  is a linear subspace of B(H) such that

 $ST, TS \in J$ 

whenever  $T \in J$  and  $S \in B(H)$ .

**4.8. Proposition.** (i)  $F(H) \subset K(H)$  and each  $T \in F(H)$  is a linear combination of the operators of the form

$$T_{x,y}(z) = (z,x) y \,,$$

where  $x, y \in H$ .

(ii) F(H) and K(H) are ideals in B(H). Moreover, K(H) is a closed ideal in B(H).

Proof: (i)  $F(H) \subset K(H)$  because any finite-dimensional operator is compact.

Take  $T \in F(H)$  and let P be the projection of H onto R(T). Then

$$P = P_1 + P_2 + \dots + P_n$$

where each  $P_i$  is a one-dimensional projection. As

$$T = PT$$

the problem of description of T reduces to a rank one operator: dim R(T) = 1. Suppose  $R(T) = span\{y\}$ , where ||y|| = 1. Then, for each  $z \in H$ ,

$$Tz = (Tz, y)y = (z, T^*y)y$$

and so  $T = T_{T^*y,y}$ .

(ii) K(H) is a subspace of B(H) because the sum of finitely many totally bounded sets is totally bounded and scalar multiple of a totally bounded set is totally bounded as well. If  $S \in B(H)$ , then

$$T \in F(H) \Longrightarrow ST, TS \in F(H)$$
 (linear algebra)  
 $T \in K(H) \Longrightarrow ST, TS \in K(H).$ 

(Last implication is due to the fact that bounded operators map relatively compact sets to relatively compact sets and that continuous image of a relatively compact set is relatively compact.)

Closedness of K(H):

Suppose that  $(T_n) \subset K(H)$ ,  $T_n \to T \in B(H)$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is  $n_0$  such that  $||T - T_n|| < \varepsilon/3$  whenever  $n \ge n_0$ . There are  $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in H_1$  such that

$$T_{n_0}(H_1) \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^k B(T_{n_0}x_i, \frac{\varepsilon}{3}).$$

Now for any  $x \in H_1$ ,  $Tx \in T(H_1)$  and

$$||Tx - T_{n_0}x|| \le \varepsilon/3$$

There is  $1 \leq j \leq k$  such that

$$\|T_{n_0}x - T_{n_0}x_j\| \le \varepsilon/3$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} \|Tx - Tx_j\| &\leq \|Tx - T_{n_0}x\| + \|T_{n_0}x - T_{n_0}x_j\| + \|T_{n_0}x_j - Tx_j\| \\ &\leq \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $T(H_1)$  is totally bounded.

**4.9. Example.** Suppose that  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is an orthonormal basis of H and  $T \in B(H)$  is defined by  $Te_n = \frac{1}{n}e_n$ . (*T* is a diagonal operator.) Set

$$T_N x = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n} (x, e_n) e_n.$$

Then

$$\|(T-T_N)x\|^2 = \|\sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} (x, e_n)e_n\|^2 = \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} |(x, e_n)|^2 \le \frac{1}{(N+1)^2} \|x\|^2.$$

Therefore  $||T - T_N|| \to 0$  as  $N \to \infty$ . By the previous result T is compact. (Observe that the same is true whenever  $Te_n = \lambda_n e_n$ , where  $\lambda_n \to 0$ .)

### $c_0 \hookrightarrow K(H)$ – noncommutative $c_0$ .

We shall now develop theory of self-adjoint and normal compact operators.

**4.10. Proposition.** If  $T \in K(H)$  is self-adjoint, then ||T|| or -||T|| must be an eigenvalue of T.

Proof: (We know that ||T|| or -||T|| is in Sp T.) Without loss of generality assume that ||T|| = 1. Then

$$1 = ||T|| = \sup_{||x||=1} |(Tx, x)|.$$

As (Tx, x) is real for all x, there exists a sequence  $(x_n)$  of unit vectors such that

$$(Tx_n, x_n) \to 1$$
 (or  $\to -1$  which is the same).

Using compactness we can pass to a subsequence of  $(x_n)$ , denoted by the same symbol, such that

$$Tx_n \to x \in H_1$$
.

Then

$$(x, x_n) \to 1$$
 and so  $x_n \to x$ 

Now  $x_n \to x, Tx_n \to x$  implies Tx = x.

**4.11. Proposition.** Let  $T \in K(H)$  and  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be an orthonormal sequence in H. Then

$$Te_n \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$
.

Proof: Without loss of generality we can assume that

$$\lim_{n} Te_n = x \,.$$

Suppose that  $x \neq 0$  and try to reach a contradiction. Given n we can find k(n) such that

$$\|Te_m - x\| \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

for all  $m \ge k(n)$ . Now set

$$u_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(e_{k(n)} + e_{k(n)+1} + \dots + e_{k(n)+n-1}).$$

Then  $||u_n|| = 1$ . As

$$\left\|\sum_{i=k(n)}^{k(n)+n-1} Te_i\right\| \ge \|nx\| - \sum_{i=k(n)}^{k(n)+n-1} \|Te_i - x\| \ge n\|x\| - n\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

we obtain

$$||Tu_n|| \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Big[ n \cdot \Big( ||x|| - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Big) \Big]$$
  
=  $\sqrt{n} ||x|| - 1 \to \infty \text{ as } n \to \infty.$ 

So T is unbounded - a contradiction.

**4.12. Theorem.** (Spectral theorem for normal compact operators) Let H be a separable Hilbert space of infinite dimension and T a normal compact operator acting on H. Then there is an orthonormal basis  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of H and a sequence of complex numbers  $\lambda_n \to 0$  such that

$$Tx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n(x, e_n) e_n \tag{2}$$

for all  $x \in H$ .

Proof: We show first that T is diagonalizable. By Zorn's lemma there is a maximal orthonormal set E of eigenvectors of T. If L is the closed linear span of E, then  $H = L \oplus L^{\perp}$ . Observe that  $L^{\perp}$  is T-invariant. For this fix  $x \in L^{\perp}$  and take arbitrary  $y \in E$ . Then there is a scalar  $\lambda$  such that  $Ty = \lambda y$ . It gives

$$(y, Tx) = (T^*y, x) = (\lambda y, x) = 0.$$

Therefore, T restricts to a compact normal operator acting on  $L^{\perp}$ . We are going to show that  $L^{\perp} = \{0\}$ .

First we show that any nonzero point  $\lambda$  in the spectrum of T is an eingenvalue. By Corollary 2.4 there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $H_1$  such that

$$Tx_n - \lambda x_n \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ . As T is compact we can, by passing to a subsequence, assume that

$$\lim_{n} Tx_n = y.$$

Then  $\lambda x_n \to y$  and so  $x_n \to \frac{y}{\lambda}$ . In turn,  $y \neq 0$ ,

$$y = \lim_{n} Tx_n = \frac{Ty}{\lambda} \,,$$

saying that

$$Ty = \lambda y$$

Now, if  $L^{\perp}$  were nonzero, then T would have a nonzero eigenvector in  $L^{\perp}$ , which is excluded by maximality of E. Hence  $L^{\perp} = \{0\}$ .

Summing it up, E is an orthonormal basis of H and so that T is diagonalizable. In other words, T is of the form (2) for some sequence  $(\lambda_n)$ . That  $\lambda_n \to 0$  follows from Proposition 4.11.

## 5 Trace Class and Hilbert-Schmidt Operators

- Applications to integral equations, Gaussian stochastic processes, unitary representations of locally compact groups, ...
- quantization of  $\ell^1, \ell^2$ .

**5.1. Definition.** Let  $T \in B(H)$  be a positive operator and  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  an orthonormal basis of H. Define

trace 
$$T = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (Te_n, e_n)$$
.

(It may happen that trace  $T = \infty$ .)

Remarks: In the matrix representation trace T is a sum of diagonal elements.

**5.2. Proposition.** (i) For a given positive  $T \in B(H)$ , trace T does not depend on the choice of an orthonormal basis  $(e_n)$ .

(ii)

$$\operatorname{trace}(T_1 + T_2) = \operatorname{trace} T_1 + \operatorname{trace} T_2$$
$$\operatorname{trace}(\lambda T_1) = \lambda \operatorname{trace} T_1,$$

whenever  $T_1, T_2 \ge 0$  and  $\lambda \ge 0$ .

Proof: (i) Fix two orthonormal bases  $(e_k)$  and  $(f_k)$  and  $T \in B(H)$ . Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (Te_k, e_k) = \sum_{l,k=1}^{\infty} (Te_k, f_l) \overline{(e_k, f_l)} = \sum_{l,k=1}^{\infty} (e_k, Tf_l) \overline{(e_k, f_l)}$$
$$= \sum_{l,k=1}^{\infty} \overline{(Tf_l, e_k)} (f_l, e_k) = \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} (f_l, Tf_l)$$
$$= \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} (Tf_l, f_l).$$

(ii) obvious

**5.3.** Corollary. trace $(U^*TU)$  = trace T whenever U is unitary and  $T \ge 0$ .

**5.4. Example.** If T is a positive operator acting on an n-dimensional Hilbert space, then

trace 
$$T = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n$$
,

where  $\lambda_i$ 's are eigenvalues of T (counted with multiplicity).

**5.5. Definition.** (i) A positive  $T \in B(H)$  is a trace class operator if trace  $T < \infty$ .

(ii)

$$\mathcal{L}^1(H) = span\{T \ge 0 \mid \operatorname{trace} T < \infty\}$$

is the set of trace class operators.

If  $T \in \mathcal{L}^1(H)$ , then

$$T = P_1 - P_2 + i(P_3 - P_4)$$

where  $P_i \ge 0$  and trace  $P_i < \infty$ . The decomposition is not unique, but the basic properties of the trace imply that there is a unique linear functional, denoted by trace, on  $\mathcal{L}^1(H)$  defined by

trace  $T = \text{trace } P_1 - \text{trace } P_2 + i(\text{trace } P_3 - \text{trace } P_4)$ .

Obviously, for every  $T \in \mathcal{L}^1(H)$  and every orthonormal basis  $e_1, e_2, \ldots$  we have

trace 
$$T = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (Te_n, e_n)$$
,

where the series on the right hand side is absolutely convergent.

**5.6. Definition.** An operator  $T \in B(H)$  is called a *Hilbert-Schmidt operator* if

$$\operatorname{trace}(T^*T) < \infty$$
.

 $\mathcal{L}^2(H)$  ..... set of all Hilbert-Schmidt operators acting on H.

Observe that

$$T \in \mathcal{L}^2(H) \iff \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|Te_n\|^2 < \infty$$

for any orthonormal basis  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of H.

#### **5.7. Proposition.** $\mathcal{L}^{2}(H)$ is a self-adjoint ideal in B(H).

Proof: Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{L}^2(H)$ . parallelogram law:

$$(A+B)^*(A+B) + (A-B)^*(A-B) = 2A^*A + 2B^*B.$$

It implies that

$$0 \le (A+B)^*(A+B) \le 2A^*A + 2B^*B.$$

Consequently,

$$\operatorname{trace}[(A+B)^*(A+B)] \le 2\operatorname{trace} A^*A + 2\operatorname{trace} B^*B < \infty,$$

and so  $A + B \in \mathcal{L}^2(H)$ . Hence  $\mathcal{L}^2(H)$  is a subspace of B(H). We shall now prove that trace  $A^*A = \text{trace } AA^*$  (this is of independent importance). For this fix two orthonormal basis  $(e_n)$  and  $(f_k)$  of H. Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|Ae_n\|^2 = \sum_{n,k=1}^{\infty} |(Ae_n, f_k)|^2$$
$$= \sum_{n,k=1}^{\infty} |(e_n, A^*f_k)|^2 = \sum_{n,k=1}^{\infty} |(A^*f_k, e_n)|^2$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \|A^*f_k\|^2.$$

In other words,  $\mathcal{L}^2(H)$  is self-adjoint. If  $B \in B(H)$  and  $A \in \mathcal{L}^2(H)$ , then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|BAe_n\|^2 \le \|B\|^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|Ae_n\|^2 < \infty.$$

So  $\mathcal{L}^2(H)$  is a left ideal and by self-adjointeness it is an ideal.

#### 5.8. Proposition.

$$\mathcal{L}^2(H) \subset K(H)$$
.

Proof:  $F(H) \subset K(H)$ . For any  $x \in H_1$  and any  $T \in B(H)$ 

$$||Tx||^2 \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ||Te_n||^2 = \operatorname{trace} T^*T,$$

where  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is an orthonormal basis containing x. This means that

$$||T||^2 \le \operatorname{trace} T^*T.$$

Suppose now that  $T \in \mathcal{L}^2(H)$ . Fix an orthonormal basis  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . Let  $P_N$  be the orthogonal projection onto  $span\{e_1,\ldots,e_N\}$ . Put  $F_N = TP_N$ . Then

$$||T - F_N||^2 \le \operatorname{trace}((I - P_N)T^*T(I - P_N)) = \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} ||Te_n||^2 \to \infty \text{ for } N \to \infty.$$

Therefore  $T \in K(H)$ .

**5.9.** Corollary. A normal Hilbert-Schmidt operator T is diagonalizable and for its sequence  $(\lambda_n)$  of eigenvalues we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\lambda_n|^2 < \infty \,.$$

A natural inner product can be introduced on  $\mathcal{L}^2(H)$ .

For  $A, B \in \mathcal{L}^2(H)$  define

$$(A,B)_2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (B^*Ae_n, e_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (Ae_n, Be_n).$$

$$\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |(Ae_n, Be_n)| \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ||(Ae_n)|^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ||(Be_n)|^2 < \infty .\right)$$

Note that  $||A||_2 = \text{trace } A^*A$ . It can be proved that  $(\mathcal{L}^2(H), (\cdot, \cdot)_2)$  is a Hilbert space.

#### Hilbert-Schmidt integral operator:

 $(X, \mu) \dots \sigma$ -finite measure space.

$$k(x,y) \in \mathcal{H} = L^2(X \times X, \mu \times \mu).$$

Define an operator T on  $L^2(X,\mu)$  by

$$T\xi(x) = \int_X k(x,y)\xi(y)d\mu(y).$$
(3)

This definition is correct because  $k(x, \cdot) \in L^2(X, \mu)$  for a.a.  $x \in X$ .

Another application of Fubini's theorem implies that for  $\xi, \nu \in L^2(X, \mu)$  $\int_X |T\xi(x)||\nu(x)|d\mu(x) \leq \int_{X \times X} |k(x, y)||\xi(x)||\nu(x)|d\mu(x)d\mu(y) \leq ||k|| ||\xi|| ||\nu||$ 

Hence  $T \in B(L^2(X, \mu))$  and  $||T|| \le ||k||$ .

Let us now compute the trace of  $T^*T$ . Choose an orthonormal basis  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of  $L^2(X,\mu)$ . Then

$$u_{mn}(x,y) = e_n(x)\overline{e_m(y)}$$
  $m, n = 1, 2, \dots$ 

form an orthonormal basis of  $L^2(X \times X, \mu \times \mu)$ . We observe

$$(Te_m, e_n) = \int_X Te_m(x)\overline{e_n(x)}d\mu(x) = \int_{X \times X} k(x, y)\overline{e_n(x)}e_m(y)d\mu(y)d\mu(x)$$
$$= (k, u_{mn}).$$

In turn,

trace 
$$T^*T = \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} |(Te_m, e_n)|^2 = \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} |(k, u_{mn})|^2 = ||k||^2$$
.

We summarize the results of this discussion in the following proposition:

**5.10.** Proposition. Let  $(X, \mu)$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite measure space. For every function  $k \in L^2(X \times X, \mu \times \mu)$  there is a unique bounded operator  $T_k$  on  $L^2(X, \mu)$ satisfying

$$T\xi(x) = \int_X k(x,y)\xi(y)d\mu(y) \qquad \xi \in L^2(X,\mu) \,.$$

Then  $T_k$  is a Hilbert-Schmidt operator with the Hilbert-Schmidt norm ||k||.