

b4 Analysis MT 2003 Solutions to Sheet 6

1. It is clear from the defining formula that T is a linear mapping from X to X . We note that, for $t > 0$, we may write

$$(Tp)(t) = t^{-1} \int_0^t p(u) du,$$

so that $|(Tp)(t)| \leq t^{-1} \times t \times \|p\|_\infty = \|p\|_\infty$, by simple estimation. By continuity of Tp , this estimate extends to $t = 0$, so that $\|Tp\|_\infty \leq \|p\|_\infty$. Thus T is bounded with $\|T\| \leq 1$. If $p(t)$ is the constant polynomial 1, we have $Tp = 1$ also, so in fact $\|T\| = 1$.

It is clear (again from the defining formula) that T is bijective, with inverse T^{-1} given by

$$T^{-1}\left(\sum_{j=0}^n b_j t^j\right) = \sum_{j=0}^n (n+1) b_j t^j.$$

The inverse is unbounded since, taking $q_n(t) = t^n$, we have $\|q_n\|_\infty = 1$ but $\|T^{-1}q_n\|_\infty = n+1$.

2. As usual, the linearity of the operator M_μ is obvious from the formula. Provided μ is bounded and $\mathbf{x} \in \ell^1$, the series $\sum_n |\mu_n x_n|$ converges (by comparison with $\sum \|\mu\|_\infty |x_n|$) to a sum which is at most $\|\mu\|_\infty \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$. Thus M_μ is a bounded linear operator from ℓ^1 to ℓ^1 , with $\|M_\mu\| \leq \|\mu\|_\infty$. On the other hand, we have, for each n ,

$$\|M_\mu\| \geq \|M_\mu(\mathbf{e}_n)\| = |\mu_n|,$$

so that $\|M_\mu\| \geq \|\mu\|_\infty$.

By the above calculation, we see that if $\mu_n = 0$ for some n the $M_\mu(\mathbf{e}_n) = 0$, so that M_μ is not injective. Conversely, if all the μ_n are non-zero then $M_\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \implies x_n = 0$ for all n , so that $\text{Ker } M_\mu = \{\mathbf{0}\}$, and M_μ is injective.

Now suppose that $\inf_n |\mu_n| = \delta > 0$. The sequence ν with $\nu_n = \mu_n^{-1}$ is then bounded with $\|\nu\|_\infty = \delta^{-1}$, and the bounded linear operator M_ν satisfies $M_\nu M_\mu = M_\mu M_\nu = I_X$. Thus M_μ is invertible. Conversely, if we assume invertibility, then $|\mu_n|^{-1} = \|M_\mu^{-1}(\mathbf{e}_n)\| \leq \|M_\mu^{-1}\|$ for all n and so $\inf_n |\mu_n| \geq \|M_\mu^{-1}\|^{-1}$.

3. First consider S as an operator on ℓ^1 . For λ to be an eigenvalue, we need there to be a non-zero vector $\mathbf{x} \in \ell^1$ with $T(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda\mathbf{x}$, i.e.

$$x_{n+1} = \lambda x_n \quad (n \geq 0).$$

Thus we need $\mathbf{x} = x_0(1, \lambda, \lambda^2, \lambda^3, \dots)$ and $x_0 \neq 0$. A vector of this kind is in ℓ^1 if and only if $|\lambda| < 1$. If we think of S as acting on ℓ^∞ all λ with $|\lambda| \leq 1$ are eigenvalues.

In each case, we easily that $\|S\| = 1$, so that $\sigma(S) \subseteq \overline{\mathbb{D}}$. In the case of ℓ^∞ this shows that the spectrum is exactly $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ (and consists wholly of eigenvalues). In the case of ℓ^1 we see that $\sigma(S) = \overline{\mathbb{D}}$ when we remember that the spectrum is a closed subset of \mathbb{C} .

We pass now to R acting on ℓ^1 . Suppose that there is a vector \mathbf{x} with $T(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_0$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} -\lambda x_0 &= 1 \\ x_n - \lambda x_{n+1} &= 0 \quad (n \geq 0) \end{aligned}$$

Thus $x_0 = -\lambda^{-1}$ and $x_n = -\lambda^{-n-1}$ for all n . Of course, the sequence \mathbf{x} thus determined is in ℓ^1 only if $|\lambda| > 1$.

It is clear from the definition that $T = I + 2S + S^2 = (I + S)^2$, so by the Spectral Mapping Theorem, the spectrum of T is the image of the closed unit disc $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ under the mapping $\lambda \mapsto (\lambda+1)^2$. If we consider first the translation $\lambda \mapsto (\lambda+1) = w$, the image is the closed disc of centre 1 and radius 1. This can be described as the set of all $w = se^{i\phi}$ with $0 \leq s \leq 2 \cos \phi$. If we now apply the squaring function we get the set of all $z = s^2 e^{2i\phi}$ with s and ϕ as before. This converts to $z = re^{i\theta}$ with $\sqrt{r} \leq 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}\theta$. This last condition becomes $r \leq 4 \cos^2 \frac{1}{2}\theta = 2 + 2 \cos \theta$.

4. The assertion about $J^n f$ is certainly true for $n = 1$. If it is true for $n = m$, we calculate $J^{m+1} f$ as follows

$$\begin{aligned} (J^{m+1} f)(t) &= \int_0^t (J^m f)(u) du \\ &= ((m-1)!)^{-1} \int_0^t \int_0^u (u-v)^{m-1} f(v) dv du \\ &= ((m-1)!)^{-1} \int_0^t f(v) \int_v^t (u-v)^{m-1} du dv \\ &= (m!)^{-1} \int_0^t (t-v)^m f(v) dv. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the given formula holds for all n .

To estimate the norm of J^n notice that, for all t ,

$$|(J^n f)(t)| \leq \frac{\|f\|_\infty}{(n-1)!} \int_0^t (t-v)^{n-1} dt = \frac{t^n \|f\|_\infty}{n!}.$$

Thus, taking the supremum over $t \in [0, 1]$, we get $\|J^n f\| \leq \|f\|_\infty/n!$, whence $\|J^n\| \leq 1/n!$ (In fact, considering $r = 1$, we could see that equality holds here.)

Finally, we may use the spectral radius formula to see that the spectral radius of J is $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|J^n\|^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n!)^{1/n} = 0$. So $\sigma(J) \subseteq \{0\}$. To get equality here, either quote the fact that the spectrum is always non-empty, or note that J is not surjective (since the image of J contains only differentiable functions).

5. We have

$$\|T(\mathbf{x})\|_1 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu_k |x_k| \leq \mu_1 \|\mathbf{x}\|_1,$$

because the sequence μ_n is decreasing; thus $\|T\| \leq \mu_1$. On the other hand $T(\mathbf{e}_1) = \mu_1 \mathbf{e}_0$, so that $\|T\| \geq \mu_1$. We can calculate

$$T^m(\mathbf{x}) = (\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_m x_m, \mu_2 \mu_3 \dots \mu_{m+1} x_{m+1}, \dots),$$

so that $\|T^m\| = \mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_m$, as earlier. By the Spectral Radius Formula we thus have

$$r(T) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_m)^{1/m}.$$

This equals μ , by elementary analysis. So $\sigma(T) \subseteq \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| \leq \mu\}$.

For λ to be an eigenvalue of T we need there to exist a non-zero element \mathbf{u} of ℓ^1 satisfying $T(\mathbf{u}) = \lambda \mathbf{u}$, or equivalently

$$u_k = \frac{\lambda^k u_0}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_k}.$$

By the ratio test, the series

$$\sum_k \frac{\lambda^k}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_k}$$

converges for $|\lambda| < \mu$, so all these λ are eigenvalues. We now know that $\sigma(T) \supseteq \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| < \mu\}$. The final conclusion now follows since the spectrum of a b.l.o. on a Banach space is closed.

6. By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (valid by continuity of f) the given formula defines a function g which is *differentiable* at points $t > 0$ and continuous at 0, hence certainly in $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$. The operator T is linear, by linearity of integration, and bounded with $\|T\| = 1$, by the estimation already made in Q1.

Provided $\gamma = \alpha + i\beta$, where $\alpha = \operatorname{Re} \gamma > 0$, the function t^γ is defined for $t > 0$ by

$$t^\gamma = \exp[\gamma \log t] = t^\alpha e^{i\beta \log t},$$

and extends continuously to $[0, \infty)$ with $0^\gamma = 0$. So certainly $f(t) = t^\gamma$ defines a function $f \in \mathcal{C}[0, 1]$. When we calculate Tf we see that $Tf = (\gamma + 1)^{-1} f$ as claimed. So each $\lambda = (1 + \gamma)^{-1}$ with $\operatorname{Re} \gamma > 0$ is an eigenvalue of T , hence a member of the spectrum. By an easy calculation (or the theory of Möbius transformations, familiar from a2) these λ are exactly the complex numbers with $|\lambda - \frac{1}{2}| < \frac{1}{2}$.

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, the function g defined by $Tf = g$ is differentiable on $(0, 1]$ with

$$\frac{d}{dt}(tg(t)) = f(t).$$

It also satisfies $g(0) = f(0)$. Conversely, if h is differentiable on $(0, 1]$ with $(th)' = f$ we have $(th - tg)' = 0$ on $(0, 1]$, so that $h - g$ is constant on that interval. If, moreover, h is continuous on the closed interval $[0, 1]$ with $h(0) = f(0)$, then $h = g = Tf$ as claimed.

We now consider the case where $\lambda = (1 + \gamma)^{-1}$ with $\operatorname{Re} \gamma < 0$ and let h be any element of $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$. Since we now have $\operatorname{Re}(-1 - \gamma) > -1$ the function $t^{-1-\gamma}$ is integrable on $(0, 1]$. Thus the integral in the given formula

$$(1) \quad f(t) = -\lambda^{-1} - \lambda^{-2} t^\gamma \int_0^t u^{-1-\gamma} h(u) du$$

does exist. By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus we see that $t^{-\gamma}(\lambda f + h)$ is differentiable on $(0, 1]$ with

$$(t^{-\gamma}(\lambda f + h))' = -\lambda^{-1} t^{-1-\gamma} h \quad (0 < t \leq 1).$$

Manipulating this equation, we obtain, successively,

$$\begin{aligned} t^{-\gamma}(\lambda f + h)' - \gamma t^{-\gamma-1}(f + h) &= \lambda^{-1}t^{-1-\gamma}h, \\ t(\lambda f + h)' + (\lambda f + h) &= (1 + \gamma)(\lambda f + h) - \lambda^{-1}h = f. \end{aligned}$$

To show that $Tf = \lambda f + h$ it remains to show that $f(t)$ and $\lambda f(t) + h(t)$ tend to the same limit as $t \downarrow 0$. An easy estimate on the integral, using continuity of h and positivity of the function $u^{-1-\gamma}$ shows that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \downarrow 0} f(t) &= -\lambda^{-1}h(0) - \lambda^{-2}h(0) \lim_{t \downarrow 0} t^\gamma \int_0^t u^{-1-\gamma} du \\ &= -h(0)(\lambda^{-1} + \gamma^{-1}\lambda^{-2}) \\ &= h(0)(-\lambda^{-1} + (\lambda^{-1} - 1)^{-1}\lambda^{-2}) = h(0)/(1 - \lambda) \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have $f(0) = \lambda f(0) + h(0)$, which is what we wanted.

To finish off, we note that the formula (1) for $(T - \lambda I)^{-1}$ does define a bounded linear operator (with norm at most $|\lambda|^{-1} + |\lambda|^{-2}|\operatorname{Re} \gamma|^{-1}$).