

Note: If $E = F = \mathbb{R}^n$ or \mathbb{C}^n , then we know from matrix algebra: T.F.C.A. equivalent:

- (i) A is invertible
- (ii) A is one-to-one (full row rank)
- (iii) A is onto (full column rank)
- (iv) A has a left-inverse B , i.e., $BA = I$
- (v) A has a right-inverse C , i.e., $AC = I$
- (vi) $\det(A) \neq 0$.

In infinite dimensions none of these are equivalent. Determinants cannot even be defined.

7.9 Ex. Take S, S^* from Ex. 7.2d. Then

$$S^*S = I, \quad SS^* \neq I, \text{ so}$$

neither is invertible. Out of these S is one-to-one and S^* is onto.

Injective

In control theory the following result is known under the name "small gain theorem":

7.10 Thm. Let E be a Banach space, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(E) (= \mathcal{L}(E; E))$. If $\|A\| < 1$, then $I - A$ is invertible, and

$$\textcircled{\Downarrow} (I - A)^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k \quad (\text{converges in the Banach space } \mathcal{L}(E)).$$

Here $A^n = \underbrace{A A A \dots A}_{n \text{ factors}} \quad (n \geq 1)$

$A^0 = I$ (by definition)

Equivalent way of writing $\textcircled{\Downarrow}$:

$$(I - A)^{-1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (I + A + A^2 + A^3 + \dots + A^n).$$

Note: The value $\|A\| < 1$ is called special radius.

Proof. (Simpler than in the book).

First claim: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n A^k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n$ exists.

(Thus, $T_n = I + A + A^2 + \dots + A^n$)

Proof. Since $\mathcal{L}(E)$ is a Banach space, it suffices to show that T_n is a Cauchy seq. in $\mathcal{L}(E)$. We have (for $n \geq m$)

$$\begin{aligned} \|T_n - T_m\| &= \|A^m + A^{m+1} + \dots + A^n\| \\ &= \|A^m (I + A + \dots + A^{n-m})\| \quad (\text{by Cor. 7-7}) \\ &\leq \|A\|^m (1 + \|A\| + \|A\|^2 + \dots + \|A\|^{n-m}) \\ &\leq \|A\|^m \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|A\|^k \quad (\text{geometric series}) \\ &= \|A\|^m \frac{1}{1 - \|A\|}. \end{aligned}$$

This $\rightarrow 0$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$
 \Rightarrow Cauchy seq \Rightarrow convergence.

Thus, $T = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k \in \mathcal{L}(E)$.

(Claim 2: $T(I - A) = (I - A)T = I$.)

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} (I - A)T &= (I - A) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n A^k \quad (\text{move } (I - A) \text{ inside limit}) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sum_{k=0}^n A^k - \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} A^k \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (I - A^{n+1}) = I \\ \|A^{n+1}\| &\leq \|A\|^{n+1} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

The same computation with $(I - A)$ on the other side gives $T(I - A) = I$. So $T = (I - A)^{-1}$ \square

7.11a Cor. Let E be a Banach space, and $A \in \mathcal{L}(E)$. If $\|I - A\| < 1$, then A is invertible, and

$$A^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (I - A)^k$$

Proof. Apply Thm 7.10 with A replaced by $B = (I - A)$. \square

7.11b Cor. The set of all invertible operators in $L(E)$ is open in $L(E)$.

Meaning that for every $A \in L(E)$ which is invertible there is an $\epsilon > 0$ such that all $B \in L(E)$ with $\|B - A\| < \epsilon$ are invertible. We can actually take $\epsilon = 1/\|A^{-1}\|$.

Proof. Let A be invertible, and let $\|B - A\| < 1/\|A^{-1}\|$. Then

$$B = A(A^{-1}B) = AC, \text{ where}$$

$$\|C - I\| = \|A^{-1}(B - A)\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \|B - A\| < 1.$$

Thus, by Cor. 7.11a, C is invertible. We claim that $C^{-1}A^{-1}$ is an inverse to B .

This is true because

$$C^{-1}A^{-1}B = C^{-1}C = I \text{ and } B C^{-1}A^{-1} = A A^{-1} B C^{-1}A^{-1} = A C C^{-1}A^{-1} = A A^{-1} = I.$$

"adjoint" or "dual",

VII.6 Adjoint (Dual) Operators

In matrix theory the Hermitian adjoint A^* is defined to be $A^* = \overline{A}^T$ (the transpose of the complex conjugate of A). If A is of dimension $m \times n$, then for all $x \in \mathbb{C}^m$ and $y \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$(Ax, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^m A_{ij} x_j \right) \overline{y_i} = \sum_{j=1}^m x_j \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \overline{A_{ij}} y_i \right) = (x, A^*y).$$

In infinite dimensions we use this as a definition of A^* :

7.13 Thm. Let $A \in L(E; F)$ with E and F Hilbert spaces. Then there is a unique operator $A^* \in L(F; E)$ so that

$$(*) (Ax, y)_F = (x, A^*y)_E \quad \forall x \in E \quad \forall y \in F.$$

Moreover, $\|A^*\| = \|A\|$, and $(A^*)^* = A$.

Note: $A: E \rightarrow F$ and $A^*: F \rightarrow E$!

Proof: A) uniqueness: Assume that $(Ax, y)_F = (x, By)_E = (x, Cy)_E \quad \forall x \in E, \forall y \in F$.

Then $By - Cy$ is orthogonal to E , i.e., $By - Cy = 0 \quad \forall y \in F \Rightarrow B = C$.

B) definition of A^* : Fix $y \in F$. The mapping $x \mapsto F(x) = (Ax, y)_F$ is
i) linear since A is linear and $z \mapsto (z, y)$ is linear,
ii) bounded since $|(Ax, y)_F| \leq \|Ax\|_F \|y\|_F \leq \|A\| \|x\|_E \|y\|_F$.

Thus, $F \in E^*$. By Riesz' representation thm,

there is a unique $z \in E$ so that $F(x) = (x, z)$. Clearly z depends on $y \in F$. Let us denote $z = A^*y$.

Claim 1: The mapping $y \mapsto A^*y$ is linear. Proof easy (see book).

Claim 2: The mapping $y \mapsto A^*y$ is bounded. Proof. Apply (*) with $x = A^*y$ to get $\|A^*y\|^2 = (A^*y, A^*y) = (y, AA^*y)$

$$\leq \|y\| \|AA^*y\| \leq \|y\| \|A\| \|A^*y\|.$$

(67)

If $A^*y \neq 0$, then we can divide by $\|A^*y\|$ and get

$$\|A^*y\| \leq \|A\| \|y\|.$$

Trivially, this is also true if $A^*y = 0$. Thus, A^* is bounded, and $\|A^*\| \leq \|A\|$.

c) $(A^*)^* = A$: True because $\forall x \in E$ and $\forall y \in F$,

$$(A^*y, x) = (y, (A^*)^*x) \text{ and}$$

$$(y, Ax) = \overline{(Ax, y)} = \overline{(x, A^*y)} = (A^*y, x).$$

Thus $(y, (A^*)^*x) = (y, Ax) \forall y \in F \forall x \in E$, and by part 4), $A = (A^*)^*$.

D) $\|A^*\| = \|A\|$. True because by B), $\|A^*\| \leq \|A\|$ and $\|A\| = \|(A^*)^*\| \leq \|A^*\|$.

7.13a Defn. A^* is the adjoint (or dual) operator of A .

7.14a Ex. The adjoint of the multiplication operator $(M_f x)(t) = f(t)x(t)$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$ in Ex. 7.2a is the multiplication operator $(M_{\bar{f}} x)(t) = \overline{f(t)}x(t)$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$.

Proof easy. In particular, $(M_f)^* = M_{\bar{f}} \iff f$ is real-valued.

7.14b Ex. The adjoint of the integral operator $(Tx)(t) = \int_a^b k(t,s)x(s)ds$, $c \leq t \leq d$

is the integral operator (over)

$$(T^*y)(s) = \int_c^d y(t) \overline{k(t,s)} dt, \quad a \leq s \leq b.$$

(68)

(note that we this time integrate with respect to the first variable and not the second).

In particular, if $a=c$ and $b=d$ so that $E=F=L^2(a,b)$, then $T=T^*$ if and only if $k(s,t) = \overline{k(t,s)}$ for all $s, t \in (a,b)$.

Proof easy.

7.14c Ex: The adjoint of the differentiation operator $Tf = f'$ in Ex. 7.2c is not defined (at this stage) since this operator is not bounded, and its domain is not all of $L^2(-1,1)$.

7.14d Ex. The adjoint of the right shift S in Ex. 7.2d is the left shift S^* .

Proof. Let T be the left shift defined in 7.2d. (denoted by S^* there) we claim that this is the adjoint of S . To prove this it is enough to show that for all $x \in l^2$ and $y \in l^2$,

$$(Sx, y) = (x, Ty),$$

because of the uniqueness part of Thm. 7.13.

This is easy:

$$\begin{aligned} (Sx, y) &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (Sx)_i \overline{y_i} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_{i-1} \overline{y_i} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x_j \overline{y_{j+1}} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x_j \overline{(Ty)_j} \\ &= (x, Ty). \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

7.15 Thm Adjoint operators have the following properties:

- (i) $(A^*)^* = A$
- (ii) $\|A^*\| = \|A\|$
- (iii) $(AB)^* = B^*A^*$
- (iv) $(\lambda A + \mu B)^* = \bar{\lambda}A^* + \bar{\mu}B^*$
- (v) A is invertible if and only if A^* is invertible, and in this case $(A^{-1})^* = (A^*)^{-1}$.

Proof. (i) - (ii): See Thm 7.13
(iii) For all $x \in H$ and $y \in H_2$

$$\begin{aligned} (x, (AB)^*y) &= (ABx, y) = (Bx, A^*y) \\ &= (x, B^*A^*y). \end{aligned}$$

Since this is true for all x and y we have (why?) $(AB)^* = B^*A^*$.

(iv) Another simple computation analogous to the one above

(v) Let A be invertible. Then, for all x and y ,

$$\begin{aligned} (x, y) &= (AA^{-1}x, y) = (x, (AA^{-1})^*y) \\ &= (x, (A^{-1})^*A^*y). \end{aligned}$$

Thus $(A^{-1})^*A^* = I$. In the same way we prove that $A^*(A^{-1})^* = I$. Thus, A^* is invertible with inverse $(A^{-1})^*$. To get the converse direction we apply the same argument with A replaced by A^* and A^* replaced by $(A^*)^* = A$.

VII. 7 Selfadjoint (Hermitian) operators

7.17 Defn. An operator $A \in L(H)$ is self-adjoint ("sjölvadjungerad") or Hermitian ("hermitisk") iff $A^* = A$, or symmetric in the real case.

Note: Maps H into itself. In the matrix case this means that A is a square matrix.

7.18 Thm: For every self-adjoint operator,

$$\|A\| = \sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} |(Ax, x)|.$$

Note: This simplifies the computation of $\|A\|$ since (Ax, x) is much easier to compute than $\|Ax\|$ for $x \in H$.

Numerically, this means that we maximize and minimize the function (Ax, x) , and take $\|A\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} (Ax, x)$

and $-\min_{\|x\|=1} (Ax, x)$. Note that (Ax, x) is real.

since $(Ax, x) = (x, A^*x) = \overline{(x, Ax)} = \overline{(Ax, x)}$. (71)

Proof: (Easy part): If $\|x\| \leq 1$, then $|(Ax, x)| \leq \|Ax\| \|x\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|^2 \leq \|A\|$, so

$$\|A\| \geq \sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} |(Ax, x)|.$$

Converse part (more difficult): Denote

$$m = \sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} |(Ax, x)|.$$

Then, for all $x \in H$, (put $y = \frac{x}{\|x\|}$)

$$\begin{aligned} |(Ax, x)| &= (\|x\| Ay, \|x\| \cdot y) \\ &= \|x\|^2 (Ay, y) \leq m \|x\|^2. \quad (*) \end{aligned}$$

We "polarize" this function:

$$A(x+y), x+y = (Ax, x) + (Ax, y) + (Ay, x) + (Ay, y),$$

where $(Ay, x) = (y, A^*x) = (y, Ax) = \overline{(Ax, y)}$,
so

$$(A(x+y), x+y) = (Ax, x) + (Ay, y) + 2 \operatorname{Re}(Ax, y).$$

In the same way:

$$(A(x-y), x-y) = (Ax, x) + (Ay, y) - 2 \operatorname{Re}(Ax, y).$$

Subtract $\Rightarrow 4 \operatorname{Re}(Ax, y) = (A(x+y), x+y) - (A(x-y), x-y)$

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{by } *) &\leq m (\|x+y\|^2 + \|x-y\|^2) \quad (\text{Parall. identity}) \\ &= 2m (\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus, } \boxed{\operatorname{Re}(Ax, y) \leq \frac{m}{2} (\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2)}$$

(if A is self-adjoint).

Take an arbitrary $x \in H$ with $Ax \neq 0$.
Then $x \neq 0$. Put $y = \frac{\|x\|}{\|Ax\|} Ax$. Then (72)

$$\begin{aligned} (Ax, y) &= (Ax, \frac{\|x\|}{\|Ax\|} Ax) = \frac{\|x\|}{\|Ax\|} \|Ax\|^2 \\ &= \|x\| \|Ax\|, \text{ so } (Ax, y) > 0, \text{ and} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|Ax\| &= \frac{1}{\|x\|} (Ax, y) \leq \frac{1}{\|x\|} \frac{m}{2} (\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2) \\ &= m \|x\|. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus, } \|A\| = \sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|Ax\| \leq m.$$

7.19 Ex. This is not true for non-self-adjoint operators. For example, let $T =$ a 90° rotation in the plane. This is a unitary operator, i.e., $\|Tx\| = \|x\| \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^2$, so $\|T\| = 1$, but $Tx \perp x$, so $(Tx, x) = 0 \forall x$. Thus $1 = \|T\| \neq \sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} |(Tx, x)| = 0$.

Lemma: Let H be a Hilbert space. A projection operator in H is orthogonal if and only if it is self-adjoint.

Proof: By Homework 23, $\mathcal{N}(P) = \mathcal{R}(P^*)^\perp$, so $\mathcal{N}(P) \perp \mathcal{R}(P)$ iff $P = P^*$, i.e., P is self-adjoint. Conversely, if P is orthogonal, then $\mathcal{R}(P) \perp \mathcal{N}(P) = \mathcal{R}(P)^\perp$, so for all $x, y \in H$,

$$\begin{aligned} (Px, y) &= (Px, Py + Qy) = (Px, Py) = (x, Py) \\ (Px + Qx, Py) &= (x, Py) \Rightarrow P^* = P. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

VII. 8 The spectrum of an operator

In matrix theory we say that $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is an eigenvector if $x \neq 0$ and

$$Ax = \lambda x \quad (\text{i.e. } Ax \parallel x \text{ and } x \neq 0).$$

Then $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$, so $(A - \lambda I)$ is not one-to-one, hence not invertible.

Note: only square matrices have eigenvalues and eigenvectors, since Ax and x must belong to the same space.

In the infinite-dimensional case it is possible that $(A - \lambda I)$ is one-to-one (but not onto, hence we need a more complicated definition. (see examples on p. 58).

7.20a Defn. The spectrum $\sigma(A)$ of an operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ is the set of points $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ for which $\lambda I - A$ is not invertible.

Different possibilities:

- A) A is not one-to-one (possible)
- B) A is not onto (possible)
- C) A is one-to-one and onto, but it does not have a bounded inverse (cf. Defn. 7.5). We shall see later that this is impossible (when H is a Hilbert space).

(if A is bounded, or more generally, A is closed)

(Eigenvörde)

7.20b Defn. λ is an eigenvalue of $A \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ if $\lambda I - A$ is not one-to-one, i.e., there is some nonzero x for which $(\lambda I - A)x = 0$, or equivalently, $Ax = \lambda x$. We call this vector x an eigenvector of A ("Eigenvektor").

7.21 Ex: An operator with no eigenvalues.

We look at the multiplication operator $(M_\phi x)(t) = \phi(t)x(t)$, $0 \leq t < 1$ in $\mathcal{L}^2(0,1)$ (see Ex. 7.2a). Here $\phi \in C[0,1]$. We denote the range of ϕ (restricted to $[0,1]$) by $\phi([0,1])$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For all } \lambda \in \mathbb{C}, \quad ((\lambda I - M_\phi)x)(t) &= \lambda x(t) - \phi(t)x(t) \\ &= [\lambda - \phi(t)]x(t), \quad 0 \leq t < 1. \end{aligned}$$

This is still a multiplication operator $M_{\lambda - \phi}$. Obviously, if $\lambda \notin \phi([0,1])$, then $\lambda - \phi(t) \neq 0$ for all $t \in [0,1]$, and $\frac{1}{\lambda - \phi(t)} \in C[0,1]$.

If we define $g(t) = \frac{1}{\lambda - \phi(t)}$, then

$$(M_g M_{\lambda - \phi} x)(t) = g(t) [(\lambda - \phi(t))x(t)] = x(t), \quad 0 \leq t < 1,$$

and also $M_{\lambda - \phi} M_g x = x$. Thus,

$\lambda I - M_\phi$ is invertible, and $(\lambda I - M_\phi)^{-1} = M_g$. This shows that

no point outside the range of ϕ belongs to the spectrum of M_ϕ .

Proof. We must show that

- i) the spectrum is closed
- ii) the spectrum is bounded.

We begin with ii): If $|\lambda| > \|A\|$, then

$I - \frac{1}{\lambda} A$ is invertible by Thm 7.10,

hence $\lambda(I - \frac{1}{\lambda} A) = (\lambda I - A)$ is invertible,
hence $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$.

Next we take i): $\sigma(A)$ closed \Leftrightarrow the complement is open. Let $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$, so that $(\lambda I - A)$ is invertible. By Corollary 7.11b, if $B \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ and $\|B - (\lambda I - A)\| < \|(\lambda I - A)^{-1}\|^{-1}$, then B is invertible. Choose B to be $B = \mu I - A$, with $|\mu - \lambda| < \|(\lambda I - A)^{-1}\|^{-1}$. Then $\|B - A\| = \|(\mu I - A) - A\| = \|\mu I - 2A\| = |\mu - \lambda| < \|(\lambda I - A)^{-1}\|^{-1}$, so $B = (\mu I - A)$ is invertible and $\mu \notin \sigma(A)$. □

VII.9 Infinite Matrices

Formally, in \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n we get the matrix representation of an operator $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$ like this: Take the basis $\{e^k\}$ in \mathbb{C}^n and ϕ^k in \mathbb{C}^m where n numbers.

$$e^k = \{0, 0, 0, \underbrace{1, 0, \dots}_{k\text{th position}}, \dots\}$$

$$\text{and } \phi^k = \{0, 0, 0, \underbrace{1, 0, 0}_{m \text{ numbers}}, \dots\}$$

Then every $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ can be written as

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j e^j, \text{ and every } y \in \mathbb{C}^m \text{ is given by}$$

$$\textcircled{\oplus} y = (y_1, \dots, y_m) = \sum_{i=1}^m y_i \phi^i, \text{ where } y_i = (y, \phi^i).$$

Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{C}^n; \mathbb{C}^m)$. Then by linearity

$$Ax = \sum_{j=1}^n A x_j e^j = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j A e^j, \text{ and}$$

$$\text{by } \textcircled{\oplus}, Ax = \sum_{i=1}^m (Ax)_i \phi^i = \sum_{i=1}^m (Ax, \phi^i) \phi^i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n x_j (A e^j, \phi^i) \phi^i.$$

Thus,

$$(Ax)_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j,$$

where $A_{ij} = (A e^j, \phi^i)$,

which is the standard "matrix times vector" formula.

The same idea works in infinite dimensions.

7.23 Defn. Let E, F be Hilbert spaces with complete orthonormal bases $\{e_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{\phi_m\}_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$, respectively, and let $A \in \mathcal{L}(E; F)$. Then the matrix of A with respect to $\{e_n\}$ and $\{\phi_m\}$ is the (infinite) array $\{a_{ij}\}_{i,j=1}^\infty$ of complex (or real) numbers given by

$$a_{ij} = (A e_j, \phi_i)$$

7.24 Thm: If $\{a_{ij}\}_{i,j=1}^\infty$ is the matrix of A , then for every

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^\infty x_j e_j = \sum_{j=1}^\infty (x, e_j) e_j.$$

we have $(Ax)_i = (Ax, \phi_i) = \sum_{j=1}^\infty a_{ij} x_j.$

Thus, $Ax = \sum_{i=1}^\infty \left(\sum_{j=1}^\infty a_{ij} x_j \right) \phi_i.$

Proof: (Same as matrix case):

Every $y \in F$ is of the form

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} y_i \phi_i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (y, \phi_i) \phi_i.$$

In particular,

$$Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (Ax)_i \phi_i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (Ax, \phi_i) \phi_i.$$

On the other hand, $x = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^N (x, e_j) e_j$,

and by the linearity and continuity of A ,

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= A \left(\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^N (x, e_j) e_j \right) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^N (x, e_j) A e_j = \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^N x_j A e_j. \end{aligned}$$

Take the inner product with ϕ_i to get

$$\begin{aligned} (Ax)_i &= (Ax, \phi_i) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^N x_j (A e_j, \phi_i) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} x_j, \quad \text{so} \end{aligned}$$

this sum converges, and we can write it as $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} x_j$. □

Problem: Not every collection of numbers $\{a_{ij}\}_{i,j=1}^{\infty}$ defines an operator $E \rightarrow F$!

There are some easy necessary conditions, but no obvious (nontrivial) sufficient conditions.

Example: If $\{a_{ij}\}_{i,j=1}^{\infty}$ is diagonal,

i.e., $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$, then A is bounded if and only if $\sup_j |a_{jj}| < \infty$.

Proof: This is a homework.

Necessary conditions:

- 1) For every $j \in \mathbb{N}$, $A e_j \in F$, so $A e_j = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (A e_j, \phi_i) \phi_i$, and $\|A e_j\|_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |(A e_j, \phi_i)|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_{ij}|^2$.

Thus, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_{ij}|^2 < \infty$

- 2) For every $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |a_{ij}|^2 < \infty$. This follows from 1) and the following theorem:

7.25 Theorem. Let $\{a_{ij}\}_{i,j=1}^{\infty}$ be the matrix of $A \in \mathcal{L}(E; F)$ with respect to the orthonormal bases $\{e_n\}$ in E and $\{\phi_n\}$ in F . Then the matrix of the adjoint operator $A^* \in \mathcal{L}(F; E)$ with respect to the basis $\{\phi_n\}$ in F and the basis $\{e_n\}$ in E is

$$(A^*)_{ij} = \overline{a_{ji}} \quad (\text{complex conjugate transpose}).$$

Proof: $(A^* \phi_i, e_j) = (\phi_i, A e_j) = \overline{(A e_j, \phi_i)} = \overline{a_{ji}}$.

7.26. Pseudotherm Most other "reasonable" matrix results remain true. Thus,

operators can be reduced to ∞ -dim matrices

(for example for numerical computations)