

3.7 We have to show a number of things in this exercise:

i) M_1 is closed:

Suppose $(f_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq M_1$ with $(f_k)_k \rightarrow f \in X$ in the ℓ^1 -norm. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f(2n) - nf(2n-1)| \\ & \leq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f(2n) - f_k(2n)| + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f_k(2n) - nf_k(2n-1)| \\ & \quad + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |nf_k(2n-1) - nf(2n-1)| \\ & \leq \|f - f_k\|_1 + 0 + C \|f_k - f\|_1 \end{aligned}$$

where C is the biggest n such that for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$,

$|nf_k(2n-1) - nf(2n-1)| \neq 0$ (note that such an n exists since $f_k \in X$ and $f_k \rightarrow f$ in ℓ^1).

Taking the limit as $k \rightarrow \infty$, we get that

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f(2n) - nf(2n-1)| = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad f(2n) = nf(2n-1) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

(ii) M_2 is closed:

Let $T: X \rightarrow X$ be given by $(Tf)(n) = f(2n-1)$ for $f \in X$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then T is linear, and

$$\|Tf\|_1 = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f(2n-1)| \leq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f(n)| = \|f\|_1$$

shows that T is bounded. Hence T is continuous by Prop 1.1.1 in ELA, and so $\text{Ker } T = T^{-1}(\{0\}) = M_2$ is closed.

(iii) $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{0\}$:

Suppose $f \in M_1 \cap M_2$. Then $f(2n-1) = 0$ for all n since $f \in M_2$, but then $f(2n) = n f(2n-1) = 0$ for all n since $f \in M_1$. Since all natural numbers are either of the form $2n-1$ or $2n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have that $f = 0$.

(iv) $M_1 + M_2 = X$:

Let $f \in X$. Define $f_1, f_2: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by

$$f_1(n) = \begin{cases} f(n) & ; n \text{ odd} \\ \frac{n}{2} f(n-1) & ; n \text{ even} \end{cases} \quad (*)$$

$$f_2(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & ; n \text{ odd} \\ f(n) - \frac{n}{2} f(n-1), & n \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

From the definitions it is clear that $f_1 \in M_1$, $f_2 \in M_2$ and $f_1 + f_2 = f$.

v) Projection of X down to M_1 along M_2 is unbounded.

Let $P: X \rightarrow X$, $P(f) = f_1$ as in (*), i.e.

P is the projection down to M_1 along M_2 .

Define

$$g_h(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & ; n=2h-1 \\ 0 & ; \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then $\|g_h\|_1 = 1$ while

$$\begin{aligned} \|P(g_h)\|_1 &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |P(g_h)(2n-1)| + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |P(g_h)(2n)| \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |g_h(2n-1)| + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |n g_h(2n-1)| \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (n+1) |g_h(2n-1)| = h+1 \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that P is unbounded.

3.9 Suppose $X = M_1 + M_2$ and that M_2 is T -invariant.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } M_1 &= \text{Ker}(I-T) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2 : \begin{pmatrix} x+iy \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \right\} \\ &\cong \mathbb{C} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right). \end{aligned}$$

In order for $X = M_1 + M_2$ to hold true, we need M_2 to be a 1-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{C}^2 , and so $M_2 = \mathbb{C} \left(\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \right)$ for some $\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \in \mathbb{C}^2$ with $y_0 \neq 0$ (otherwise $\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \in M_1$).

For M_2 to be T -invariant, we need

$$\begin{aligned} T \left(\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \right) &= \left(\begin{pmatrix} x_0 + iy_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \alpha \left(\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \text{ for some } \alpha \in \mathbb{C}, \text{ and so} \\ y_0 = \alpha y_0 &\text{ gives } \alpha = 1 \text{ since } y_0 \neq 0. \text{ But then } x_0 + iy_0 = x_0 \\ \text{which gives } y_0 &= 0, \text{ a contradiction. Hence no such} \\ \text{subspace } M_2 &\text{ exists.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{3.10} \quad a) \quad S^2 &= (P_1 - P_2)^2 = P_1^2 - P_1 P_2 - P_2 P_1 + P_2^2 \\ &= P_1 + P_2 = I. \end{aligned}$$

Prop 3.2.6.

in ELA

Furthermore, we have

$$S = P_1 - P_2 = (I - P_2) - P_2 = I - 2P_2 = P_1 - (I - P_1) = 2P_1 - I,$$

and so

$$P_1 = \frac{1}{2}(I + S)$$

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{2}(I - S).$$

$$\text{Thus } M_1 = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ 3.2.6.}}{P_1}(x) = \ker(P_2) = \ker\left(\frac{1}{2}(I - S)\right) = \ker(I - S)$$

$$M_2 = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ 3.2.6.}}{\ker(P_1)} = \ker\left(\frac{1}{2}(I + S)\right) = \ker(I + S).$$

b) Define $P := \frac{1}{2}(I + S)$. Then $I - P = \frac{1}{2}(I - S)$, and

$$P^2 = \frac{1}{4}(I^2 + IS + SI + S^2) = \frac{1}{4}(2I + 2S) = P$$

and so by ELA: Prop 3.2.8,

$$X = P(x) + \ker(P)$$

with $P(x) = \ker(I - P)$, $(I - P)(x) = \ker(P)$ and P being the projection from X on $P(x)$ along $\ker(P)$.

$$\text{But } \ker(I - S) = \ker\left(\frac{1}{2}(I - S)\right) = \ker(I - P) = P(x)$$

$$\text{and } \ker(I + S) = \ker\left(\frac{1}{2}(I + S)\right) = \ker(P),$$

and $S = 2\frac{1}{2}(I + S) - I = 2P - I$ which shows that S is the symmetry through $\ker(I - S)$ along $\ker(I + S)$.

To show that S is decomposable w.r.t. $X = \text{Ker}(I-S) + \text{Ker}(I+S)$, we show that S commutes with P and appeal to ELA: prop 3.2.28:

$$PS = \frac{1}{2}(I+S)S = \frac{1}{2}(IS + S^2) = \frac{1}{2}(S+I) = P$$

$$SP = \frac{1}{2}(SI + S^2) = \frac{1}{2}(S+I) = P$$

and so S and P commute.

c) Since $S \in \mathcal{B}(X)$, S is continuous. Since I is also continuous, we have that $I-S$ and $I+S$ are continuous, and so $\text{Ker}(I-S) = (I-S)^{-1}(\{0\})$ and $\text{Ker}(I+S) = (I+S)^{-1}(\{0\})$ are closed. Hence

$$X = \text{Ker}(I-S) \oplus \text{Ker}(I+S).$$

d) S is bounded:

$$\begin{aligned} \|S(f)\|_u &= \max_{t \in [-a, a]} |S(f)(t)| = \max_{t \in [-a, a]} |f(-t)| \\ &= \max_{t \in [-a, a]} |f(t)| = \|f\|_u. \quad (\text{for all } f \in X) \end{aligned}$$

$S^2 = I$:

$$S^2(f)(t) = S(f)(-t) = f(-(-t)) = f(t). \quad (\forall f \in X)$$

From b) and c) we get $X = \text{Ker}(I-S) \oplus \text{Ker}(I+S)$.

But $\text{Ker}(I-S) = X_{\text{even}}$

$\text{Ker}(I+S) = X_{\text{odd}}$.

3.11 a) Let $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3\}$ be the eigenvalues of the 3×3 orthogonal matrix $U \neq I$ with $\det U = 1$, counting multiplicity. We need the following facts from linear algebra:

1) An orthogonal matrix is diagonalizable, and so \mathbb{C}^3 has a basis consisting of eigenvectors of U , and the multiplicity of λ_j is equal to $\dim(E_{\lambda_j}^U)$.

2) $|\lambda_j| = 1$ for $j=1, 2, 3$ (since U is orthogonal)

3) $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 = \det U = 1$ (the first equality holds for any matrix)

Now we consider two cases:

Case I: All eigenvalues are real. Then by 2), $\lambda_j = \pm 1$ for each j . If $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 1$ then $\dim(E_1^U) = 3$ and so $E_1^U = \mathbb{C}^3$. If $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ is a basis consisting of eigenvectors of U , then $Ue_j = e_j$ for each j and so $U = I$, a contradiction.

Hence $\lambda_j = -1$ for some j , say $\lambda_1 = -1$. If $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = -1$ then $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 = -1$ which contradicts 3). Thus we have, say $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = -1$ while $\lambda_3 = 1$, and so $\dim(E_1^U) = (\text{multiplicity of } 1) = 1$.

Case II: There are complex eigenvalues, say λ_1 is complex (not real). Then $\overline{\lambda_1}$ is also an eigenvalue since U is a real matrix, say $\lambda_2 = \overline{\lambda_1}$. Now 3) gives $1 = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 = |\lambda_1|^2 \lambda_3 = \lambda_3$, and so $\lambda_3 = 1$. Also, By 1) $\dim(E_1^U) = \text{mult. of } 1 = 1$.

b) We show that both M and N are invariant under U_1 and appeal to ELA: Prop 3.2.20.

Now $M = E_1^V$ is an eigenspace of U and is therefore invariant under V .

Let us show that $N := M^\perp$ is invariant under U . Suppose $x \in N$, so that $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ for all $y \in M$, i.e. $\langle xy \rangle = 0$ for all $y \in \mathbb{R}^3$ with $Uy = y$ (equivalently $U^{-1}y = y$). Then $\langle Ux, y \rangle = \langle x, U^{-1}y \rangle = 0$ for all $y \in M$, so $Ux \in N$.

But then, for $y \in M$, we have

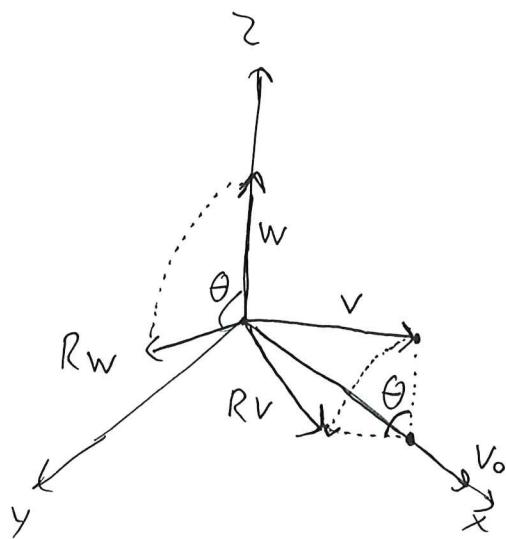
$$\langle Ux, y \rangle = \langle U^{-1}Ux, U^{-1}y \rangle = \langle x, U^{-1}y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle = 0$$

Since U^{-1} is also orthogonal, hence it preserves the Euclidean inner product.

This shows that $U_{x \in N}$ as well, and so M^L is invariant under U .

c) Since the matrix U' or R' is a matrix w.r.t. an orthonormal basis, it is a 2×2 orthogonal matrix. ~~It is well-known~~ Now we know from a) that the eigenvalues of U' are either $\{1, 1\}$ or $\{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}\}$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. In either case, $\det U' = 1$, and so U' is a rotation matrix (it is well-known that 2×2 orthogonal matrices with determinant 1 are precisely the rotation matrices).

d) R (or equivalently its matrix V) acts as the identity on the 1-dimensional subspace E_1^V , and as a rotation matrix on the orthogonal complement of E_1^V . If v_0 is a spanning vector for E_1^V , then we can visualize this as vectors being rotated around the subspace spanned by v_0 : In the illustration, $v_0 = (1, 0, 0)$.



3.14. Let $M_1 = M_2 = \mathbb{R} \times \{0\}$ and $M_3 = \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}$.

Then $M_1 + M_2 + M_3 = \mathbb{R}^2$, $M_1 \cap M_2 \cap M_3 = \{(0,0)\}$?

But $(1,0) \in M_1$, $(-1,0) \in M_2$ and $(0,0) \in M_3$
satisfy

$$(1,0) + (-1,0) + (0,0) = (0,0)$$

while not being all equal to $(0,0)$. This shows that we do not have that X is the direct sum of M_1, M_2 and M_3 .

3.15 Suppose I_0 extends to a bounded linear map $\tilde{I}: X \rightarrow X_0$. Since X_0 is not complete, it is not closed in X , and so it must be a proper subspace of X . Pick $x \in X \setminus X_0$. Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ be a sequence in X_0 with $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty \rightarrow x$ (X_0 is dense in X).

Then $\tilde{I}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{I}(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} I_0(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

\uparrow \uparrow
since \tilde{I} since \tilde{I}
is bounded, extends I_0
it is continuous

But the codomain of \tilde{I} is X_0 and $x \notin X_0$, so this is a contradiction. Hence I_0 does not extend to a bounded linear map $X \rightarrow X_0$.

3.18 a) We show that $T_K(f)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$.

Let $\epsilon > 0$. If $f(t) = 0$ for all $t \in [a, b]$ then

$T_K(f)(s) = 0$ for all $s \in [a, b]$ which is continuous,

so assume that f is not identically zero.

Then by continuity of f and compactness of $[a, b]$,

f is bounded on $[a, b]$, and moreover $0 < \|f\|_u < \infty$.

$$[\|f\|_u = \sup_{t \in [a, b]} |f(t)|].$$

Moreover, K is continuous on $[a, b] \times [a, b]$ which is compact, which means that K is uniformly continuous there. Hence, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $\forall s, r, t \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$|s - r| < \delta \implies |K(s, t) - K(r, t)| < \frac{\epsilon}{(b-a)\|f\|_u}.$$

Now if $|s - r| < \delta$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |T_K(f)(s) - T_K(f)(r)| &= \left| \int_a^b (K(s, t) - K(r, t)) f(t) dt \right| \\ &\leq \int_a^b |K(s, t) - K(r, t)| |f(t)| dt \leq \|f\|_u \int_a^b |K(s, t) - K(r, t)| dt \\ &\leq \|f\|_u \int_a^b \frac{\epsilon}{(b-a)\|f\|_u} dt = \frac{b-a}{b-a} \epsilon = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $T_K(f)$ is continuous

Moreover,

$$\|T_K f\|_2^2 = \int_a^b \left| \int_a^b K(s, t) f(t) dt \right|^2 ds$$

$$= \int_a^b \left| \int_a^b K(s, t) \overline{f(t)} dt \right|^2 ds$$

Cauchy-Schwarz

$$\leq \int_a^b \left(\int_a^b |K(s, t)|^2 dt \right) \left(\int_a^b |\bar{f}(t)|^2 dt \right) ds$$

$$= \left(\int_a^b \int_a^b |K(s, t)|^2 ds dt \right) \|f\|_2^2.$$