

Lecture Notes

Hilbert Space Methods

Summer Term 2011

Peter Junghanns

Remark: The present lecture notes contain only a framework of the contents of the lectures. The lectures themselves present detailed expositions, proofs and examples.

Contents

1	Introduction	7
1.1	The Hilbert space	7
1.2	Linear and bounded operators	9
1.3	Spaces of measurable functions	10
2	Special classes of operators	13
2.1	Selfadjoint operators	13
2.2	Orthoprojections	15
2.3	Isometric and unitary operators	17
3	Spectral properties	19
3.1	Continuous functions of selfadjoint operators	19
3.2	Spectral decomposition of selfadjoint operators	20
3.3	Compact operators	23
4	Spectral integrals	25
4.1	In general unbounded operators	25
4.2	Selfadjoint operators	27
5	Differential operators in $L^2(a, b)$	29
6	The formalism of quantum mechanics	31

Bibliography

- [1] N. I. Achieser, I. M. Glasmann, *Theorie der linearen Operatoren im Hilbert-Raum*, Akademie-Verlag, Berlin, 1975.
- [2] *Hilbert-Räume und Spektralmaße*, Akademie-Verlag, Berlin, 1979.
- [3] M. Reed, B. Simon, *Methods of Modern Mathematical Physics, I, Functional Analysis*, Academic Press, 1980.
- [4] J. Weidmann, *Lineare Operatoren in Hilberträumen, Teil I, Grundlagen*, B. G. Teubner, 2000.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 The Hilbert space

Let \mathbf{H} be a linear space (in general over the field of complex numbers). A map $\mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $(x, y) \mapsto \langle x, y \rangle$ is called **scalar product** or **inner product** on \mathbf{H} , if the following conditions are satisfied:

$$(S1) \quad \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H} \text{ and } \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = \Theta,$$

$$(S2) \quad \langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle} \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbf{H},$$

$$(S3) \quad \langle \alpha x + \beta y, z \rangle = \alpha \langle x, z \rangle + \beta \langle y, z \rangle \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbf{H}, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}.$$

One has the **Cauchy-Schwarz inequality**

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} \sqrt{\langle y, y \rangle} \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbf{H}. \quad (1.1)$$

Using this inequality one can show that

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} \quad (1.2)$$

defines a norm on \mathbf{H} . A linear space $(\mathbf{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ with inner product is called **unitary space**, if $(\mathbf{H}, \|\cdot\|)$ with $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ is a Banach space. A unitary space \mathbf{H} is called **Hilbert space**, if for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a linearly independent system in \mathbf{H} with exactly n elements.

Proposition 1.1 *Let $(\mathbf{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ be a Hilbert space.*

1. *The map $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $(x, y) \mapsto \langle x, y \rangle$ is continuous.*

2. *If $\mathbf{L} \subset \mathbf{H}$ is a linear subspace of \mathbf{H} , then*

$$\mathbf{L}^\perp := \{x \in \mathbf{H} : \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \quad \forall y \in \mathbf{L}\}$$

*is a closed linear subspace of \mathbf{H} , the so called **orthogonal complement** of \mathbf{L} , where $\mathbf{L} \cap \mathbf{L}^\perp = \{\Theta\}$.*

3. *Let $\mathbf{L} \subset \mathbf{H}$ a closed linear subspace of \mathbf{H} . Then, each element $x \in \mathbf{H}$ admits the unique representation $x = y + z$ with $y \in \mathbf{L}$ and $z \in \mathbf{L}^\perp$. Moreover,*

$$\|x - y\| = \inf \{\|x - w\| : w \in \mathbf{L}\}.$$

*The vector y is called **orthogonal projection** of x onto \mathbf{L} . Furthermore, we write $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{L} \oplus \mathbf{L}^\perp$.*

4. If $\mathbf{L} \subset \mathbf{H}$ is a linear subspace, then $\overline{\mathbf{L}} = \mathbf{H}$ if and only if there exists no $x^* \in \mathbf{H} \setminus \{\Theta\}$ such that $\langle x, x^* \rangle = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbf{L}$.

A system $B = \{b_0, b_1, \dots, b_n, \dots\} = \{b_n\}_{n=0}^\infty \subset \mathbf{H}$ is called **linearly independent**, if each finite subsystem is linearly independent. The system B is referred to as an **orthonormal system** (ONS), if $\langle b_j, b_k \rangle = \delta_{jk}$ for all $j, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Remark, that each ONS is automatically linearly independent.

Corollary 1.2 (Schmidt's orthogonalisation method) Let $\{b_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ be a linearly independent system. Set

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle b_0, b_0 \rangle}} b_0.$$

Then $\langle a_0, a_0 \rangle = 1$. We determine $\beta_{10} \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\tilde{a}_1 = b_1 + \beta_{10} a_0$$

is orthogonal w.r.t. a_0 , i.e. $\beta_{10} = -\langle b_1, a_0 \rangle$. Since $\tilde{a}_1 \neq \Theta$ we can set

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle \tilde{a}_1, \tilde{a}_1 \rangle}} \tilde{a}_1.$$

If $a_0, \dots, a_{m-1} \in \text{span}\{b_0, \dots, b_{m-1}\}$ are determined such that

$$\langle a_j, a_k \rangle = \delta_{jk}, \quad j, k = 0, 1, \dots, m-1,$$

then we set

$$\tilde{a}_m = b_m + \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \beta_{mk} a_k \quad \text{mit} \quad \beta_{mk} = -\langle b_m, a_k \rangle$$

and

$$a_m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle \tilde{a}_m, \tilde{a}_m \rangle}} \tilde{a}_m.$$

In this way we obtain an ONS $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ with the property

$$\text{span}\{a_0, \dots, a_n\} = \text{span}\{b_0, \dots, b_n\}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Corollary 1.3 Let $\{e_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ be an ONS in \mathbf{H} ,

$$\mathbf{L}_m = \text{span}\{e_0, \dots, e_m\}, \quad m = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

and

$$\mathbf{L} = \overline{\left\{ \sum_{k=0}^m \alpha_k e_k : \alpha_k \in \mathbb{C}, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots \right\}}.$$

Then

$$\sum_{k=0}^m \langle x, e_k \rangle e_k$$

is the **best approximation** to $x \in \mathbf{H}$ by elements from \mathbf{L}_m . The numbers $\gamma_k = \langle x, e_k \rangle$ are called **Fourier coefficients** of x w.r.t. the ONS $\{e_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$. **Bessel's inequality**

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_k \rangle|^2 \leq \|x\|^2$$

holds for all $x \in \mathbf{H}$. If $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{H}$, then

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left\| x - \sum_{k=0}^m \langle x, e_k \rangle e_k \right\| = 0, \text{ d.h. } x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \langle x, e_k \rangle e_k, \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H}.$$

In this case **Parseval's equality**

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_k \rangle|^2 = \|x\|^2 \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H},$$

is in force, and we call und man nennt $\{e_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ a **complete orthonormal system (CONS)** in \mathbf{H} and the map $\mathcal{F} : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \ell^2$, $x \mapsto (\langle x, e_n \rangle)$ **Fourier transform**, which, due to Parseval's equality, is an **isometric isomorphism**.

1.2 Linear and bounded operators

Let \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} be linear spaces over the field \mathbb{K} of real or complex numbers. As it is well known a map $f : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}$, $x \mapsto f(x)$ is called **linear**, if for arbitrary $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbf{X}$ and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{K}$ the relation

$$f(\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2) = \alpha_1 f(x_1) + \alpha_2 f(x_2)$$

holds. Often such a linear map is named **linear operator**, and instead of $f(x)$ there is written Ax . The set of all linear operators between \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} is denoted by $L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$. If we define

$$(\alpha A + \beta B)x = \alpha(Ax) + \beta(Bx), \quad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}, \quad A, B \in L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}),$$

then $L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$ is a linear space over \mathbb{K} .

Proposition 1.4 *Let $(\mathbf{X}, \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{X}})$ and $(\mathbf{Y}, \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{Y}})$ be two normed spaces over the field \mathbb{K} as well as $A \in L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$. Then the following assertions are equivalent:*

- (a) $A : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}$ is a continuous map.
- (b) $A : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}$ is uniformly continuous.
- (c) $A : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}$ is in $\Theta \in \mathbf{X}$ continuous.
- (d) There exists a constant $M \geq 0$ such that

$$\|Ax\|_{\mathbf{Y}} \leq M \|x\|_{\mathbf{X}} \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{X}. \quad (1.3)$$

If there is no risk of misunderstanding, in what follows we will omit the indices of the notation of the norms.

The set of operators $A \in L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$, for which one (and, consequently, each) of the assertions (a)-(d) of the Proposition 1.4 is true, will be denoted by $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$. If, for $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$, we define

$$\|A\|_{\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}} := \sup \{ \|Ax\| : x \in \mathbf{X}, \|x\| \leq 1 \}. \quad (1.4)$$

then $(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}})$ becomes a normed space, the space of all **bounded linear operators**.

If $A \in L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$, then the **nullspace** of A , $N(A) := \{x \in \mathbf{X} : Ax = \Theta\}$, is a closed linear subspace of \mathbf{X} .

Proposition 1.5 *If \mathbf{Y} is a Banach space, then $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$ is a Banach space, too.*

The elements of $L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbb{K})$ are called **linear functionals**. The space $(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbb{K}), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}})$ of all linear and continuous functionals is called the **dual space** of \mathbf{X} and is denoted by \mathbf{X}^* .

Theorem 1.6 (Riesz' representation theorem) *Let \mathbf{H} be a Hilbert space and $f \in \mathbf{H}^*$. Then there exists a unique $x_f \in \mathbf{H}$, such that*

$$f(x) = \langle x, x_f \rangle \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H}.$$

Moreover, $\|f\|_{\mathbf{H}^*} = \|x_f\|_{\mathbf{H}}$.

Consequently, \mathbf{H}^* and \mathbf{H} can be identified.

1.3 Spaces of measurable functions

We recall some facts from measure and integration theory. Let (Ω, Σ, P) be a measure space and $f_n : \Omega \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ be measurable functions.

- (A) (**Beppo Levi, Lebesgue**) If $0 \leq f_1(\omega) \leq f_2(\omega) \leq \dots$ a.e. and $f_n(t) \rightarrow f(t)$ a.e., then $f : \Omega \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ is measurable and

$$\int_{\Omega} f(\omega) P(d\omega) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} f_n(\omega) P(d\omega).$$

- (B) (**Fatou**) For measurable functions $f_n : \Omega \rightarrow [0, \infty]$

$$\int_{\Omega} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(\omega) P(d\omega) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} f_n(\omega) P(d\omega).$$

- (C) (**Lebesgue**) Let $g : \Omega \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be integrable and $f_n(\omega) \rightarrow f(\omega)$ a.e. as well as $|f_n(\omega)| \leq g(\omega)$ a.e., $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then $f : \Omega \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ is integrable and

$$\int_{\Omega} f(\omega) P(d\omega) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} f_n(\omega) P(d\omega).$$

- (D) (**Lusin**) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. If $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is Lebesgue measurable and bounded, then there is a continuous function $f_0 : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with (m - Lebesgue measure)

$$m \{t \in [0, 1] : f(t) \neq f_0(t)\} < \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \sup \{|f_0(t)| : t \in [0, 1]\} \leq \sup \{|f(t)| : t \in [0, 1]\}.$$

- (E) (**Fréchet**) Every Lebesgue measurable function $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is the limit of an in measure convergent sequence of Polynomials.

- (F) (**Riesz**) If f_n converges to f in measure, then there exists a subsequence $(f_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ converging to f a.e.

On the set of all w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure m measurable functions $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ we consider the equivalence relation

$$f \sim g \quad \iff \quad m \{t \in [0, 1] : f(t) \neq g(t)\} = 0,$$

and, in what follows, we identify the measurable function f with its coset $[f]_{\sim}$. By $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}(0, 1)$ we refer to the space of all these cosets equipped with the metric

$$\rho(f, g) = \int_0^1 \frac{|f(t) - g(t)|}{1 + |f(t) - g(t)|} dt.$$

Proposition 1.7 *The convergence in \mathbf{S} is the convergence w.r.t. the measure, i.e. $f_n \rightarrow f$ in \mathbf{S} if and only if for all $\varepsilon > 0$*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m \{t \in [0, 1] : |f_n(t) - f(t)| > \varepsilon\} = 0.$$

Proposition 1.8 *The metric space \mathbf{S} is complete and separable.*

By $\mathbf{L}^2 = \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1)$ we denote the subset of \mathbf{S} of all functions (more precisely, cosets of functions) f , for which $|f|^2$ is integrable. We equip \mathbf{L}^2 with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathbf{L}^2} = \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt.$$

Proposition 1.9 *The space $(\mathbf{L}^2, \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{L}^2})$ is a separable Hilbert space.*

Chapter 2

Special classes of operators

2.1 Selfadjoint operators

For $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, the adjoint operator $A^* \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is defined by

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbf{H}.$$

We call $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ **selfadjoint**, if $A^* = A$. In all what follows we consider complex Hilbert spaces. (i.e., \mathbf{H} is a linear space over the field of complex numbers).

Proposition 2.1 *An operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is selfadjoint if and only if $\langle Ax, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R} \forall x \in \mathbf{H}$.*

Proposition 2.2 *If $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is selfadjoint then*

$$\|A\| = \sup \{ |\langle Ax, x \rangle| : x \in \mathbf{H}, \|x\| \leq 1 \}.$$

Since, for selfadjoint operators $A, B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, we have $(AB)^* = B^*A^* = BA$, the product of two selfadjoint operators is selfadjoint if and only iff $BA = AB$.

We call $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ invertible, if $A^{-1} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ exists. In this case $(A^{-1})^* = (A^*)^{-1}$.

Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$. By $N(A)$ and $R(A)$ we refer to the **nullspace** and the **image space** of the operator A , respectively,

$$N(A) = \{x \in \mathbf{H} : Ax = \Theta\}, \quad R(A) = \{Ax : x \in \mathbf{H}\}.$$

The **spectrum** $\sigma(A)$ of the operator A is the set of all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, for which $A - \lambda I$ is not bounded invertible, i.e., for which $\nexists (A - \lambda I)^{-1} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$. A number $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is called **eigenvalue** of A , if $N(A - \lambda I) \neq \{\Theta\}$.

Proposition 2.3 *Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$.*

(a) *We have $N(A^*) = R(A)^\perp$ and $\overline{R(A)} = N(A^*)^\perp$.*

(b) *$A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is invertible if and only if there exists an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that*

$$\|Ax\| \geq \varepsilon \|x\| \quad \text{und} \quad \|A^*x\| \geq \varepsilon \|x\| \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H}.$$

- (c) Consequently, the selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is invertible if and only if there exists an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that

$$\|Ax\| \geq \varepsilon \|x\| \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H}.$$

- (d) If $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is selfadjoint then $\sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{R}$, and the eigenvectors w.r.t. different eigenvalues are orthogonal. Moreover, $\sigma(A) \subset [m_A, M_A]$ with

$$m_A = \inf \{ \langle Ax, x \rangle : x \in \mathbf{H}, \|x\| = 1 \} \quad \text{and} \quad M_A = \sup \{ \langle Ax, x \rangle : x \in \mathbf{H}, \|x\| = 1 \}.$$

Definition 2.4 We call an operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ **positive**, if $\langle Ax, x \rangle \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbf{H}$.

In view of Proposition 2.1 each positive operator is selfadjoint. For two selfadjoint operators $A, B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ we write $A \leq B$ or $B \geq A$, if $B - A$ is positive, i.e. $\langle Ax, x \rangle \leq \langle Bx, x \rangle \forall x \in \mathbf{H}$.

Proposition 2.5 If $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is positive then the **generalized Cauchy-Schwarz inequality**

$$| \langle Ax, y \rangle |^2 \leq \langle Ax, x \rangle \langle Ay, y \rangle, \quad x, y \in \mathbf{H},$$

holds.

Proposition 2.6 Let $A, B, C \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ be selfadjoint and $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$. Then:

1. $A \leq B, B \leq C \implies A \leq C$
2. $A \leq B \implies A + C \leq B + C$
3. $A \leq B, B \leq A \implies A = B$
4. $A \geq \Theta \implies T^*AT \geq \Theta$
5. $A \geq \Theta \implies A^n \geq \Theta, n \in \mathbb{N}$
6. $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}, \Theta \leq A \leq \gamma I \implies A^2 \leq \gamma A$

Since $m_AI \leq A \leq M_AI$, i.e. $0 \leq A - m_AI \leq (M_A - m_A)I$, we have

$$(A - m_AI)^2 \leq (M_A - m_A)(A - m_AI) = (M_AI - A)(A - m_AI) + (A - m_AI)^2,$$

which implies $(M_AI - A)(A - m_AI) \geq \Theta$.

Proposition 2.7 If $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is selfadjoint then $m_A, M_A \in \sigma(A)$ (cf. Proposition 2.3).

A sequence of operators $A_n \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is called **strongly convergent** if an operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ exists such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|A_n x - Ax\| = 0 \forall x \in \mathbf{H}$. This is also denoted by $A_n \rightarrow A$.

A sequence of operators $A_n \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is called **bounded**, if the sequence $(\|A_n\|)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded. A sequence of selfadjoint operators $A_n \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H}), n \in \mathbb{N}$, is said to be **monotone**, if neither $A_n \leq A_{n+1} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ or $A_n \geq A_{n+1} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proposition 2.8 Every bounded and monotone sequence of selfadjoint operators is strongly convergent.

We remark, that the strong limit of a sequence of selfadjoint operators is selfadjoint, which follows from $\langle A_n x, y \rangle = \langle x, A_n y \rangle$ by considering $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- For a continuous function $k : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ we consider the operator $K : \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1)$ defined by

$$(Kx)(t) = \int_0^1 k(t, s)x(s) ds.$$

In case of $\overline{k(t, s)} = k(s, t)$, $(t, s) \in [0, 1]^2$ this operator is selfadjoint. Moreover, $\|K\| \leq \sup \{|k(t, s)| : (t, s) \in [0, 1]^2\}$. If $k(t, s)$ is of the form

$$k(t, s) = \sum_{r=1}^N \overline{g_r(t)}g_r(s)$$

with continuous functions $g_r : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, then K is positive.

- The spectrum of an operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is closed. This follows from the fact, that the set $G\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ of the invertible operators is open in $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$. Indeed, if $E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ with $\|E\| < 1$, then $(I - E)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E^n$. For any $A, E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ with $\|E\| < \|A^{-1}\|^{-1}$, the invertibility of $A + E$ follows from

$$A + E = A(I + A^{-1}E) \quad \text{and} \quad \|A^{-1}E\| < 1.$$

In particular, the operator $A - \lambda I = -\lambda(I - \lambda^{-1}A)$ is invertible, if $|\lambda| > \|A\|$. Hence,

$$\sigma(A) \subset \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| \leq \|A\|\}.$$

- The spectrum of the shift operator

$$V : \ell^2 \rightarrow \ell^2, \quad (\xi_0, \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots) \mapsto (0, \xi_0, \xi_1, \dots)$$

is equal to the unit disk $\mathbb{D} = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| \leq 1\}$.

2.2 Orthoprojections

In view of 1.1, for each closed linear subspace $\mathbf{L} \subset \mathbf{H}$ of a Hilbert space \mathbf{H} there exists the orthogonal complement \mathbf{L}^\perp , such that $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{L} \oplus \mathbf{L}^\perp$. Each $x \in \mathbf{H}$ can be uniquely represented in the form $x = x_{\mathbf{L}} + x_{\mathbf{L}^\perp}$ with $x_{\mathbf{L}} \in \mathbf{L}$ and $x_{\mathbf{L}^\perp} \in \mathbf{L}^\perp$.

Definition 2.9 The operator $P_{\mathbf{L}} : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ defined by $P_{\mathbf{L}}x = x_{\mathbf{L}}$ is called **orthogonal projection** or **orthoprojection** from \mathbf{H} onto \mathbf{L} .

Corollary 2.10 For $P = P_{\mathbf{L}}$ we have $P^2 = P$ and $\|P\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})} = 1$, if $P \neq \Theta$ (i.e. $P \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$).

Corollary 2.11 A linear operator $P : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is an orthoprojection if and only if

$$\langle P^2x, y \rangle = \langle Px, y \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \langle Px, y \rangle = \langle x, Py \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbf{H},$$

i.e. if and only if $P^2 = P$ and $P^* = P$.

Proposition 2.12 Let $P_{\mathbf{L}}, P_{\mathbf{M}} : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ be two orthoprojections.

- (a) The product $P_{\mathbf{L}}P_{\mathbf{M}}$ is a projection iff $P_{\mathbf{L}}P_{\mathbf{M}} = P_{\mathbf{M}}P_{\mathbf{L}}$. In this case $R(P_{\mathbf{L}}P_{\mathbf{M}}) = \mathbf{L} \cap \mathbf{M}$.

- (b) We have $\mathbf{L} \perp \mathbf{M}$ if and only if $P_{\mathbf{L}}P_{\mathbf{M}} = \Theta$.
- (c) The sum $P_{\mathbf{L}} + P_{\mathbf{M}}$ is an orthoprojection if and only if $\mathbf{L} \perp \mathbf{M}$.
- (d) The difference $P_{\mathbf{L}} - P_{\mathbf{M}}$ is an orthoprojection if and only if $\mathbf{M} \subset \mathbf{L}$.
- (e) The inclusion $\mathbf{M} \subset \mathbf{L}$ is equivalent to both $\|P_{\mathbf{M}}x\| \leq \|P_{\mathbf{L}}x\| \ \forall x \in \mathbf{H}$ and to $P_{\mathbf{M}} \leq P_{\mathbf{L}}$.

According to Prop. 2.12,(b) we call two orthoprojections P and Q **orthogonal** if $PQ = \Theta$.

Corollary 2.13 *If P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n are orthoprojections then their sum $P_0 + P_1 + \dots + P_n$ is an orthoprojection if and only if they are pairwise orthogonal. A series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n$ of pairwise orthogonal orthoprojections converges strongly to an orthoprojection.*

We say that $A_n \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ converges **weakly** to $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle A_n x, y \rangle = \langle A x, y \rangle \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathbf{H}.$$

Proposition 2.14 *Let $(P_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of orthoprojections $P_n : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$.*

- (a) *If $(P_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is monotone, then it converges to an orthoprojection $P : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$.*
- (b) *If the sequence $(P_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges weakly to an orthoprojection, then it converges strongly.*

Definition 2.15 *For two linear subspaces $\mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2 \subset \mathbf{H}$, the number*

$$\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2) := \|P_2 - P_1\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})},$$

where $P_j = P_{\overline{\mathbf{M}_j}}$, $j = 1, 2$, denotes the so called **opening** of these subspaces.

Corollary 2.16 *For two linear subspaces $\mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2 \subset \mathbf{H}$ we have*

- (a) $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2) = \mathcal{O}(\overline{\mathbf{M}_1}, \overline{\mathbf{M}_2}) = \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}_1^{\perp}, \mathbf{M}_2^{\perp})$,
- (b) $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2) = \max \left\{ \sup_{x \in \overline{\mathbf{M}_2}, \|x\|=1} \|(I - P_1)x\|, \sup_{y \in \overline{\mathbf{M}_1}, \|y\|=1} \|(I - P_2)y\| \right\}$.

Proposition 2.17 *If the opening of two linear subspaces is smaller than 1 then they have equal dimension.*

Definition 2.18 *A linear subspace $\mathbf{M} \subset \mathbf{H}$ is called **invariant subspace** of the operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, if $Ax \in \mathbf{M} \ \forall x \in \mathbf{M}$. A linear subspace $\mathbf{M} \subset \mathbf{H}$ is called **reducing subspace** of the operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ if \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{M}^{\perp} are invariant subspaces of A .*

Let $P = P_{\overline{\mathbf{M}}}$ and $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$.

- \mathbf{M} invariant w.r.t. $A \implies \overline{\mathbf{M}}$ invariant w.r.t. $A \iff PAP = AP$
- \mathbf{M}^{\perp} invariant w.r.t. $A \iff PAP = PA \iff \overline{\mathbf{M}}$ invariant w.r.t. A^*
- $\overline{\mathbf{M}}$ reducing w.r.t. $A \iff \overline{\mathbf{M}}$ invariant w.r.t. A and A^*
- $A = A^*$: $\overline{\mathbf{M}}$ reducing w.r.t. $A \iff \overline{\mathbf{M}}$ invariant w.r.t. $A \iff PA = AP$
- \mathbf{M} reducing w.r.t. $A \implies Ax = PAPx + (I - P)A(I - P)x \ \forall x \in \mathbf{H}$

Example 2.19 Let $\mathbf{H} = \ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$. For $\xi \in \ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$, we define $f(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \xi_k t^k$, $t \in \mathbb{T} :=$

$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$, so that $f \in \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{T})$ and $\xi_k = \widehat{f}_k := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(e^{is}) e^{-iks} ds$. For $a \in \mathbf{C}(\mathbb{T})$, the operator $T^o(a) : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ defined by $(T^o(a)\xi)_j = \widehat{af}_j$, $j \in \mathbb{Z}$, is linear and bounded. Moreover,

$T^o(a)\xi = \left(\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \widehat{a}_{j-k} \xi_k \right)_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}$, and $T^o(a)$ is selfadjoint if and only if $a(t)$ is real valued. The sub-

space $\ell_+^2(\mathbb{Z}) = \{\xi \in \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}) : \xi_k = 0, k < 0\}$ is invariant w.r.t. $T^o(a)$ if and only if $\widehat{a}_k = 0 \forall k < 0$. The operator $T(a) : \ell_+^2(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \ell_+^2(\mathbb{Z})$, $\xi \mapsto P_+ T^o(a) P_+ \xi$, where $P_+ \xi = (\dots, 0, \dots, 0, \xi_0, \xi_1, \dots)$, is called **Toeplitz operator** with symbol $a(t)$.

Example 2.20 For $[a, b] \subset (0, 1)$, we consider the orthoprojection $P : \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1)$, $u \mapsto Pu$, where $(Pu)(t) = \begin{cases} u(t) & : t \in [a, b], \\ 0 & : t \in (0, 1) \setminus [a, b]. \end{cases}$ Further, let $k : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a continuous function and $K : \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1)$ be defined by

$$(Ku)(t) = \int_0^1 k(t, s) u(s) ds.$$

Then PKP is given by

$$(PKP)(t) = \begin{cases} \int_a^b k(t, s) u(s) ds & : t \in [a, b], \\ 0 & : t \in (0, 1) \setminus [a, b]. \end{cases}$$

2.3 Isometric and unitary operators

Let $(\mathbf{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ and $(\mathbf{H}_j, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_j)$, $j = 1, 2$, be Hilbert spaces.

Definition 2.21 A surjective map $V : \mathbf{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathbf{H}_2$ is called **isometric operator** if

$$\langle Vx, Vy \rangle_2 = \langle x, y \rangle_1 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbf{H}_1.$$

An isometric operator $U : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is called **unitary operator**.

Corollary 2.22 An isometric operator is invertible and linear.

Definition 2.23 An operator $V \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is called a **partial isometry** if

$$\langle Vx, Vx \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle \quad \forall x \in N(V)^\perp.$$

Corollary 2.24 If $V \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H}_1, \mathbf{H}_2)$, $R(V) = \mathbf{H}_2$, and $\langle Vx, Vx \rangle_2 = \langle x, x \rangle_1 \forall x \in \mathbf{H}_1$ then $V : \mathbf{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathbf{H}_2$ is isometric.

Proposition 2.25 For $V \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, the following assertions are equivalent:

- (a) V is a partial isometry.
- (b) $V = VV^*V$.
- (c) V^*V is an orthoprojection.

Example 2.26 Let $(e_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a CONS in \mathbf{H} . Then the operator

$$V : \mathbf{H} \longrightarrow \mathbf{H}, \quad x \mapsto \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \langle x, e_{n+1} \rangle e_n$$

is a partial isometry.

Example 2.27 Let $\varphi(t) = \sqrt{1-t^2}$, $t \in [-1, 1]$, and define the Hilbert space \mathbf{L}_{φ}^2 as the space of all w.r.t. the weight $\varphi(t)$ square integrable (classes of) functions $f : (-1, 1) \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ equipped with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\varphi} = \int_{-1}^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} \varphi(t) dt.$$

The systems $(\varphi_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $(U_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ form CONS in \mathbf{L}_{φ}^2 , where $\varphi_n(t) = \frac{T_n(t)}{\sqrt{1-t^2}}$ and where

$$T_0(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \quad T_n(\cos\theta) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cos(n\theta), \quad n > 0, \quad U_n(\cos\theta) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{\sin((n+1)\theta)}{\sin\theta}, \quad n \geq 0,$$

are the Chebyshev polynomials of first and second kind, respectively. The relations

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \text{p.v.} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{T_n(s) ds}{(s-t)\sqrt{1-s^2}} = U_{n-1}(t), \quad -1 < t < 1, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \quad U_{-1}(t) = 0,$$

show that the operator defined by

$$(Sf)(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \text{p.v.} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(s) ds}{s-t}, \quad -1 < t < 1,$$

on the linear subspace $\text{span} \{\sigma\varphi_n : n \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ can be continuously extended to an operator $S \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{L}_{\varphi}^2)$, namely by

$$Sf = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle f, \varphi_n \rangle_{\varphi} U_n.$$

The operator $S : \mathbf{L}_{\varphi}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{L}_{\varphi}^2$ defined in this way is a partial isometry.

Example 2.28 In $\mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$, the system $\left\{ t^k e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} : k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \right\}$ is linearly independent. Schmidt's orthogonalization procedure leads to $\{\varphi_k(t) : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ with

$$\varphi_k(t) = H_k(t) e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}}, \quad k \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

where $H_k(t)$ denotes the k th (normalized) Hermite-polynomial,

$$H_k(t) = \frac{(-1)^k}{\sqrt{\chi_k}} e^{t^2} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right)^k e^{-t^2}, \quad \chi_k = \sqrt{\pi} 2^k k!.$$

The system $(\varphi_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is a CONS in $\mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$. The operator F defined by

$$(Fg)(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ist} g(s) ds$$

has the property $F\varphi_k = (-i)^k \varphi_k$, which allows us to extend this operator in a unique way from $\text{span} \{\varphi_k : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ to a unitary operator $F : \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$.

Chapter 3

Spectral properties of selfadjoint and compact operators

3.1 Continuous functions of selfadjoint operators

Let $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of all algebraic polynomials with real coefficients. For a selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, by $\mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R})$ we denote the set of all continuous functions $f : [m_A, M_A] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If $f \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R})$ then we put

$$m_A(f) = \min \{f(t) : m_A \leq t \leq M_A\}, \quad M_A(f) = \max \{f(t) : m_A \leq t \leq M_A\}$$

and

$$\gamma_A(f) = \max \{|f(t)| : m_A \leq t \leq M_A\}.$$

Moreover, by $\text{comm}(A)$ we refer to the set of all operators from $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, which commute with $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$.

Proposition 3.1 *If the polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ is nonnegative on the spectral interval $[m_A, M_A]$ of the selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, then $p(A) \geq \Theta$.*

Proposition 3.2 *Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ be selfadjoint. The map $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, $p \mapsto p(A)$ can be uniquely extended to a linear and multiplicative map*

$$\mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H}), \quad f \mapsto f(A)$$

satisfying $\|f(A)\| \leq \gamma_A(f)$. For all $f \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R})$ and $g \in \mathbf{C}([m_A(f), M_A(f)], \mathbb{R})$ we have

- (a) $m_A(f)I \leq f(A) \leq M_A(f)I$,
- (b) $\text{comm}(A) \subset \text{comm}(f(A))$,
- (c) $g(f(A)) = (g \circ f)(A)$.

Remark 3.3 *Multiplicativity of the map $f \rightarrow f(A)$ (mentioned in Theorem 3.2) means that, for all $f, g \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R})$, we have $(fg)(A) = f(A)g(A)$.*

Corollary 3.4 *The map $\mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, $f \mapsto f(A)$ is positive, i.e., $f(t) \geq 0 \forall t \in [m_A, M_A]$ implies $f(A) \geq \Theta$.*

Corollary 3.5 For each positive operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ there exists exactly one positive operator $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ with $B^2 = A$, namely $B = \sqrt{A}$.

Corollary 3.6 If the positive operators $A, B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ commute then the operator AB is also positive.

Corollary 3.7 Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ be selfadjoint. Then the operators

$$|A| \quad \text{and} \quad A^\pm = \frac{1}{2}(|A| \pm A)$$

are positive, where

$$|A| = \sqrt{A^2} \quad \text{and} \quad A^+ A^- = \Theta.$$

Remark that it is possible to define $|A| = \sqrt{A^* A}$ for all operators $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$. In case of $A^* = A$ this definition coincides with the above one.

Proposition 3.8 (polar decomposition) For each operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ there exists exactly one operator $V \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ such that $A = V\sqrt{A^* A}$ and $N(A) \subset N(V)$. Moreover, V is a partial isometry, $\sqrt{A^* A} = V^* A$, and $I - V^* V = P_{N(A)}$.

3.2 Spectral decomposition of selfadjoint operators

$$\text{Let } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, e_\lambda(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & : t < \lambda, \\ 0 & : \lambda \leq t, \end{cases} \quad \text{and, for } n \in \mathbb{N}, e_{\lambda,n}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & : t < \lambda - \frac{1}{n}, \\ n(\lambda - t) & : \lambda - \frac{1}{n} \leq t \leq \lambda, \\ 0 & : \lambda < t. \end{cases}$$

Then, for a selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\lambda \leq \mu$, we have (see Corollary 3.4)

$$\text{(Ea)} \quad \Theta \leq e_{\lambda,n}(A) \leq e_{\lambda,n+1}(A) \leq I,$$

$$\text{(Eb)} \quad I - e_{\lambda,2n}(A) \leq [I - e_{\lambda,n}(A)]^2 \leq I - e_{\lambda,n}(A),$$

$$\text{(Ec)} \quad e_{\lambda,n}(A) \leq e_{\mu,n}(A).$$

By Proposition 2.8 and (Ea) we get the existence of $E_\lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ with

$$e_{\lambda,n}(A) \longrightarrow E_\lambda =: e_\lambda(A). \quad (3.1)$$

Proposition 3.9 Assume that $f \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R})$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\lambda \leq \mu$. Then

$$\text{(a)} \quad a(E_\mu - E_\lambda) \leq f(A)(E_\mu - E_\lambda) \text{ if } a \leq f(t), t \in [\lambda, \mu],$$

$$\text{(b)} \quad f(A)(E_\mu - E_\lambda) \leq b(E_\mu - E_\lambda) \text{ if } f(t) \leq b, t \in [\lambda, \mu].$$

Proposition 3.10 The operators E_λ , $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, are orthoprojections satisfying the following properties:

$$\text{(a)} \quad E_\lambda = \Theta \text{ for } \lambda \leq m_A \text{ and } E_\lambda = I \text{ for } M_A < \lambda,$$

$$\text{(b)} \quad (A - \lambda I)E_\lambda \leq \Theta \leq (A - \lambda I)(I - E_\lambda),$$

$$\text{(c)} \quad E_\lambda \leq E_\mu \text{ for } \lambda \leq \mu,$$

- (d) $\lambda(E_\mu - E_\lambda) \leq A(E_\mu - E_\lambda) \leq \mu(E_\mu - E_\lambda)$ for $\lambda \leq \mu$,
- (e) $E_\lambda x = \theta$ if $Ax = \lambda x$.

Moreover, for each $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and each $B \in \text{comm}(A)$ the space $R(E_\lambda)$ is a reducing subspace of B .

Proposition 3.11 For each selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ and for each $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists exactly one orthoprojection $E_\lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ satisfying (b) and (e) of Proposition 3.10 and commuting with A . Moreover,

$$A(I - E_0) = A^+, \quad A E_0 = -A^-, \quad (3.2)$$

and

$$A(I - 2E_0) = |A|, \quad A = |A|(I - 2E_0). \quad (3.3)$$

Corollary 3.12 For all selfadjoint operators $B \in \text{comm}(A)$ with $\pm A \leq B$, we have $|A| \leq B$, i.e., $|A|$ is the smallest selfadjoint operator with this property.

Corollary 3.13 In the sense of strong operator convergence, the one-sided limits

$$E_{\lambda-0} = \lim_{\mu \uparrow \lambda} E_\mu, \quad E_{\lambda+0} = \lim_{\mu \downarrow \lambda} E_\mu, \quad E_{+\infty} = \lim_{\mu \uparrow +\infty} E_\mu, \quad E_{-\infty} = \lim_{\mu \downarrow -\infty} E_\mu$$

exist for each $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, where $E_{\lambda-0} = E_\lambda \leq E_{\lambda+0}$.

Let $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{H}) \subset \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ denote the set of orthoprojections in \mathbf{H} .

Definition 3.14 A map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{H})$, $\lambda \rightarrow E_\lambda$ is called a **spectral map** if $E_\lambda \leq E_\mu$ for $\lambda \leq \mu$ and if $E_{-\infty} = \Theta$, $E_\infty = I$. It is called **left-sided continuous** if $E_{\lambda-0} = E_\lambda$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

In what follows let $\lambda \rightarrow E_\lambda$ be the spectral map defined for the selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ by (3.1).

Proposition 3.15 Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ be selfadjoint. Then

- (a) $R(E_{\lambda+0} - E_\lambda) = N(A - \lambda I) \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$,
- (b) $\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \sigma(A) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0: E_\lambda = E_\mu \forall \mu \in (\lambda - \varepsilon, \lambda + \varepsilon)$.

The numbers of $\sigma(A)$ which are not eigenvalues are called **points of the continuous spectrum** $\sigma_c(A)$ of the operator A , while the set $\sigma_p(A) \subset \sigma(A)$ of eigenvalues is called **point spectrum** of A . Consequently, $\lambda \in \sigma_c(A)$ if and only if $E_{\lambda+0} = E_\lambda$ and $E_{\lambda+\varepsilon} \neq E_{\lambda-\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$.

Example 3.16 Let $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{L}^2(-1, 1)$ and $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ be defined by $(Ax)(t) = tx(t)$. We show that $\sigma(A) = \sigma_c(A) = [-1, 1]$.

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function, let $Z = \{\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\} \in \mathcal{Z}[a, b]$ be a partition of the interval $[a, b]$, and let

$$S(f, Z, \mu) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(\mu_j) (E_{\lambda_j} - E_{\lambda_{j-1}})$$

be a respective **Riemann-Stieltjes sum** w.r.t. the spectral map E_λ , where μ is a set of numbers $\{\mu_j : j = 1, \dots, n\}$ with $\lambda_{j-1} \leq \mu_j < \lambda_j$. By $d(Z) = \max\{|\lambda_j - \lambda_{j-1}| : j = 1, \dots, n\}$ we denote the diameter of the partition Z .

Definition 3.17 A function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **Riemann-Stieltjes integrable** or **uniformly Riemann-Stieltjes integrable** on $[a, b]$ w.r.t. E_λ if, for each sequence $(Z_m)_{m=1}^\infty$ of partitions $Z_m \in \mathcal{Z}[a, b]$ with $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} d(Z_m) = 0$, an arbitrary respective sequence of Riemann-Stieltjes sums $(S(f, Z_m, \mu^m))_{m=1}^\infty$ converges in the strong or in the norm convergence operator topology, respectively. In this case we set

$$\int_a^{b-0} f(\lambda) dE_\lambda := \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} S(Z_m)$$

and

$$\int_a^b f(\lambda) dE_\lambda := \int_a^{b-0} f(\lambda) dE_\lambda + f(b)(E_{b+0} - E_b).$$

Proposition 3.18 For a left-sided continuous spectral map E_λ , any continuous function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly Riemann-Stieltjes integrable.

Let E_λ be a left-sided continuous spectral map. We set $\mathcal{J}_a^b(f) := \int_a^{b-0} f(\lambda) dE_\lambda$ for $f \in \mathbf{C}([a, b], \mathbb{R})$. Then, for $f, g \in \mathbf{C}([a, b], \mathbb{R})$, the following rules hold:

1. $\mathcal{J}_a^b(f) = \mathcal{J}_a^c(f) + \mathcal{J}_c^b(f)$, $a < c < b$.
2. $\mathcal{J}_a^b(f)(E_d - E_c) = \mathcal{J}_c^d(f)$, $a \leq c < d \leq b$.
3. $\mathcal{J}_a^b(f + g) = \mathcal{J}_a^b(f) + \mathcal{J}_a^b(g)$, $\mathcal{J}_a^b(\alpha f) = \alpha \mathcal{J}_a^b(f)$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.
4. $\mathcal{J}_a^b(fg) = \mathcal{J}_a^b(f)\mathcal{J}_a^b(g)$.
5. $\mathcal{J}_a^b(f) \geq \Theta$ if $f(t) \geq 0 \forall t \in [a, b]$.

To each operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ one can associate its **real part** $\operatorname{Re} A = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^*)$ and its **imaginary part** $\operatorname{Im} A = \frac{1}{2i}(A - A^*)$. Then

$$A = \operatorname{Re} A + \mathbf{i} \operatorname{Im} A \quad \text{and} \quad A^* = \operatorname{Re} A - \mathbf{i} \operatorname{Im} A,$$

$\operatorname{Re} A$ and $\operatorname{Im} A$ are selfadjoint operators. Conversely, if $A = A_1 + \mathbf{i} A_2$ with selfadjoint operators $A_j \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ then $A_1 = \operatorname{Re} A$ and $A_2 = \operatorname{Im} A$.

We call an operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ **normal** if $A^*A = AA^*$. An operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is normal if and only if $\operatorname{Re} A$ and $\operatorname{Im} A$ commute, which is also equivalent to

$$A^*A = AA^* = (\operatorname{Re} A)^2 + (\operatorname{Im} A)^2.$$

For a selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ and a function $f = f_1 + \mathbf{i} f_2 \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{C})$ with $f_j \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R})$, the operator

$$f(A) = f_1(A) + \mathbf{i} f_2(A)$$

is well defined, where $f_1(A) = \operatorname{Re} f(A)$ and $f_2(A) = \operatorname{Im} f(A)$. Moreover,

1. $f(A)^* = \overline{f}(A)$,
2. $(\lambda f + \mu g)(A) = \lambda f(A) + \mu g(A)$, $f, g \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{C})$, $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$,
3. $(fg)(A) = f(A)g(A)$, $f, g \in \mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{C})$.

If, for a selfadjoint operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, we define $e^{iA} = \cos(A) + i \sin(A) =: V$, then $V^*V = VV^* = I$, i.e., V is a **unitary operator**.

Proposition 3.19 *If $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ is selfadjoint, $f \in \mathbf{C}[a, b]$, if $a \leq m_A \leq M_A < b$, and if E_λ is the spectral map of A , then*

$$f(A) = \int_a^b f(\lambda) dE_\lambda.$$

Moreover, $\text{comm}(A) = \text{comm} \{E_\lambda : \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

3.3 Compact operators

It is well known that a linear operator $T : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is **compact** if and only if T maps each bounded sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ with $x_n \in \mathbf{H}$ into a precompact sequence $(Tx_n)_{n=1}^\infty$. A sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is called **precompact** if each subsequence possesses a convergent subsequence. The set of linear compact operators is denoted by $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$, and it is well known that $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H}) \subset \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$. Moreover, $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$ is a closed set (w.r.t. the operator norm topology).

Example 3.20 *Let $h : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a Lebesgue measurable function with*

$$\iint_{[0,1]^2} |h(t, s)|^2 ds dt < \infty.$$

Then the operator $T : \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1)$ defined by

$$(Tu)(t) = \int_0^1 h(t, s)u(s) ds$$

is a compact operator. This can be seen, for example, as follows: By $\chi_j^{(n)}(t)$ we denote the characteristic function of the interval $\left[\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right]$, $j = 1, \dots, n \in \mathbb{N}$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist numbers $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lambda_{jk}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{C}$, such that

$$\iint_{[0,1]^2} \left| h(t, s) - \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_{jk}^{(n)} \chi_j^{(n)}(t) \chi_k^{(n)}(s) \right|^2 ds dt < \varepsilon.$$

The operator $\tilde{T} : \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1)$ with

$$(\tilde{T}u)(t) = \int_0^1 \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_{jk}^{(n)} \chi_j^{(n)}(t) \chi_k^{(n)}(s) u(s) ds$$

has finite-dimensional range (the image space is spanned by the functions $\chi_j^{(n)}(t)$), is compact for this reason and fulfils the relation $\left\| \tilde{T} - T \right\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{L}^2(0,1))} < \varepsilon$. Consequently, if we choose a sequence (ε_m) of positive numbers tending to zero, then we find operators $\tilde{T}_m \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{L}^2(0, 1))$ converging to T in norm. The closedness of $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{L}^2(0, 1))$ w.r.t. the operator norm topology implies the compactness of the operator T .

Proposition 3.21 *If $T \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$ then $R(I - T)$ is closed.*

Corollary 3.22 *If $T \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ then $R(T - \lambda I)$ is closed.*

Proposition 3.23 *For an operator $T \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$ we have:*

- (a) *If $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\dim N(T - \lambda I) = \infty$ then $\lambda = 0$.*
- (b) *The only possible accumulation point of the set of eigenvalues of T is zero.*
- (c) *If $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ and if there is a sequence $(x_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$, $x_n \in \mathbf{H}$, such that $x_0 \neq \Theta$, $(T - \lambda I)x_0 = \Theta$, and $(T - \lambda I)x_{n+1} = x_n$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, then $\lambda = 0$.*

For an operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$, the following assertions are equivalent:

- (A) $T \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$,
- (B) $T^*T \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$,
- (C) $T^* \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$.

Corollary 3.24 *If $T \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$ then $\dim N(T - \lambda I) < \infty$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$, $\sigma(T) \setminus \{0\}$ consists only of at most countably many eigenvalues, which can only accumulate in 0. If $\lambda \neq 0$ is an eigenvalue of T then $\bar{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue of T^* . In any case $0 \in \sigma(T)$.*

Consequently, for a compact operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ and $A = I - \mu T$, $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$ we have:

1. **Fredholm alternative:** $Ax = y$ is solvable in \mathbf{H} for every $y \in \mathbf{H}$ if and only if this equation is uniquely solvable.
2. **Finite number of solvability conditions:** $Ax = y \in \mathbf{H}$ is solvable in \mathbf{H} if and only if $y \in N(A^*)^\perp$, where $\dim N(A^*) < \infty$.

Proposition 3.25 *To each compact and selfadjoint operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ there exist a finite sequence or a zero sequence of real numbers $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots$ with $|\lambda_0| \geq |\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots$ and pairwise orthonormal elements $e_k \in \mathbf{H}$ such that*

$$Tx = \sum_k \lambda_k \langle x, e_k \rangle e_k \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H}.$$

If we define $P_k x = \langle x, e_k \rangle e_k$, $x \in \mathbf{H}$, then P_k is an orthoprojection and $P_k P_j = \Theta$ for $k \neq j$ as well as

$$T = \sum_k \lambda_k P_k,$$

where in the case of infinite many eigenvalues the series converges in the operator norm.

Proposition 3.26 *A linear operator $T : \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is compact if and only if there is a sequence of linear operators with finite dimensional range which converges in the operator norm to T .*

Example 3.27 *The operator $K : \mathbf{L}_\sigma^2(-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}_\sigma^2(-1, 1)$, where $\sigma(t) = (1 - t^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, defined by*

$$(Ku)(t) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \ln |s - t| u(s) \sigma(s) ds$$

is compact. We give its diagonal representation according to Proposition 3.25.

Chapter 4

Spectral integrals

4.1 In general unbounded operators

An operator $A : D(A) \subset \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is called **linear**, if its **domain** $D(A)$ is a linear subspace of \mathbf{H} and if for all $x, y \in D(A)$, $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$ we have $A(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lambda Ax + \mu Ay$. The set of all such linear operators is denoted by $L(\mathbf{H})$. An operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is called a **restriction** of $B \in L(\mathbf{H})$ (or B is an **extension** of A), denoted by $A \subset B$ or by $B \supset A$ if $D(A) \subset D(B)$ and $Ax = Bx \forall x \in D(A)$. For $A, B \in L(\mathbf{H})$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ we define

- $D(\lambda A) = D(A)$ and $(\lambda A)x = \lambda Ax$, $x \in D(A)$,
- $D(A + B) = D(A) \cap D(B)$ and $(A + B)x = Ax + Bx$, $x \in D(A + B)$,
- $D(AB) = \{x \in D(B) : Bx \in D(A)\}$ and $(AB)x = A(Bx)$, $x \in D(AB)$.

Consequently, $D(A - \lambda I) = D(A) \forall A \in L(\mathbf{H})$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. For $A_n \in L(\mathbf{H})$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we say that $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$ if

- $D(A) = \left\{ x \in \mathbf{H} : \exists n_0 = n_0(x) \text{ with } x \in \bigcap_{n=n_0}^{\infty} D(A_n) \right\}$ and
- $$Ax = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n x \quad \forall x \in D(A).$$

Of course, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n \in L(\mathbf{H})$. Furthermore, for $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ we define

- $\text{comm}(A) = \{B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H}) : Bx \in D(A), ABx = BAx \forall x \in D(A)\}$.

Example 4.1 *Let us consider two examples of unbounded operators:*

(a) $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$, $D(A) = \left\{ x \in \mathbf{H} : \int_{\mathbb{R}} t^2 |x(t)|^2 dt < \infty \right\}$, $(Ax)(t) = tx(t)$.

(b) $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$, $D(B) = \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}) := \left\{ x \in \mathbf{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}) : \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} |t^n x^{(m)}(t)| < \infty, \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}_0 \right\}$,
 $(Bx)(t) = -x''(t) + t^2 x(t)$.

Definition 4.2 If $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ and $\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H}$ then the **adjoint operator** $A^* \in L(\mathbf{H})$ can be uniquely defined by

$$D(A^*) = \left\{ y \in \mathbf{H} : \sup \{ |\langle Ax, y \rangle| : x \in D(A), \|x\| = 1 \} < \infty \right\}$$

and

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle \quad \forall x \in D(A), \forall y \in D(A^*).$$

If $A \subset B$ then $B^* \subset A^*$.

Definition 4.3 Let $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ and $\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H}$. A number $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is called **regular point** of A if there exists an operator $R_\lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ such that

$$R_\lambda(A - \lambda I)x = x \quad \forall x \in D(A) \quad \text{and} \quad (A - \lambda I)R_\lambda x = x \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{H}.$$

The set of all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ which are not regular points of A is called the **spectrum** of A and denoted by $\sigma(A)$. The set $\rho(A) = \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(A)$ is called the **resolvent set** of A .

Remark: If R_λ fulfils Definition 4.3 then $D(A) = R(R_\lambda)$.

Proposition 4.4 Let $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ with $\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H}$. Then, $\rho(A)$ is open, i.e., $\sigma(A)$ is closed. Moreover,

$$\text{comm}(A) = \text{comm}(R_\lambda) \quad \forall \lambda \in \rho(A).$$

If $\lambda, \mu \in \rho(A)$ then

$$R_\lambda - R_\mu = (\lambda - \mu)R_\mu R_\lambda \quad \text{and} \quad R_\lambda R_\mu = R_\mu R_\lambda.$$

If $\lambda \in \rho(A)$ one also writes $R_\lambda = (A - \lambda I)^{-1}$, since in this case $A - \lambda I : D(A) \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is a bijection with a bounded inverse.

Definition 4.5 An operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is called **symmetric** if

$$\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H} \quad \text{and} \quad \langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, Ay \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in D(A).$$

We say that $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is **selfadjoint** if $A = A^*$.

Proposition 4.6 For $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ the following conditions are equivalent:

- (a) A is symmetric.
- (b) $A \subset A^*$.
- (c) $\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H}$ and $\langle Ax, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall x \in D(A)$.

An operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is selfadjoint if and only if

$$\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H}, \quad \langle Ax, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall x \in D(A), \quad \text{and} \quad D(A^*) \subset D(A).$$

The **graph** of $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is defined as the set

$$\Gamma(A) = \{(x, Ax) : x \in D(A)\} \subset \mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}.$$

For $A, B \in L(\mathbf{H})$, the relation $A \subset B$ is equivalent to $\Gamma(A) \subset \Gamma(B)$. Let us $\mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}$ equip with the inner product

$$\langle (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \rangle_{\mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}} := \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle + \langle y_1, y_2 \rangle.$$

Then, the operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is called a **closed operator**, if $\Gamma(A)$ is a closed subset of $\mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}$. This is equivalent to

$$x_n \in D(A), x_n \rightarrow x, y_n = Ax_n \rightarrow y \implies x \in D(A), y = Ax.$$

The **closed graph theorem** says that a closed operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ with $D(A) = \mathbf{H}$ is in $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$.

Corollary 4.7 *If $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is selfadjoint, if $B \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is symmetric, and if $A \subset B$ then $A = B$. If $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is symmetric with $D(A) = \mathbf{H}$ then $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$.*

Definition 4.8 *An operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is called **closable**, if there exists a closed operator $B \in L(\mathbf{H})$ such that $A \subset B$.*

Proposition 4.9 *If A is closable then there exists a smallest closed extension \overline{A} , the **closure** of A , in the sense that $\overline{A} \subset B$ for every closed extension B of A . If $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is closable then $\Gamma(\overline{A}) = \overline{\Gamma(A)}$.*

Example 4.10 *We show that, for each Hilbert space, there exists a linear operator which is not closable.*

Remark 4.11 *If $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is closed with $\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H}$ then $\lambda \in \rho(A)$ if and only if $A - \lambda I : D(A) \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is a bijection.*

4.2 Selfadjoint operators

Proposition 4.12 *Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function, E_λ be a left-sided continuous spectral map, $J_n(f) = \int_{-n}^{n-0} f(\lambda) dE_\lambda$, $D(A) = \left\{ x \in \mathbf{H} : \exists \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} J_n(f)x \right\}$, and $Ax = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} J_n(f)x$. Then $A = J(f) \in L(\mathbf{H})$ is a selfadjoint operator, for which we also write*

$$A = J(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\lambda) dE_\lambda := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-n}^{n-0} f(\lambda) dE_\lambda.$$

If f is bounded then $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$.

Proposition 4.13 *Let $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ be a selfadjoint operator. Then*

- (a) $\sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{R}$,
- (b) $R_\lambda = (A - \lambda I)^{-1}$ is normal if $\lambda \in \rho(A)$ and selfadjoint if $\lambda \in \rho(A) \cap \mathbb{R}$,
- (c) there exists a unique spectral map E_λ with $A = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda dE_\lambda$. Moreover,

$$\text{comm}(A) = \text{comm}(E_\lambda).$$

The following Lemma is needed for the proof of Proposition 4.13,(c).

Lemma 4.14 *Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$.*

- (a) *If $A = V\sqrt{A^*A}$ is the polar decomposition of A (cf. Proposition 3.8) then $A^* = V^*\sqrt{AA^*}$ is the polar decomposition of A^* . Moreover, $\sqrt{AA^*} = V\sqrt{A^*A}V^*$.*
- (b) *If A is normal then there exists a unitary operator $V \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{H})$ such that $VA = AV$ and $A = V\sqrt{A^*A}$.*

Chapter 5

Differential operators in $L^2(a, b)$

Recall that by $\Gamma(A)$ we denote the graph of the operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$. Furthermore, we define $V : \mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}$, $(x, y) \mapsto (-y, x)$, where we equip $\mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}$ with the inner product $\langle (x, y), (z, w) \rangle := \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, w \rangle$.

Lemma 5.1 *Let $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ and $\overline{D(A)} = \mathbf{H}$. Then, we have:*

- (a) $\Gamma(A^*) = V(\Gamma(A))^\perp$.
- (b) A^* is a closed operator.
- (c) A is closable if and only if $\overline{D(A^*)} = \mathbf{H}$. In this case $\overline{A} = (A^*)^* =: A^{**}$.
- (d) If A is closable, then $(\overline{A})^* = A^*$.
- (e) A is selfadjoint if and only if $\Gamma(A) \perp V(\Gamma(A))$ and $\Gamma(A) + V(\Gamma(A)) = \mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}$.

Lemma 5.2 *Let $F : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and $F_j : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $j = 1, \dots, n$, be linear functionals on the linear space \mathbf{X} , where*

$$\bigcap_{j=1}^n N(F_j) \subset N(F).$$

Then, there exist $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n \in \mathbb{C}$, such that $F = \sum_{j=1}^n \gamma_j F_j$.

In what follows let $-\infty < a < b < \infty$ and $\mathbf{H} = L^2(a, b)$. A function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is called **absolutely continuous**, if there exists a locally integrable function $g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ (we write $g \in L^1_{\text{loc}}(a, b)$) such that

$$f(x) = f(c) + \int_c^x g(y) dy \quad \forall x \in (a, b), \quad \forall c \in (a, b).$$

In this case we write $g = f'$. By $\mathcal{A}_n(a, b)$ we denote the set of all $n - 1$ times continuously differentiable functions $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, for which $f^{(n-1)} : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is absolutely continuous.

Proposition 5.3 *For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a constant $c_0 = c_0(n, \varepsilon)$ such that*

$$\int_0^1 |f^{(j)}(x)|^2 dx \leq \varepsilon \int_0^1 |f^{(n)}(x)|^2 dx + c_0 \int_0^1 |f(x)|^2 dx \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{A}_n(0, 1), \quad \forall j = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1.$$

Corollary 5.4 *If $f \in \mathcal{A}_n(a, b) \cap \mathbf{L}^2(a, b)$ and $f^{(n)} \in \mathbf{L}^2(a, b)$ then $f^{(j)} \in \mathbf{L}^2(a, b)$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$.*

We set $\mathbf{W}_r^2(a, b) = \{f \in \mathcal{A}_r(a, b) \cap \mathbf{L}^2(a, b) : f^{(r)} \in \mathbf{L}^2(a, b)\}$. (Sobolev space of order r)

Corollary 5.5 *If $f \in \mathbf{W}_r^2(a, b)$ then $f^{(j)} \in \mathbf{C}[a, b]$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, r-1$, where in case of $b = \infty$ ($a = -\infty$) we have $f^{(j)}(\infty) = 0$ ($f^{(j)}(-\infty) = 0$), $j = 0, 1, \dots, r-1$.*

By $D : \mathcal{A}_1(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}_{\text{loc}}^1(a, b)$ we denote the differential operator $Df = f'$. Define

$$D(A_r^0) = \mathbf{C}_0^\infty(a, b), \quad A_r^0 f = (-iD)^r f$$

and

$$D(A_r) = \mathbf{W}_r^2(a, b), \quad A_r f = (-iD)^r f.$$

Proposition 5.6 *We have*

(a) A_r^0 is symmetric,

(b) $R(A_r^0) = \left\{ g \in \mathbf{C}_0^\infty(a, b) : \int_a^b x^j g(x) dx = 0, j = 0, 1, \dots, r-1 \right\} =: \mathbf{C}_{0,r}^\infty(a, b)$,

(c) $(A_r^0)^* = A_r$, $A_r^* = \overline{A_r^0}$,

(d) $D(\overline{A_r^0}) = \{f \in \mathbf{W}_r^2(a, b) : f^{(j)}(a) = f^{(j)}(b) = 0, j = 0, 1, \dots, r-1\} =: \mathbf{W}_r^{2,0}(a, b)$.

Corollary 5.7 *In case $(a, b) = \mathbb{R}$ the operator A_r is selfadjoint. If $(a, b) \neq \mathbb{R}$ then $\overline{A_r^0}$ and A_r are not selfadjoint.*

Proposition 5.8 *In case $(a, b) = \mathbb{R}$ we have $\sigma(A_{2r}) = [0, \infty)$ and $\sigma(A_{2r-1}) = \mathbb{R}$.*

Chapter 6

The formalism of quantum mechanics

Consider a system of N (in general electrical charged) particles within an electromagnetic field and set $n = 3N$. By q_1, \dots, q_n we denote the cartesian spatial coordinates (i.e., q_{3j-2}, q_{3j-1} and q_{3j} are the spatial coordinates of the j th particle) and by p_1, \dots, p_n the momentum coordinates (i.e., $p_{3j-k} = m_j \dot{q}_{3j-k}$, $k = 0, 1, 2$, $j = 1, \dots, N$). Then, the Hamiltonian differential equations can be written as

$$\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H(q, p)}{\partial p}, \quad \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H(q, p)}{\partial q},$$

where the Hamiltonian function $H(q, p)$ equals the total energy of the system. In the case of one charged particle in an electrical field E with potential V (i.e., $E(q) = -\text{grad } V(q)$) we have

$$H(q, p) = \frac{|p|^2}{2m} + V(q) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^3 p_j^2 + V(q_1, q_2, q_3)$$

and, consequently,

$$\dot{q}_j = \frac{p_j}{m}, \quad \dot{p}_j = -\frac{\partial V(q_1, q_2, q_3)}{\partial q_j}, \quad j = 1, 2, 3.$$

These considerations are due to classical mechanics. In quantum mechanics, the **state** of the system at time $t \in \mathbb{R}$ is described by a **state function** $\psi_t : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $x \mapsto \psi_t(x)$: If $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a measurable set, then

$$\int_A |\psi_t(x)|^2 dx$$

equals the probability for $q(t) \in A$. Hence, we assume that $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\psi_t(x)|^2 dx = 1$, in particular $\psi_t \in \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^n) \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$. The function $\psi : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $(x, t) \mapsto \psi_t(x)$ is called **wave function**. Hence, $\mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is the **state space** of the system. The expectation value of the coordinate q_j at the state $\psi = \psi_t$ is equal to

$$q_j^\psi = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_j |\psi(x)|^2 dx = \langle x_j \psi, \psi \rangle,$$

the respective variance is equal to

$$\text{var}_\psi(q_j) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (x_j - q_j^\psi)^2 |\psi(x)|^2 dx = \langle (x_j - q_j^\psi) \psi, (x_j - q_j^\psi) \psi \rangle,$$

and the dispersion $\sigma_\psi(q_j) = \sqrt{\text{var}_\psi(q_j)}$. Consequently, we assign the operator of multiplication by x_j to the spatial coordinate q_j . To the momentum coordinate p_j we assign the differentiation operator $D_j = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}$, where $\hbar \approx 10^{-34} Js$ denotes the Planck constant. We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} p_j^\psi &= \frac{\hbar}{i} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial x_j} \overline{\psi(x)} dx = \langle D_j \psi, \psi \rangle, \\ \text{var}_\psi(p_j) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left| \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} - p_j^\psi \right) \psi(x) \right|^2 dx = \langle (D_j - p_j^\psi) \psi, (D_j - p_j^\psi) \psi \rangle, \\ \sigma_\psi(p_j) &= \sqrt{\text{var}_\psi(p_j)}. \end{aligned}$$

Remark 6.1 Let $A, B \in L(\mathbf{H})$ be **hermitian** operators (i.e. $\langle Ax, x \rangle = \langle x, Ax \rangle \forall x \in D(A)$). Define $a_x := \langle Ax, x \rangle$ and $b_x := \langle Bx, x \rangle$ as well as

$$\sigma_x(A) := \|(A - a_x I)x\|, \quad \sigma_x(B) := \|(B - b_x I)x\|.$$

Then we have the **uncertainty relation**

$$\sigma_x(A)\sigma_x(B) \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle (AB - BA)x, x \rangle| \quad \forall x \in D(AB) \cap D(BA).$$

Corollary 6.2 (Heisenberg's uncertainty relation) For all states $\psi \in \mathbf{C}_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$,

$$\sigma_\psi(q_j)\sigma_\psi(p_j) \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \|\psi\|^2, \quad j = 1, \dots, n.$$

The wave function satisfies the **Schrödinger equation**

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = S\psi(x, t), \quad (6.1)$$

where the **Schrödinger operator** S operates on ψ only w.r.t. the spatial coordinates. The operator S is obtained from the Hamiltonian function $H(q, p)$ using the following rules:

1. Represent $H(q, p)$ as a sum of
 - (a) pure quadratic terms in p_j ,
 - (b) terms $V(q)$ depending only on q ,
 - (c) terms of the form $\frac{1}{2} [p_j f_j(q) + f_j(q) p_j]$.
2. Replace q_j by the multiplication operator by x_j and p_j by the differentiation operator D_j .

The expectation value of the Schrödinger operator at the state ψ equals $\langle S\psi, \psi \rangle$ and should be real for all states $\psi \in D(S)$. Consequently, S has to be a hermitian operator (cf. Proposition 4.6). The evolution operators $U(t)$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$ are defined as follows:

$U(t)\psi$ is equal to the state at time $t \in \mathbb{R}$, if ψ is the state of the system at time 0.

Consequently, the following conditions have to be satisfied ($\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$):

- (a) $D(U(t)) = \mathbf{H} \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$,
- (b) $U(0) = I$,

- (c) $U(t) \in L(\mathbf{H}) \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$,
- (d) $U(t_1 + t_2) = U(t_1)U(t_2) = U(t_2)U(t_1), \forall t_1, t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$,
- (e) $\lim_{s \rightarrow t} \|U(s)\psi - U(t)\psi\| = 0, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \psi \in \mathbf{H}$,
- (f) $\|U(t)\psi\| = \|\psi\|, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \psi \in \mathbf{H}$,
- (g) $R(U(t)) = \mathbf{H}, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Definition 6.3 We call a family $\{U(t) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ of operators with the properties (a)–(g) a (one-parametric) **strongly continuous group of unitary operators**. The operator $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ defined by

$$D(A) = \left\{ x \in \mathbf{H} : \exists \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^{-1}[U(t) - I]x \in \mathbf{H} \right\}, \quad Ax = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^{-1}[U(t) - I]x,$$

is the **infinitesimal generator** of this group.

Proposition 6.4 Let $A \in L(\mathbf{H})$ be the infinitesimal generator of the strongly continuous group $\{U(t) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ of unitary operators.

- (a) The operator $S = \mathbf{i}A$ is selfadjoint.
- (b) For each $x^0 \in D(S)$, the function $U(t)x^0, t \in \mathbb{R}$, is the unique solution of the initial value problem

$$\dot{x} = -\mathbf{i}Sx, \quad x(0) = x^0.$$

In particular, $U(t)x \in D(S)$ for all $x \in D(S)$ and for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Index

- A^\pm , 20
- $D(A)$, 25
- $L(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$, 9
- $M_A(f)$, 19
- $N(A)$, 9, 13
- $R(A)$, 13
- $\mathbf{C}_A(\mathbb{R})$, 19
- $\mathbf{L} \oplus \mathbf{L}^\perp$, 7
- $\mathbf{L}^2 \mathbf{L}^2(0, 1)$, 11
- \mathbf{L}^\perp , 7
- $\mathbf{W}_r^{2,0}(a, b)$, 30
- \mathbf{X}^* , 10
- $\mathcal{A}_n(a, b)$, 29
- $\mathcal{J}_a^b(f)$, 22
- $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{H})$, 23
- $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$, 9
- $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{H})$, 21
- $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$, 19
- $\mathcal{Z}[a, b]$, 21
- $\gamma_A(f)$, 19
- $\|A\|_{\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}}$, 9
- $\sigma(A)$, 13
- $\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathbf{L}^2}$, 11
- $\langle x, y \rangle$, 7
- \sqrt{A} , 20
- $d(Z)$, 21
- $f(A)$, 19
- $m_A(f)$, 19
- comm(A), 19, 25
- absolutely continuous function, 29
- adjoint operator, 26
- Bessel's inequality, 8
- best approximation, 8
- bounded linear operator, 9
- bounded sequence of operators, 14
- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, 7
 - , generalized, 14
- closable operator, 27
- closed operator, 27
- closure of an operator, 27
- compact operator, 23
- complete orthonormal system (CONS), 9
- continuous spectrum, 21
- dual space, 10
- eigenvalue, 13
- extension of an operator, 25
- Fourier coefficient, 8
- Fourier transform, 9
- generalized Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, 14
- graph, 26
- hermitian operator, 32
- Hilbert space, 7
- image space, 13
- imaginary part of an operator, 22
- infinitesimal generator, 33
- inner product, 7
- invariant subspace, 16
- isometric isomorphism, 9
- isometric operator, 17
- linear functional, 10
- linear map, 9
- linear operator, 9, 25
- linearly independent system, 8
- monotone operator sequence, 14
- normal operator, 22
- nullspace, 13
- nullspace of an operator, 9
- opening of two subspaces, 16
- orthogonal complement, 7
- orthogonal orthoprojections, 16
- orthogonal projection, 7, 15

- orthonormal system (ONS), 8
- orthoprojection, 15

- Parseval's equality, 9
- partial isometry, 17
- point spectrum, 21
- polar decomposition, 20
- positive operator, 14
- precompact sequence, 23

- real part of an operator, 22
- reducing subspace, 16
- regular point of an operator, 26
- resolvent set, 26
- restriction of an operator, 25
- Riemann-Stieltjes integral, 22
- Riemann-Stieltjes sum, 21
- Riesz' representation theorem, 10

- scalar product, 7
- Schmidt's orthogonalisation method, 8
- Schrödinger equation, 32
- Schrödinger operator, 32
- selfadjoint operator, 13, 26
- spectral map, 21
- spectrum, 13, 26
- state, 31
- state function, 31
- state space, 31
- strongly continuous group
 - of unitary operators, 33
- strongly convergent operator sequence, 14
- symmetric operator, 26

- Toeplitz operator, 17

- uncertainty relation, 32
- uniformly Riemann-Stieltjes integrable, 22
- unitary operator, 17, 23
- unitary space, 7

- wave function, 31
- weak convergence, 16