

Introduction to Spectral Theory of Linear Operators

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Subsection 1

Unbounded Operators and their Hilbert-Adjoint Operators

Unbounded Operators

- Let H be a complex Hilbert space.
- We consider linear operators $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$, with $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq H$.
- T is bounded if and only if there is a real number c , such that

$$\|Tx\| \leq c\|x\|, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

- An important unbounded linear operator is the differentiation operator.
- Note that the operator T may be unbounded.
- In the case of a bounded linear operator T on a Hilbert space H , self-adjointness of T was defined by $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle$.
- The following theorem shows that an unbounded linear operator T satisfying this relationship cannot be defined on all of H .

The Hellinger-Toeplitz Boundedness Theorem

Hellinger-Toeplitz Theorem (Boundedness)

If a linear operator T is defined on all of a complex Hilbert space H and satisfies $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle$, for all $x, y \in H$, then T is bounded.

- Suppose, to the contrary, that T is not bounded.

Then H contains a sequence (y_n) such that $\|y_n\| = 1$ and $\|Ty_n\| \rightarrow \infty$.

We consider, for $n = 1, 2, \dots$, the functional f_n defined by

$$f_n(x) = \langle Tx, y_n \rangle = \langle x, Ty_n \rangle.$$

Each f_n is defined on all of H and is linear.

For each n , f_n is bounded, since, by the Schwarz inequality,

$$|f_n(x)| = |\langle x, Ty_n \rangle| \leq \|Ty_n\| \|x\|.$$

The Hellinger-Toeplitz Boundedness Theorem (Cont'd)

- Moreover, for every fixed $x \in H$, the sequence $(f_n(x))$ is bounded. Indeed, using the Schwarz inequality and $\|y_n\| = 1$, we have

$$|f_n(x)| = |\langle Tx, y_n \rangle| \leq \|Tx\|.$$

By the Uniform Boundedness Theorem, $(\|f_n\|)$ is bounded, say, $\|f_n\| \leq k$, for all n . Thus, for every $x \in H$, we have

$$|f_n(x)| \leq \|f_n\| \|x\| \leq k \|x\|.$$

Taking $x = Ty_n$, we get

$$\|Ty_n\|^2 = \langle Ty_n, Ty_n \rangle = |f_n(Ty_n)| \leq k \|Ty_n\|.$$

Hence, $\|Ty_n\| \leq k$. But this contradicts $\|Ty_n\| \rightarrow \infty$.

Extensions and Hilbert-Adjoint Operators

- By the Hellinger-Toeplitz Boundedness Theorem, $\mathcal{D}(T) = H$ is impossible for unbounded linear operators satisfying $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle$.
- The problem is to determine suitable domains for extensions.
- The operator T is an **extension** of the operator S , written $S \subseteq T$, if $\mathcal{D}(S) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(T)$ and $S = T|_{\mathcal{D}(S)}$.
- An extension T of S is a **proper extension** if $\mathcal{D}(S)$ is a proper subset of $\mathcal{D}(T)$, i.e., $\mathcal{D}(T) - \mathcal{D}(S) \neq \emptyset$.

The Role of Hilbert-Adjoint

- For bounded operators, the Hilbert-adjoint T^* of an operator T plays a basic role and we want to generalize to the unbounded case.
- In the bounded case the operator T^* is defined by

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle.$$

- We can write this as

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle, \quad y^* = T^*y.$$

- T^* exists on H and is a bounded linear operator with norm $\|T^*\| = \|T\|$.
- In the general case, T^* must be defined for those $y \in H$, for which there is a y^* , such that, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle, \quad y^* = T^*y.$$

Conditions for Uniqueness of T^*y

- The operator T^* will be defined by $y^* = T^*y$, for those $y \in H$ for which there is a y^* , such that, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle.$$

- In order that T^* be an operator (a mapping), for each y that belongs to the domain $\mathcal{D}(T^*)$ of T^* , the value

$$y^* = T^*y$$

must be unique.

Conditions for Uniqueness of T^*y (Cont'd)

Claim: Uniqueness of y^* holds if and only if T is densely defined in H , i.e., $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is dense in H .

Suppose $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is not dense in H . Then $\overline{\mathcal{D}(T)} \neq H$.

The orthogonal complement of $\overline{\mathcal{D}(T)}$ in H contains a nonzero y_1 .

So $y_1 \perp x$, for every $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, i.e., $\langle x, y_1 \rangle = 0$.

Then in $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle$, we obtain

$$\langle x, y^* \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle + \langle x, y_1 \rangle = \langle x, y^* + y_1 \rangle.$$

This shows non-uniqueness.

Suppose, conversely, $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is dense in H .

Then $\mathcal{D}(T)^\perp = \{0\}$.

Hence, $\langle x, y_1 \rangle = 0$, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, implies $y_1 = 0$.

So $y^* + y_1 = y^*$. This proves uniqueness.

Hilbert-Adjoint Operator

- We use the following terminology:
 - T is an operator **on** H if $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is all of H ;
 - T is an operator **in** H if $\mathcal{D}(T)$ lies in H but may not be all of H .

Definition (Hilbert-Adjoint Operator)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a (possibly unbounded) densely defined linear operator in a complex Hilbert space H . Then the **Hilbert-adjoint operator** $T^* : \mathcal{D}(T^*) \rightarrow H$ of T is defined as follows. The domain $\mathcal{D}(T^*)$ of T^* consists of all $y \in H$, such that, there is a $y^* \in H$ satisfying

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

For each such $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$, the **Hilbert-adjoint operator** T^* is then defined in terms of that y^* by $y^* = T^*y$.

Remarks on Hilbert-Adjoint Operators

- An element $y \in H$ is in $\mathcal{D}(T^*)$ if for that y , $\langle Tx, y \rangle$, considered as a function of x , can be represented as

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

- For that y , the formula

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T),$$

determines y^* uniquely by density.

- Finally, T^* is a linear operator.

Sum of Operators

- Let H be a complex Hilbert space.
- Let $S : \mathcal{D}(S) \rightarrow H$ and $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be linear operators, where $\mathcal{D}(S) \subseteq H$ and $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq H$.
- Then the **sum** $S + T$ of S and T is the linear operator with:
 - Domain $\mathcal{D}(S + T) = \mathcal{D}(S) \cap \mathcal{D}(T)$;
 - For every $x \in \mathcal{D}(S + T)$,

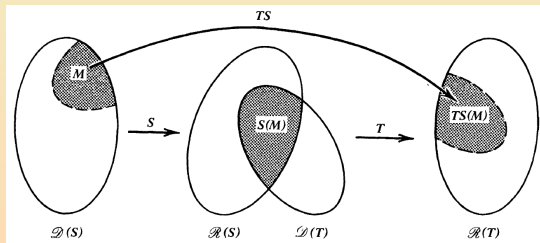
$$(S + T)x = Sx + Tx.$$

- $\mathcal{D}(S + T)$ is the largest set on which both S and T make sense.
- $\mathcal{D}(S + T)$ is a vector space.
- Always $0 \in \mathcal{D}(S + T)$, so that $\mathcal{D}(S + T)$ is never empty.
- Nontrivial results can be expected only if $\mathcal{D}(S + T)$ also contains nonzero elements.

Product of Operators

- Let M be the largest subset of $\mathcal{D}(S)$ whose image $S(M)$ under S lies in $\mathcal{D}(T)$.
- Then $S(M) = \mathcal{R}(S) \cap \mathcal{D}(T)$, where $\mathcal{R}(S)$ is the range of S .
- Then the **product** TS is defined to be the operator with domain $\mathcal{D}(TS) = M$, such that for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(TS)$,

$$(TS)x = T(Sx).$$



Product of Operators (Cont'd)

- Similarly, let \widetilde{M} be the largest subset of $\mathcal{D}(T)$ whose image $T(\widetilde{M})$ under T lies in $\mathcal{D}(S)$.
- Then $T(\widetilde{M}) = \mathcal{R}(T) \cap \mathcal{D}(S)$, where $\mathcal{R}(T)$ is the range of T .
- Then the **product** ST is defined to be the operator with domain $\mathcal{D}(ST) = \widetilde{M}$, such that for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(ST)$,

$$(ST)x = S(Tx).$$

- Both TS and ST are linear operators.

Subsection 2

Hilbert-Adjoint, Symmetric and Self-Adjoint Operators

Hilbert-Adjoint Operators

- By definition, $T^{**} = (T^*)^*$.

Theorem (Hilbert-Adjoint Operator)

Let $S : \mathcal{D}(S) \rightarrow H$ and $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be linear operators which are densely defined in a complex Hilbert space H . Then:

- (a) If $S \subseteq T$, then $T^* \subseteq S^*$.
 - (b) If $\mathcal{D}(T^*)$ is dense in H , then $T \subseteq T^{**}$.
- (a) By definition, $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ and all $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$.
 Since $S \subseteq T$, $\langle Sx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(S)$ and y as before.
 By the definition of S^* , $\langle Sx, y \rangle = \langle x, S^*y \rangle$, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(S)$, $y \in \mathcal{D}(S^*)$.
- Claim:** The last two equations imply $\mathcal{D}(T^*) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(S^*)$.

Proof of the Claim

Claim: The last two equations imply $\mathcal{D}(T^*) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(S^*)$.

By the definition of the Hilbert-adjoint operator S^* , the domain $\mathcal{D}(S^*)$ includes all y for which one has a representation

$$\langle Sx, y \rangle = \langle x, S^*y \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \text{ in } \mathcal{D}(S).$$

But $\langle Sx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$ also represents $\langle Sx, y \rangle$ in the same form, for x in $\mathcal{D}(S)$.

So the set of y 's for which this is valid must be a (proper or improper) subset of the set of y 's for which the previous equation holds.

I.e., we must have $\mathcal{D}(T^*) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(S^*)$.

Taking into account both equations, we conclude that

$$S^*y = T^*y, \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*).$$

So, by definition, $T^* \subseteq S^*$.

Hilbert-Adjoint Operators (Part (b))

(b) Taking complex conjugates in $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$, we have

$$\langle T^*y, x \rangle = \langle y, Tx \rangle, \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*), x \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

Since $\mathcal{D}(T^*)$ is dense in H , the operator T^{**} exists.

By definition,

$$\langle T^*y, x \rangle = \langle y, T^{**}x \rangle, \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*), x \in \mathcal{D}(T^{**}).$$

From these equations, reasoning as in Part (a), we see that:

- An $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ also belongs to $\mathcal{D}(T^{**})$;
- $T^{**}x = Tx$, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$.

This means that $T \subseteq T^{**}$.

Inverse of the Hilbert-Adjoint Operator

Theorem (Inverse of the Hilbert-Adjoint Operator)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator densely defined in a complex Hilbert space H . Suppose that T is injective and its range $\mathcal{R}(T)$ is dense in H . Then T^* is injective and

$$(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*.$$

- T^* exists, since T is densely defined in H .

Also T^{-1} exists, since T is injective.

$(T^{-1})^*$ exists, since $\mathcal{D}(T^{-1}) = \mathcal{R}(T)$ is dense in H .

We must show that $(T^*)^{-1}$ exists and satisfies $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$.

Let $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$. Then, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T^{-1})$, $T^{-1}x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ and

$$\langle T^{-1}x, T^*y \rangle = \langle TT^{-1}x, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle.$$

Inverse of the Hilbert-Adjoint Operator (Cont'd)

- By the definition of the Hilbert-adjoint operator of T^{-1} ,

$$\langle T^{-1}x, T^*y \rangle = \langle x, (T^{-1})^* T^*y \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T^{-1}).$$

This shows that $T^*y \in \mathcal{D}((T^{-1})^*)$.

Comparing with the preceding equation, we conclude that

$$(T^{-1})^* T^*y = y, \quad y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*).$$

So $T^*y = 0$ implies $y = 0$. Hence, $(T^*)^{-1} : \mathcal{R}(T^*) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ exists.

Since $(T^*)^{-1} T^*$ is the identity operator on $\mathcal{D}(T^*)$, a comparison with the preceding equation shows that $(T^*)^{-1} \subseteq (T^{-1})^*$.

It suffices now to show that $(T^*)^{-1} \supseteq (T^{-1})^*$.

Inverse of the Hilbert-Adjoint Operator (Cont'd)

- Consider any $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ and $y \in \mathcal{D}((T^{-1})^*)$.

Then $Tx \in \mathcal{R}(T) = \mathcal{D}(T^{-1})$. Moreover,

$$\langle Tx, (T^{-1})^* y \rangle = \langle T^{-1} Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle.$$

By the definition of the Hilbert-adjoint operator of T , we have

$$\langle Tx, (T^{-1})^* y \rangle = \langle x, T^* (T^{-1})^* y \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

From this and the last equation, $(T^{-1})^* y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ and

$$T^* (T^{-1})^* y = y, \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathcal{D}((T^{-1})^*).$$

By the definition of an inverse:

- $T^* (T^*)^{-1}$ is the identity operator on $\mathcal{D}((T^*)^{-1}) = \mathcal{R}(T^*)$;
- $(T^*)^{-1} : \mathcal{R}(T^*) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ is surjective.

Comparing with the preceding, we get $\mathcal{D}((T^*)^{-1}) \supseteq \mathcal{D}((T^{-1})^*)$.

So $(T^*)^{-1} \supseteq (T^{-1})^*$.

Symmetric Linear Operators

Definition (Symmetric Linear Operator)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator which is densely defined in a complex Hilbert space H . T is called a **symmetric linear operator** if

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

Lemma (Symmetric Operator)

A densely defined linear operator T in a complex Hilbert space H is symmetric if and only if

$$T \subseteq T^*.$$

- By the definition of T^* ,

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T), y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*).$$

Symmetric Linear Operators (Cont'd)

- Suppose, first, that $T \subseteq T^*$.

Then $T^*y = Ty$, for all $y \in \mathcal{D}(T)$.

So the preceding equation, for $x, y \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, becomes

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle.$$

Hence, T is symmetric.

Suppose, next, that

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

Then a comparison with $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$ shows that:

- $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(T^*)$;
- $T = T^*|_{\mathcal{D}(T)}$.

By definition, T^* is an extension of T .

Self-Adjoint Linear Operators

Definition (Self-Adjoint Linear Operator)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator which is densely defined in a complex Hilbert space H . T is called a **self-adjoint linear operator** if

$$T = T^* .$$

- Every self-adjoint linear operator is symmetric.
- But a symmetric linear operator need not be self-adjoint.
- In fact, T^* may be a proper extension of T , i.e., $\mathcal{D}(T) \neq \mathcal{D}(T^*)$.

On Symmetry and Self-Adjointness

- Of course, $\mathcal{D}(T) \subsetneq \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ cannot happen if $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is all of H .
For a linear operator $T : H \rightarrow H$ on a complex Hilbert space H , the concepts of symmetry and self-adjointness are identical.
- Note that in this case, T is bounded, and this explains why the concept of symmetry did not occur earlier.
- A densely defined linear operator T in a complex Hilbert space H is symmetric if and only if

$$\langle Tx, x \rangle \text{ is real, for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

Subsection 3

Closed Linear Operators and Closures

Closed Linear Operators

Definition (Closed Linear Operator)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator, where $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq H$ and H is a complex Hilbert space. T is called a **closed linear operator** if its graph

$$\mathcal{G}(T) = \{(x, y) : x \in \mathcal{D}(T), y = Tx\}$$

is closed in $H \times H$, where the norm on $H \times H$ is defined by

$$\|(x, y)\| = (\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2)^{1/2}.$$

This norm results from the inner product defined by

$$\langle (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \rangle = \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle + \langle y_1, y_2 \rangle.$$

The Closed Linear Operator Theorem

- From the theory of closed linear operators, we get the following facts.

Theorem (Closed Linear Operator)

Let $T: \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator, where $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq H$ and H is a complex Hilbert space. Then:

- T is closed if and only if $x_n \rightarrow x$, $x_n \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ and $Tx_n \rightarrow y$ together imply that $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ and $Tx = y$.
- If T is closed and $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is closed, then T is bounded.
- For T be bounded, T is closed if and only if $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is closed.

The Hilbert-Adjoint Operator Theorem

Theorem (Hilbert-Adjoint Operator)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator, where $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq H$ and H is a complex Hilbert space. The Hilbert-adjoint operator T^* is closed.

- Consider any sequence (y_n) in $\mathcal{D}(T^*)$, such that:
 - $y_n \rightarrow y_0$;
 - $T^*y_n \rightarrow z_0$.

We show that $y_0 \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ and $z_0 = T^*y_0$.

By the definition of T^* , for every $y \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\langle Ty, y_n \rangle = \langle y, T^*y_n \rangle.$$

By continuity of the inner product,

$$\langle Ty, y_0 \rangle = \langle y, z_0 \rangle, \quad \text{for every } y \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

By the definition of T^* , we get $y_0 \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ and $z_0 = T^*y_0$.

Applying the preceding theorem, we conclude that T^* is closed.

Closable Operator and Closure

Definition (Closable Operator, Closure)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator, where $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq H$ and H is a complex Hilbert space.

- If T has an extension T_1 which is a closed linear operator, then T is said to be **closable**, and T_1 is called a **closed linear extension** of T .
- A closed linear extension \overline{T} of a closable linear operator T is said to be **minimal** if every closed linear extension T_1 of T is a closed linear extension of \overline{T} . This minimal extension \overline{T} of T - if it exists - is called the **closure** of T .
- If \overline{T} exists, it is unique.
- If T is not closed, the problem arises whether T has closed extensions.

The Closure Theorem

Theorem (Closure)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator, where H is a complex Hilbert space and $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is dense in H . Then, if T is symmetric, its closure \overline{T} exists and is unique.

- We define \overline{T} by:
 - First defining the domain $M = \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$;
 - Then defining \overline{T} itself.

Then we show that \overline{T} is indeed the closure of T .

Let M be the set of all $x \in H$ for which there is a sequence (x_n) in $\mathcal{D}(T)$ and a $y \in H$, such that

$$x_n \rightarrow x \quad \text{and} \quad Tx_n \rightarrow y.$$

We can show that M is a vector space. Clearly, $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq M$.

The Closure Theorem (Cont'd)

- On M we define \overline{T} by setting

$$y = \overline{T}x, \quad x \in M,$$

with y given by

$$x_n \rightarrow x, \quad Tx_n \rightarrow y.$$

To show that \overline{T} is the closure of T , we have to prove that \overline{T} has all the properties by which the closure is defined.

Obviously, T has the domain $\mathcal{D}(\overline{T}) = M$.

We shall prove:

- To each $x \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$, there corresponds a unique y .
- \overline{T} is a symmetric linear extension of T .
- \overline{T} is closed and is the closure of T .

The Closure Theorem Property (a)

(a) **Uniqueness of y** , for every $x \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$.

In addition to (x_n) , let (\tilde{x}_n) be another sequence in $\mathcal{D}(T)$, such that

$$\tilde{x}_n \rightarrow x \quad \text{and} \quad T\tilde{x}_n \rightarrow \tilde{y}.$$

Since T is linear, $Tx_n - T\tilde{x}_n = T(x_n - \tilde{x}_n)$.

Since T is symmetric, for every $v \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\langle v, Tx_n - T\tilde{x}_n \rangle = \langle v, T(x_n - \tilde{x}_n) \rangle = \langle Tv, x_n - \tilde{x}_n \rangle.$$

Letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ and using the continuity of the inner product,

$$\langle v, y - \tilde{y} \rangle = \langle Tv, x - x \rangle = 0.$$

Therefore, $y - \tilde{y} \perp \mathcal{D}(T)$. Since $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is dense in H , $\mathcal{D}(T)^\perp = \{0\}$.

Hence, $y - \tilde{y} = 0$. Thus, $y = \tilde{y}$.

The Closure Theorem Property (b)

(b) \overline{T} is a symmetric linear extension of T :

Since T is linear, so is \overline{T} .

This also shows that \overline{T} is an extension of T .

We show that the symmetry of T implies that of \overline{T} .

For all $x, z \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$, there are sequences $(x_n), (z_n)$ in $\mathcal{D}(T)$, such that

$$\begin{aligned} x_n &\rightarrow x, & Tx_n &\rightarrow \overline{T}x \\ z_n &\rightarrow z, & Tz_n &\rightarrow \overline{T}z. \end{aligned}$$

Since T is symmetric, $\langle z_n, Tx_n \rangle = \langle Tz_n, x_n \rangle$.

Letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ and using the continuity of the inner product,

$$\langle z, \overline{T}x \rangle = \langle \overline{T}z, x \rangle.$$

Since $x, z \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$ were arbitrary, this shows that \overline{T} is symmetric.

The Closure Theorem Property (c)

(c) \overline{T} is closed and is the closure of T :

We prove closedness of \overline{T} by considering any sequence (w_m) in $\mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$, such that $w_m \rightarrow x$ and $\overline{T}w_m \rightarrow y$ and proving $x \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$ and $\overline{T}x = y$.

Every w_m (m fixed) is in $\mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$.

By the definition of $\mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$, there is a sequence in $\mathcal{D}(T)$ which converges to w_m and whose image under T converges to $\overline{T}w_m$.

Hence, for every fixed m , there is a $v_m \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, such that

$$\|w_m - v_m\| < \frac{1}{m} \quad \text{and} \quad \|\overline{T}w_m - Tv_m\| < \frac{1}{m}.$$

From this, we conclude that $v_m \rightarrow x$ and $Tv_m \rightarrow y$.

By the definitions of $\mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$ and \overline{T} , we get $x \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$ and $y = \overline{T}x$.

Hence, \overline{T} is closed.

By the Closed Linear Operator Theorem, every point of $\mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$ must also belong to the domain of every closed linear extension of T .

So \overline{T} is the closure of T . We also get that the closure is unique.

The Hilbert-Adjoint of the Closure

Theorem (Hilbert-Adjoint of the Closure)

For a symmetric linear operator T , we have $(\overline{T})^* = T^*$.

- Since $T \subseteq \overline{T}$, by a preceding theorem, $(\overline{T})^* \subseteq T^*$. Hence $\mathcal{D}((\overline{T})^*) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(T^*)$. We show $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ implies $y \in \mathcal{D}((\overline{T})^*)$.

Let $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$. By the definition of the Hilbert-adjoint operator, it suffices to prove that, for every $x \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$,

$$\langle \overline{T}x, y \rangle = \langle x, (\overline{T})^* y \rangle = \langle x, T^* y \rangle,$$

where the second equality follows from $(\overline{T})^* \subseteq T^*$.

By the definitions of $\mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$ and \overline{T} , for each $x \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$, there is a sequence (x_n) in $\mathcal{D}(T)$, such that $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $Tx_n \rightarrow y_0 = \overline{T}x$.

Since $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ and $x_n \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, by definition, $\langle Tx_n, y \rangle = \langle x_n, T^* y \rangle$.

By continuity of the inner product, $\langle \overline{T}x, y \rangle = \langle x, T^* y \rangle$, $x \in \mathcal{D}(\overline{T})$.

Subsection 4

Spectral Properties of Self-Adjoint Operators

Regular Values

Theorem (Regular Values)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a self-adjoint linear operator which is densely defined in a complex Hilbert space H . Then a number λ belongs to the resolvent set $\rho(T)$ of T if and only if, there exists a $c > 0$, such that, for every $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\|T_\lambda x\| \geq c\|x\|,$$

where $T_\lambda = T - \lambda I$.

- (a) Let $\lambda \in \rho(T)$. Then, the resolvent $R_\lambda = (T - \lambda I)^{-1}$ exists and is bounded, say, $\|R_\lambda\| = k > 0$. Since $R_\lambda T_\lambda x = x$, for $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, we get

$$\|x\| = \|R_\lambda T_\lambda x\| \leq \|R_\lambda\| \|T_\lambda x\| = k \|T_\lambda x\|.$$

Division by k yields

$$\|T_\lambda x\| \geq c\|x\|,$$

where $c = \frac{1}{k}$.

Regular Values (The Converse)

(b) Conversely, suppose $\|T_\lambda x\| \geq c\|x\|$, $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, holds for some $c > 0$.

We consider the vector space

$$Y = \{y : y = T_\lambda x, x \in \mathcal{D}(T)\},$$

i.e., the range of T_λ . We show that:

- (i) $T_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow Y$ is bijective;
- (ii) Y is dense in H ;
- (iii) Y is closed.

These imply that the resolvent $R_\lambda = T_\lambda^{-1}$ is defined on all of H .

Boundedness of R_λ will then follow from hypothesis.

So we will have $\lambda \in \rho(T)$.

Regular Values (The Converse Part (i))

(i) Consider any $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{D}(T)$, such that $T_\lambda x_1 = T_\lambda x_2$.

Since T_λ is linear, the hypothesis yields

$$0 = \|T_\lambda x_1 - T_\lambda x_2\| = \|T_\lambda(x_1 - x_2)\| \geq c\|x_1 - x_2\|.$$

Since $c > 0$, this implies $\|x_1 - x_2\| = 0$.

Hence, $x_1 = x_2$.

So the operator $T_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow Y$ is bijective.

Regular Values (The Converse Part (ii))

- (ii) We prove that $\overline{Y} = H$ by showing that $x_0 \perp Y$ implies $x_0 = 0$.
Let $x_0 \perp Y$. Then, for every $y = T_\lambda x \in Y$,

$$0 = \langle T_\lambda x, x_0 \rangle = \langle Tx, x_0 \rangle - \lambda \langle x, x_0 \rangle.$$

Hence, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\langle Tx, x_0 \rangle = \langle x, \overline{\lambda} x_0 \rangle.$$

By definition of the Hilbert-adjoint, $x_0 \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ and $T^* x_0 = \overline{\lambda} x_0$.
Since T is self-adjoint, $\mathcal{D}(T^*) = \mathcal{D}(T)$ and $T^* = T$. So $T x_0 = \overline{\lambda} x_0$.
Suppose $x_0 \neq 0$. This implies that $\overline{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue of T .
Hence, $\overline{\lambda} = \lambda$ must be real. So $T x_0 = \lambda x_0$. I.e., $T_\lambda x_0 = 0$.
But now, the hypothesis yields a contradiction:

$$0 = \|T_\lambda x_0\| \geq c \|x_0\| \quad \text{implies} \quad \|x_0\| = 0.$$

It follows that $\overline{Y}^\perp = \{0\}$. So $\overline{Y} = H$.

Regular Values (The Converse Part (iii))

(iii) We prove that Y is closed. Let $y_0 \in \overline{Y}$.

Then there is a sequence (y_n) in Y , such that $y_n \rightarrow y_0$.

Since $y_n \in Y$, we have $y_n = T_\lambda x_n$, for some $x_n \in \mathcal{D}(T_\lambda) = \mathcal{D}(T)$.

By the hypothesis,

$$\|x_n - x_m\| \leq \frac{1}{c} \|T_\lambda(x_n - x_m)\| = \frac{1}{c} \|y_n - y_m\|.$$

Since (y_n) converges, this shows that (x_n) is Cauchy.

Since H is complete, (x_n) converges, say, $x_n \rightarrow x_0$.

Since T is self-adjoint, by a previous theorem, it is closed.

Thus, we have $x_0 \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ and $T_\lambda x_0 = y_0$.

This shows that $y_0 \in Y$. Since $y_0 \in Y$ was arbitrary, Y is closed.

Regular Values (The Converse Part (iii) Cont'd)

- Parts (ii) and (iii) imply that $Y = H$.

From this and Part (i), the resolvent R_λ exists and is defined on H ,

$$R_\lambda = T_\lambda^{-1} : H \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(T).$$

By a previous result, R_λ is linear.

For all $y \in H$ and corresponding $x = R_\lambda y$, we have $y = T_\lambda x$.

Moreover, by hypothesis,

$$\|R_\lambda y\| = \|x\| \leq \frac{1}{c} \|T_\lambda x\| = \frac{1}{c} \|y\|.$$

So $\|R_\lambda\| \leq \frac{1}{c}$ and R_λ is bounded.

By definition this proves that $\lambda \in \rho(T)$.

The Spectrum Theorem

Theorem (Spectrum)

Let H be a complex Hilbert space. Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a self-adjoint linear operator, with $\mathcal{D}(T)$ dense in H . The spectrum $\sigma(T)$ of T is real and closed.

(a) We first show that $\sigma(T)$ is real.

For every $x \neq 0$ in $\mathcal{D}(T)$ we have

$$\langle T_\lambda x, x \rangle = \langle Tx, x \rangle - \lambda \langle x, x \rangle.$$

Since $\langle x, x \rangle$ and $\langle Tx, x \rangle$ are real,

$$\overline{\langle T_\lambda x, x \rangle} = \langle Tx, x \rangle - \bar{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle.$$

We write $\lambda = \alpha + i\beta$, with real α and β .

Then $\bar{\lambda} = \alpha - i\beta$.

The Spectrum Theorem (Cont'd)

- Subtraction yields

$$\overline{\langle T_\lambda x, x \rangle} - \langle T_\lambda x, x \rangle = (\lambda - \bar{\lambda}) \langle x, x \rangle = 2i\beta \|x\|^2.$$

The left side equals $-2i\text{Im}\langle T_\lambda x, x \rangle$.

Since the imaginary part of a complex number cannot exceed the absolute value, we have by the Schwarz inequality

$$|\beta| \|x\|^2 \leq |\langle T_\lambda x, x \rangle| \leq \|T_\lambda x\| \|x\|.$$

Division by $\|x\| \neq 0$ gives $|\beta| \|x\| \leq \|T_\lambda x\|$.

Note that this inequality holds for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$.

If λ is not real, $\beta \neq 0$. So, by the previous theorem, $\lambda \in \rho(T)$.

Hence, $\sigma(T)$ must be real.

The Spectrum Theorem Part (b)

(b) We now show that $\sigma(T)$ is closed.

We do this by proving that the resolvent set $\rho(T)$ is open.

We consider an arbitrary $\lambda_0 \in \rho(T)$.

We show that every λ sufficiently close to λ_0 also belongs to $\rho(T)$.

By the triangle inequality,

$$\|Tx - \lambda_0x\| = \|Tx - \lambda x + (\lambda - \lambda_0)x\| \leq \|Tx - \lambda x\| + |\lambda - \lambda_0|\|x\|.$$

So

$$\|Tx - \lambda x\| \geq \|Tx - \lambda_0x\| - |\lambda - \lambda_0|\|x\|.$$

Since $\lambda_0 \in \rho(T)$, there is a $c > 0$, such that for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\|Tx - \lambda_0x\| \geq c\|x\|.$$

The Spectrum Theorem Part (b) (Cont'd)

- Assume that λ is close to λ_0 , say, $|\lambda - \lambda_0| \leq \frac{c}{2}$.

Then previous inequalities imply, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\|Tx - \lambda x\| \geq c\|x\| - \frac{1}{2}c\|x\| = \frac{1}{2}c\|x\|.$$

By a previous theorem, $\lambda \in \rho(T)$.

So λ_0 has a neighborhood lying entirely in $\rho(T)$.

Since $\lambda_0 \in \rho(T)$ was arbitrary, we conclude that $\rho(T)$ is open.

Hence, $\sigma(T) = \mathbb{C} - \rho(T)$ is closed.

Subsection 5

Spectral Representation of Unitary Operators

The Spectrum Theorem

Theorem (Spectrum)

If $U: H \rightarrow H$ is a unitary linear operator on a complex Hilbert space $H \neq \{0\}$, then the spectrum $\sigma(U)$ is a closed subset of the unit circle. Thus, $|\lambda| = 1$, for every $\lambda \in \sigma(U)$.

- We have $\|U\| = 1$, by a preceding theorem.

Hence, $|\lambda| \leq 1$, for all $\lambda \in \sigma(U)$, also by a previous theorem.

Also $0 \in \rho(U)$, since for $\lambda = 0$ the resolvent operator of U is $U^{-1} = U^*$.

The operator U^{-1} is unitary by a preceding theorem.

Hence, $\|U^{-1}\| = 1$.

Also, a preceding theorem, with $T = U$ and $\lambda_0 = 0$, now implies that every λ satisfying $|\lambda| < \frac{1}{\|U^{-1}\|} = 1$ belongs to $\rho(U)$.

Hence, the spectrum of U must lie on the unit circle.

It is closed, by another theorem.

The Power Series Lemma

Lemma (Power Series)

Let

$$h(\lambda) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n \lambda^n, \quad \alpha_n \text{ real,}$$

be absolutely convergent, for all λ , such that $|\lambda| \leq k$. Suppose that $S \in B(H, H)$ is self-adjoint and has norm $\|S\| \leq k$, where H is a complex Hilbert space. Then

$$h(S) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n S^n$$

is a bounded self-adjoint linear operator and

$$\|h(S)\| \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |\alpha_n| k^n.$$

If a bounded linear operator commutes with S , it does so with $h(S)$.

The Power Series Lemma

- Let $h_n(\lambda)$ denote the n -th partial sum of the λ -series. For $|\lambda| \leq k$, the series converges absolutely (hence also uniformly). Since H is complete, absolute convergence implies convergence. Hence, convergence of the S -series follows from $\|S\| \leq k$ and

$$\left\| \sum \alpha_n S^n \right\| \leq \sum |\alpha_n| \|S\|^n \leq |\alpha_n| k^n.$$

We denote the sum of the series by $h(S)$.

This is in agreement with a preceding section, because $h(\lambda)$ is continuous and $h_n(\lambda) \rightarrow h(\lambda)$, uniformly for $|\lambda| \leq k$.

The Power Series Lemma (Cont'd)

- We show, next, that the operator $h(S)$ is self-adjoint.
Since the $h_n(S)$ are self-adjoint, $\langle h_n(S)x, x \rangle$ is real.
Hence, $\langle h(S)x, x \rangle$ is real by the continuity of the inner product.
So that $h(S)$ is self-adjoint, since H is complex.
Finally, we prove the last inequality.
Since $\|S\| \leq k$, a preceding theorem gives $[m, M] \subseteq [-k, k]$.
Another theorem yields, for $J = [m, M]$,

$$\|h_n(S)\| \leq \max_{\lambda \in J} |h_n(\lambda)| \leq \sum_{j=0}^n |\alpha_j| k^j.$$

Letting $n \rightarrow \infty$, the conclusion follows.

Wecken's Lemma

Wecken's Lemma

Let W and A be bounded self-adjoint linear operators on a complex Hilbert space H . Suppose that $WA = AW$ and $W^2 = A^2$. Let P be the projection of H onto the null space $\mathcal{N}(W - A)$. Then:

- (a) If a bounded linear operator commutes with $W - A$, it also commutes with P .
- (b) $Wx = 0$ implies $Px = x$.
- (c) We have $W = (2P - I)A$.

- (a) Suppose that B commutes with $W - A$.

By hypothesis, $Px \in \mathcal{N}(W - A)$, for every $x \in H$.

Thus, $(W - A)BPx = B(W - A)Px = 0$. So $BPx \in \mathcal{N}(W - A)$.

This implies $P(BPx) = BPx$. I.e., $PBP = BP$.

It now suffices to show that $PBP = PB$.

Wecken's Lemma Parts (a) and (b)

- We must show $PBP = PB$.

Since $W - A$ is self-adjoint,

$$(W - A)B^* = [B(W - A)]^* = [(W - A)B]^* = B^*(W - A).$$

This shows that $W - A$ and B^* also commute.

Hence, reasoning as before, we obtain $PB^*P = B^*P$.

Since projections are self-adjoint,

$$PBP = (PB^*P)^* = (B^*P)^* = PB.$$

Together with $PBP = BP$, we have $BP = PB$.

- (b) Let $Wx = 0$.

Since A and W are self-adjoint and $A^2 = W^2$,

$$\|Ax\|^2 = \langle Ax, Ax \rangle = \langle A^2x, x \rangle = \langle W^2x, x \rangle = \|Wx\|^2 = 0.$$

So $Ax = 0$. Hence, $(W - A)x = 0$. This shows that $x \in \mathcal{N}(W - A)$.

But P is the projection of H onto $\mathcal{N}(W - A)$. So $Px = x$.

Wecken's Lemma Part (c)

(c) From the assumptions $W^2 = A^2$ and $WA = AW$, we have

$$(W - A)(W + A) = W^2 - A^2 = 0.$$

Hence, $(W + A)x \in \mathcal{N}(W - A)$, for every $x \in H$.

Since P projects H onto $\mathcal{N}(W - A)$, we get $P(W + A)x = (W + A)x$, for every $x \in H$. Thus,

$$P(W + A) = W + A.$$

But note that:

- $P(W - A) = (W - A)P$, by Part (a);
- $(W - A)P = 0$, since P projects H onto $\mathcal{N}(W - A)$.

So

$$P(W - A) = 0.$$

Hence,

$$2PA = P(W + A) - P(W - A) = W + A.$$

Therefore, $2PA - A = W$.

Spectral Theorem for Unitary Operators

Spectral Theorem for Unitary Operators

Let $U: H \rightarrow H$ be a unitary operator on a complex Hilbert space $H \neq \{0\}$. Then, there exists a spectral family $\mathcal{E} = (E_\theta)$ on $[-\pi, \pi]$, such that

$$U = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\theta} dE_\theta = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos\theta + i \sin\theta) dE_\theta.$$

More generally, for every continuous function f defined on the unit circle,

$$f(U) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(e^{i\theta}) dE_\theta,$$

where the integral is to be understood in the sense of uniform operator convergence. Moreover, for all $x, y \in H$,

$$\langle f(U)x, y \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(e^{i\theta}) dw(\theta), \quad w(\theta) = \langle E_\theta x, y \rangle,$$

where the integral is an ordinary Riemann-Stieltjes integral.

Proof of the Spectral Theorem Plan

- We prove that, for a given unitary operator U , there is a bounded self-adjoint linear operator S , with $\sigma(S) \subseteq [-\pi, \pi]$, such that

$$U = e^{iS} = \cos S + i \sin S.$$

Then we use the spectral theorems of the preceding chapter.

We proceed stepwise as follows:

- (a) We prove that U is unitary, provided S exists.
- (b) We write $U = V + iW$, where

$$V = \frac{1}{2}(U + U^*), \quad W = \frac{1}{2i}(U - U^*),$$

and prove that V and W are self-adjoint and $-I \leq V \leq I, -I \leq W \leq I$.

- (c) We investigate some properties of $g(V) = \arccos V$ and $A = \sin g(V)$.
- (d) We prove that the desired operator S is

$$S = (2P - I)(\arccos V),$$

where P is the projection of H onto $\mathcal{N}(W - A)$.

Proof of the Spectral Theorem Part (a)

(a) Suppose S is bounded and self-adjoint.

By the Power Series Lemma, so are $\cos S$ and $\sin S$.

These operators commute by the same lemma.

This implies that U is unitary since

$$\begin{aligned}UU^* &= (\cos S + i \sin S)(\cos S - i \sin S) \\ &= (\cos S)^2 + (\sin S)^2 \\ &= (\cos^2 + \sin^2)(S) \\ &= I.\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $U^* U = I$.

Proof of the Spectral Theorem Part (b)

(b) Self-adjointness of $V = \frac{1}{2}(U + U^*)$ and $W = \frac{1}{2i}(U - U^*)$ follows by a direct calculation using a previous result.

Since $UU^* = U^*U (= I)$, we have $VW = WV$.

Also $\|U\| = \|U^*\| = 1$ imply $\|V\| \leq 1$, $\|W\| \leq 1$.

Hence, the Schwarz inequality yields

$$|\langle Vx, x \rangle| \leq \|Vx\| \|x\| \leq \|V\| \|x\|^2 \leq \langle x, x \rangle.$$

So we have

$$-\langle x, x \rangle \leq \langle Vx, x \rangle \leq \langle x, x \rangle.$$

This proves the first formula.

The second follows by the same argument.

Furthermore, by direct calculation,

$$V^2 + W^2 = \frac{1}{4}(U^2 + 2UU^* + (U^*)^2) - \frac{1}{4}(U^2 - 2UU^* + (U^*)^2) = UU^* = I.$$

Proof of the Spectral Theorem Part (c)

(c) We consider

$$g(\lambda) = \arccos \lambda = \frac{\pi}{2} - \arcsin \lambda = \frac{\pi}{2} - \lambda - \frac{1}{6}\lambda^3 - \dots$$

The Maclaurin series on the right converges for $|\lambda| \leq 1$.

- At $\lambda = 1$ the series of $\arcsin \lambda$ has positive coefficients.
So it has a monotone sequence of partial sums s_n , when $\lambda > 0$.
This sequence is bounded on $(0, 1)$, since $s_n(\lambda) < \arcsin \lambda < \frac{\pi}{2}$.
So, for every fixed n , we have $s_n(\lambda) \rightarrow s_n(1) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$, as $\lambda \rightarrow 1$.
It follows that the series converges at $\lambda = 1$.
- Convergence at $\lambda = -1$ follows readily from that at $\lambda = 1$.

Note that $\|V\| \leq 1$.

So, by a previous lemma, the operator

$$g(V) = \arccos V = \frac{\pi}{2}I - V - \frac{1}{6}V^3 - \dots$$

exists and is self-adjoint.

Proof of the Spectral Theorem Part (c) (Cont'd)

- Now define

$$A = \sin g(V).$$

This is a power series in V .

By a previous lemma, A is self-adjoint and commutes with V .

Moreover, it also commutes with W .

By the power-series expression $\cos g(V) = V$.

So we have

$$V^2 + A^2 = (\cos^2 + \sin^2)(g(V)) = I.$$

A comparison with $V^2 + W^2 = I$ yields $W^2 = A^2$.

Hence, we can apply Wecken's lemma to conclude that:

- $W = (2P - I)A$;
- $Wx = 0$ implies $Px = x$;
- P commutes with V and with $g(V)$, since these operators commute with $W - A$.

Proof of the Spectral Theorem Part (d)

(d) Define

$$S = (2P - I)g(V) = g(V)(2P - I).$$

Obviously, S is self-adjoint.

Claim: S satisfies $U = e^{iS} = \cos S + i \sin S$.

Set $\kappa = \lambda^2$. Define h_1 and h_2 by

$$\begin{aligned} h_1(\kappa) &= \cos \lambda = 1 - \frac{1}{2!}\lambda^2 + \dots; \\ \lambda h_2(\kappa) &= \sin \lambda = \lambda - \frac{1}{3!}\lambda^3 + \dots. \end{aligned}$$

These functions exist for all κ .

Since P is a projection, $(2P - I)^2 = 4P^2 - 4P + I = 4P - 4P + I = I$.

So we get

$$S^2 = (2P - I)^2 g(V)^2 = g(V)^2.$$

Hence,

$$\cos S = h_1(S^2) = h_1(g(V)^2) = \cos g(V) = V.$$

Proof of the Spectral Theorem Part (d) (Cont'd)

- Next we show that $\sin S = W$.

Indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sin S &= Sh_2(S^2) \\
 &= (2P - I)g(V)h_2(g(V)^2) \\
 &= (2P - I)\sin g(V) \\
 &= (2P - I)A \\
 &= W.
 \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that $e^{iS} = V + iW = U$.

Claim: $\sigma(S) \subseteq [-\pi, \pi]$.

Since $|\arccos \lambda| \leq \pi$, we get that $\|S\| \leq \pi$.

Since S is self-adjoint and bounded, $\sigma(S)$ is real.

A preceding theorem yields the result.

Proof of the Spectral Theorem (Conclusion)

- Let (E_θ) be the spectral family of S .

Then the equations for U and $f(U)$ follow from $U = e^{iS}$ and the spectral theorem for bounded self-adjoint linear operators.

Claim: We can take $-\pi$ (instead of $-\pi^-$) as the lower limit of integration without restricting generality.

If we had a spectral family, call it (\tilde{E}_θ) , such that $\tilde{E}_{-\pi} \neq 0$, we would have to take $-\pi^-$ as the lower limit of integration in those integrals.

However, instead of \tilde{E}_θ we could then equally well use E_θ defined by

$$E_\theta = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \theta = -\pi \\ \tilde{E}_\theta - \tilde{E}_{-\pi}, & \text{if } -\pi < \theta < \pi \\ I, & \text{if } \theta = \pi \end{cases} .$$

E_θ is continuous at $\theta = -\pi$.

So the lower limit of integration $-\pi$ is in order.

Subsection 6

Spectral Representation of Self-Adjoint Linear Operators

The Cayley Transform

- Let H be a complex Hilbert space.
- Consider a self-adjoint linear operator $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ on H , where $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is dense in H and T may be unbounded.
- We associate with T the operator

$$U = (T - il)(T + il)^{-1},$$

called the **Cayley transform** of T .

- We show that the operator U is unitary.

Cayley Transform and Spectra

- We defined the Cayley transform $U = (T - il)(T + il)^{-1}$ of T , which is unitary.
- We obtain the spectral theorem for the (possibly unbounded) T from that for the bounded operator U .
- T has its spectrum $\sigma(T)$ on the real axis of the complex plane \mathbb{C} .
- On the other hand, the spectrum of a unitary operator lies on the unit circle of \mathbb{C} .
- A mapping $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ which transforms the real axis into the unit circle is

$$u = \frac{t-i}{t+i}.$$

- This mapping suggests the Cayley transform.

First Cayley Transform Lemma

Lemma (Cayley Transform)

The Cayley transform of a self-adjoint linear operator $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ exists on H and is a unitary operator, where $H \neq \{0\}$ is a complex Hilbert space.

- Since T is self-adjoint, $\sigma(T)$ is real.

Hence, i and $-i$ belong to the resolvent set $\rho(T)$.

Consequently, by the definition of $\rho(T)$, the inverses $(T + il)^{-1}$ and $(T - il)^{-1}$ exist on a dense subset of H and are bounded operators.

A preceding theorem implies that T is closed because $T = T^*$.

By a previous lemma, those inverses are defined on all of H .

That is, $\mathcal{R}(T + il) = H$ and $\mathcal{R}(T - il) = H$.

We thus have, since l is defined on all of H ,

$$(T + il)^{-1}(H) = \mathcal{D}(T + il) = \mathcal{D}(T) = \mathcal{D}(T - il).$$

We also have $(T - il)(\mathcal{D}(T)) = H$.

This shows that U is a bijection of H onto itself.

First Cayley Transform Lemma (Cont'd)

- By a previous theorem, it remains to prove that U is isometric. Take any $x \in H$, set $y = (T + iI)^{-1}x$ and use $\langle y, Ty \rangle = \langle Ty, y \rangle$.

We calculate

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|Ux\|^2 &= \|(T - iI)y\|^2 \\
 &= \langle Ty - iy, Ty - iy \rangle \\
 &= \langle Ty, Ty \rangle + i\langle Ty, y \rangle - i\langle y, Ty \rangle + \langle iy, iy \rangle \\
 &= \langle Ty + iy, Ty + iy \rangle \\
 &= \|(T + iI)y\|^2 \\
 &= \|(T + iI)(T + iI)^{-1}x\|^2 \\
 &= \|x\|^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

A previous theorem now implies that U is unitary.

Second Cayley Transform Lemma

Lemma (Cayley Transform)

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a self-adjoint linear operator, where, $H \neq \{0\}$ is a complex Hilbert space, and let U be defined by $U = (T - il)(T + il)^{-1}$. Then

$$T = i(I + U)(I - U)^{-1}.$$

Furthermore, 1 is not an eigenvalue of U .

- Let $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ and $y = (T + il)x$.
Then $Uy = (T - il)x$, since $(T + il)^{-1}(T + il) = I$.
By addition and subtraction, we get

$$(I + U)y = 2Tx \quad \text{and} \quad (I - U)y = 2ix.$$

We know $y \in \mathcal{R}(T + il) = H$. Hence, $I - U$ maps H onto $\mathcal{D}(T)$.

We also see that, if $(I - U)y = 0$, then $x = 0$.

So, by $y = (T + il)x$, $y = 0$.

Second Cayley Transform Lemma (Cont'd)

- Hence, $(I - U)^{-1}$ exists by a previous theorem.
Moreover, it is defined on the range of $I - U$, which is $\mathcal{D}(T)$.
Hence, since $(I - U)y = 2ix$,

$$y = 2i(I - U)^{-1}x, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{D}(T).$$

By substitution into $(I + U)y = 2Tx$, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$Tx = \frac{1}{2}(I + U)y = i(I + U)(I - U)^{-1}x.$$

Since $(I - U)^{-1}$ exists, 1 cannot be an eigenvalue of the Cayley transform U .

Spectral Theorem for Self-Adjoint Linear Operators

Spectral Theorem for Self-Adjoint Linear Operators

Let $T : \mathcal{D}(T) \rightarrow H$ be a self-adjoint linear operator, where $H \neq \{0\}$ is a complex Hilbert space and $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is dense in H . Let U be the Cayley transform of T and (E_θ) the spectral family in the spectral representation

$$-U = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\theta} dE_\theta = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) dE_\theta$$

of $-U$. Then, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Tx, x \rangle &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \tan \frac{\theta}{2} dw(\theta) & w(\theta) &= \langle E_\theta x, x \rangle \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda dv(\lambda), & v(\lambda) &= \langle F_\lambda x, x \rangle \end{aligned}$$

where $F_\lambda = E_{2 \arctan \lambda}$.

Spectral Theorem for Self-Adjoint Operators (Plan)

- From a previous spectral theorem, we have

$$-U = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\theta} dE_{\theta} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) dE_{\theta}.$$

We prove the statement in two steps:

- (a) We show that (E_{θ}) is continuous at $-\pi$ and π .
- (b) We use Property (a) to establish the claimed equations.

Spectral Theorem for Self-Adjoint Operators Part (a)

- (a) (E_θ) is the spectral family of a bounded self-adjoint linear operator which we call S . Then $-U = \cos S + i \sin S$.

From a previous theorem, we know that a θ_0 at which (E_θ) is discontinuous is an eigenvalue of S .

Then, there is an $x \neq 0$, such that $Sx = \theta_0 x$.

Hence, for any polynomial q , $q(S)x = q(\theta_0)x$.

Also, for any continuous function g on $[-\pi, \pi]$, $g(S)x = g(\theta_0)x$.

Since $\sigma(S) \subseteq [-\pi, \pi]$, we have $E_{-\pi^-} = 0$.

Hence, if $E_{-\pi} \neq 0$, then $-\pi$ would be an eigenvalue of S .

By the preceding relations, the operator U would have the eigenvalue $-\cos(-\pi) - i \sin(-\pi) = 1$.

This contradicts a preceding lemma.

Similarly, $E_\pi = I$ and, if $E_{\pi^-} \neq I$, U would have an eigenvalue 1 .

Spectral Theorem for Self-Adjoint Operators Part (b)

(b) Let $x \in H$ and $y = (I - U)x$.

In the proof of a previous lemma, it was shown that $I - U : H \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(T)$.

Hence, $y \in \mathcal{D}(T)$.

Now, we have $T = i(I + U)(I - U)^{-1}$. So we get

$$Ty = i(I + U)(I - U)^{-1}y = i(I + U)x.$$

Since $\|Ux\| = \|x\|$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Ty, y \rangle &= \langle i(I + U)x, (I - U)x \rangle \\ &= i(\langle Ux, x \rangle - \langle x, Ux \rangle) \\ &= i(\langle Ux, x \rangle - \overline{\langle Ux, x \rangle}) \\ &= -2\operatorname{Im}\langle Ux, x \rangle \\ &= 2 \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin \theta d\langle E_{\theta}x, x \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\langle Ty, y \rangle = 4 \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} d\langle E_{\theta}x, x \rangle.$$

Spectral Theorem Part (b) (Cont'd)

- Recall that (E_θ) is the spectral family of the bounded self-adjoint linear operator S in $-U = \cos S + i \sin S$.

Hence E_θ and S commute. So E_θ and U commute.

Now, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \langle E_\theta y, y \rangle &= \langle E_\theta (I - U)x, (I - U)x \rangle \\ &= \langle (I - U)^* (I - U) E_\theta x, x \rangle \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (1 + e^{-i\varphi})(1 + e^{i\varphi}) d\langle E_\varphi z, x \rangle, \quad \text{where } z = E_\theta x. \end{aligned}$$

We also have:

- $E_\varphi E_\theta = E_\varphi$, when $\varphi \leq \theta$;
- $(1 + e^{-i\varphi})(1 + e^{i\varphi}) = (e^{i\varphi/2} + e^{-i\varphi/2})^2 = 4 \cos^2 \frac{\varphi}{2}$.

So we obtain

$$\langle E_\theta y, y \rangle = 4 \int_{-\pi}^{\theta} \cos^2 \frac{\varphi}{2} d\langle E_\varphi x, x \rangle.$$

Spectral Theorem Part (b) (Cont'd)

- We obtained

$$\langle E_\theta y, y \rangle = 4 \int_{-\pi}^{\theta} \cos^2 \frac{\varphi}{2} d\langle E_\varphi x, x \rangle.$$

Using this, the continuity of E_θ at $\pm\pi$ and the rule for transforming a Stieltjes integral, we finally have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \tan \frac{\theta}{2} d\langle E_\theta y, y \rangle &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \tan \frac{\theta}{2} (4 \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2}) d\langle E_\theta x, x \rangle \\ &= 4 \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} d\langle E_\theta x, x \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

We now have the first formula with y instead of x .

The second follows by the indicated transformation $\theta = 2 \arctan \lambda$.

Note that (F_λ) is indeed a spectral family. In particular:

- $F_\lambda \xrightarrow{\lambda \rightarrow -\infty} 0$;
- $F_\lambda \xrightarrow{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} I$.

Subsection 7

Multiplication Operator and Differentiation Operator

The Multiplication Operator

- Consider the operator

$$\begin{aligned} T: \mathcal{D}(T) &\rightarrow L^2(-\infty, +\infty); \\ x &\mapsto tx \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{D}(T) \subseteq L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.

- $\mathcal{D}(T)$ consists of all $x \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$, such that $Tx \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.
- So $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ if and only if $x \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$ and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} t^2 |x(t)|^2 dt < \infty.$$

The Domain of the Multiplication Operator

- The definition implies that $\mathcal{D}(T) \neq L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.
An $x \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$ not satisfying finiteness is

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{t}, & \text{if } t \geq 1 \\ 0, & \text{if } t < 1 \end{cases}$$

Hence $x \notin \mathcal{D}(T)$.

- $\mathcal{D}(T)$ contains all functions $x \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$ which are zero outside a compact interval.
- It can be shown that this set of functions is dense in $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.
- Hence $\mathcal{D}(T)$ is dense in $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.

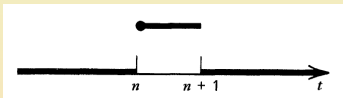
Unboundedness of the Multiplication Operator

Lemma (Multiplication Operator)

The multiplication operator T defined by $U = (T - il)(T + il)^{-1}$ is not bounded.

- Consider

$$x_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \leq t < n+1 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} .$$



We have

- $\|x_n\| = 1$;
- $\|Tx_n\|^2 = \int_n^{n+1} t^2 dt > n^2$.

So $\frac{\|Tx_n\|}{\|x_n\|} > n$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ can be chosen as large as desired.

Comparison with Finite Domains

- The unboundedness results from the fact that we are dealing with functions on an infinite interval.
- For comparison, in the case of a finite interval $[a, b]$ the operator

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{T}: \mathcal{D}(\tilde{T}) &\rightarrow L^2[a, b]; \\ x &\mapsto tx, \end{aligned}$$

is bounded.

- If $|b| \geq |a|$, then

$$\|\tilde{T}x\|^2 = \int_a^b t^2 |x(t)|^2 dt \leq b^2 \|x\|^2;$$

- If $|b| < |a|$, the proof is similar.

This also shows that $x \in L^2[a, b]$ implies $\tilde{T}x \in L^2[a, b]$.

Hence $\mathcal{D}(\tilde{T}) = L^2[a, b]$, i.e., \tilde{T} is defined on all of $L^2[a, b]$.

Self-Adjointness

Theorem (Self-Adjointness)

The multiplication operator T defined by $U = (T - il)(T + il)^{-1}$ is self-adjoint.

- T is densely defined in $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$, as was mentioned before. T is symmetric because, using $t = \bar{t}$, we have

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} tx(t)\overline{y(t)}dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)\overline{ty(t)}dt = \langle x, Ty \rangle.$$

Hence, $T \subseteq T^*$, by a preceding theorem.

Thus, it suffices to show that $\mathcal{D}(T) \supseteq \mathcal{D}(T^*)$.

This we do by proving that $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$ implies $y \in \mathcal{D}(T)$.

Let $y \in \mathcal{D}(T^*)$. Then, for all $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$,

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, y^* \rangle, \quad y^* = T^*y.$$

Written out $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} tx(t)\overline{y(t)}dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)\overline{y^*(t)}dt$.

Self-Adjointness

- Now we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)[\overline{ty(t)} - \overline{y^*(t)}] dt = 0.$$

In particular, this holds for every $x \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$ which is zero outside an arbitrary given bounded interval (a, b) .

Clearly, such an x is in $\mathcal{D}(T)$. Choose

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} ty(t) - y^*(t), & \text{if } t \in (a, b) \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}.$$

Then we have $\int_a^b |ty(t) - y^*(t)|^2 dt = 0$.

It follows that $ty(t) - y^*(t) = 0$ almost everywhere on (a, b) .

Hence, $ty(t) = y^*(t)$ almost everywhere on (a, b) .

Since (a, b) was arbitrary, we have $ty = y^* \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$. So $y \in \mathcal{D}(T)$. We also have $T^*y = y^* = ty = Ty$.

- Note that the theorem implies that T is closed, because $T = T^*$.

Spectral Properties

Theorem (Spectrum)

Let T be the multiplication operator and $\sigma(T)$ its spectrum. Then:

- (a) T has no eigenvalues.
- (b) $\sigma(T)$ is all of \mathbb{R} .

- (a) For any λ , let $x \in \mathcal{D}(T)$ be such that $Tx = \lambda x$. Then $(T - \lambda I)x = 0$. Hence, by the definition of T ,

$$0 = \|(T - \lambda I)x\|^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |t - \lambda|^2 |x(t)|^2 dt.$$

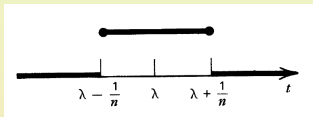
Since $|t - \lambda| > 0$, for all $t \neq \lambda$, we have $x(t) = 0$, for almost all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence, $x = 0$. So x is not an eigenvector and λ not an eigenvalue of T . Since λ was arbitrary, T has no eigenvalues.

Spectral Properties Part (b)

(b) We have $\sigma(T) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, by previous theorems.

Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. We define

$$v_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \lambda - \frac{1}{n} \leq t \leq \lambda + \frac{1}{n} \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} .$$



Consider $x_n = \frac{1}{\|v_n\|} v_n$. Then $\|x_n\| = 1$.

Write $T_\lambda = T - \lambda I$, as usual.

Note that $(t - \lambda)^2 \leq \frac{1}{n^2}$ on the interval on which v_n is not zero.

So, by the definition of T ,

$$\|T_\lambda x_n\|^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (t - \lambda)^2 |x_n(t)|^2 dt \leq \frac{1}{n^2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x_n(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{n^2} .$$

Spectral Properties Part (b) (Cont'd)

- Taking square roots, we have $\|T_\lambda x_n\| \leq \frac{1}{n}$.

Since T has no eigenvalues, the resolvent $R_\lambda = T_\lambda^{-1}$ exists.

Moreover, $T_\lambda x_n \neq 0$ because $x_n \neq 0$, by a preceding result.

Consider the vectors

$$y_n = \frac{1}{\|T_\lambda x_n\|} T_\lambda x_n.$$

- They are in the range of T_λ , which is the domain of R_λ ;
- They have norm 1.

Applying R_λ , we get

$$\|R_\lambda y_n\| = \frac{1}{\|T_\lambda x_n\|} \|x_n\| \geq n.$$

This shows that the resolvent R_λ is unbounded. Hence, $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$.

Since $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ was arbitrary, $\sigma(T) = \mathbb{R}$.

The Spectral Family of T

- The spectral family of T is (E_λ) , where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$$E_\lambda : L^2(-\infty, +\infty) \rightarrow L^2(-\infty, \lambda)$$

is the projection of $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$ onto $L^2(-\infty, \lambda)$, considered as a subspace of $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.

- Thus,

$$E_\lambda x(t) = \begin{cases} x(t), & \text{if } t < \lambda \\ 0, & \text{if } t \geq \lambda \end{cases} .$$

Absolute Continuity

- Let $x(t)$ be a function in $L^2(-\infty, \infty)$.
- Recall that x is said to be **absolutely continuous** on an interval $[a, b]$ if, given $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$, such that:

For every finite set of disjoint open subintervals $(a_1, b_1), \dots, (a_n, b_n)$ of $[a, b]$ of total length less than δ , we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^n |x(b_j) - x(a_j)| < \varepsilon.$$

- Recall, also, that, if x is absolutely continuous on $[a, b]$, then:
 - It is differentiable almost everywhere on $[a, b]$;
 - $x' \in L[a, b]$.

The Differentiation Operator

- Consider the **differentiation operator**

$$\begin{aligned} D: \mathcal{D}(D) &\rightarrow L^2(-\infty, +\infty); \\ x &\mapsto ix', \end{aligned}$$

where $x' = \frac{dx}{dt}$ and i helps to make D self-adjoint.

- By definition, the domain $\mathcal{D}(D)$ of D consists of all $x \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$ which are:
 - Absolutely continuous on every compact interval on \mathbb{R} ;
 - Such that $x' \in L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.
- $\mathcal{D}(D)$ contains the sequence (e_n) involving the Hermite polynomials.
- The sequence (e_n) is total (i.e., its span is dense) in $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.
- Hence, $\mathcal{D}(D)$ is dense in $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.

Unboundedness of the Differentiation Operator

Lemma (Differentiation Operator)

The differentiation operator D is unbounded.

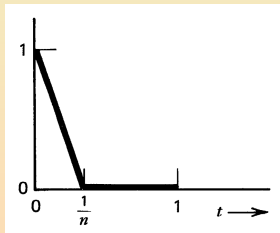
- D is an extension of $D_0 = D|_Y$, where $Y = \mathcal{D}(D) \cap L^2[0,1]$ and $L^2[0,1]$ is regarded as a subspace of $L^2(-\infty, +\infty)$.

Hence, if D_0 is unbounded, so is D .

We show that D_0 is unbounded.

Let

$$x_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - nt, & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{n} \\ 0, & \text{if } \frac{1}{n} < t \leq 1 \end{cases} .$$



Unboundedness of the Differentiation Operator (Cont'd)

- We defined

$$x_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - nt, & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{n} \\ 0, & \text{if } \frac{1}{n} < t \leq 1 \end{cases} .$$

The derivative is

$$x'_n(t) = \begin{cases} -n, & \text{if } 0 < t < \frac{1}{n} \\ 0, & \text{if } \frac{1}{n} < t < 1 \end{cases} .$$

We calculate

$$\|x_n\|^2 = \int_0^1 |x_n(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{3n} .$$

Moreover,

$$\|D_0 x_n\|^2 = \int_0^1 |x'_n(t)|^2 dt = n .$$

The quotient $\frac{\|D_0 x_n\|}{\|x_n\|} = n\sqrt{3} > n$. So D_0 is unbounded.

Remarks on the Differentiation Operator

- The differentiation operator is unbounded, even if considered for $L^2[a, b]$, where $[a, b]$ is a compact interval.

Theorem (Self-Adjointness)

The differentiation operator D is self-adjoint.

- A proof of this theorem requires some tools from the theory of Lebesgue integration.
- We finally mention the following properties:
 - D does not have eigenvalues;
 - The spectrum $\sigma(D)$ is all of \mathbb{R} .