

Unbounded linear operators

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These lecture notes are a continuation of the notes “*Bounded operators*”. We develop the theory of unbounded operators in Banach, and especially Hilbert spaces. We avoid using more advanced tools such as locally convex topologies and applications of the Baire category theorem.

1 Unbounded operators

1.1 Relations

Let X, Y be sets. R is called a relation iff $R \subset Y \times X$. We will also write $R : X \rightarrow Y$. (Note the inversion of the direction). An example of a relation is the identity $1_X := \{(x, x) : x \in X\} \subset X \times X$.

Introduce the “projections”

$$Y \times X \ni (y, x) \mapsto \pi_Y(y, x) := y \in Y,$$

$$Y \times X \ni (y, x) \mapsto \pi_X(y, x) := x \in X,$$

and the “flip”

$$Y \times X \ni (y, x) \mapsto \tau(y, x) := (x, y) \in X \times Y.$$

The domain of R is defined as $\text{Dom}R := \pi_X R$, its range is $\text{Ran}R = \pi_Y R$, the inverse of R is defined as $R^{-1} := \tau R \subset X \times Y$. If $S \subset Z \times Y$, then the superposition of S and R is defined as $S \circ R \subset Z \times X$, $S \circ R := \{(z, x) \in Z \times X : \exists_{y \in Y} (z, y) \in S, (y, x) \in R\}$.

If $X_0 \subset X$, then the restriction of R to X_0 is defined as

$$R \Big|_{X_0} := R \cap Y \times X_0.$$

If, moreover, $Y_0 \subset Y$, then

$$R \Big|_{X_0 \rightarrow Y_0} := R \cap Y_0 \times X_0.$$

We say that a relation R is right-unique, if for any $x \in X$ $\pi_Y(R \cap Y \times \{x\})$ is one-element. We say that R has a maximal domain if $\text{Dom}R = X$.

Proposition 1.1 *a) If R, S are right-unique, then so is $S \circ R$.
b) If R, S have a maximal domain, then so does $S \circ R$.*

A right unique relation will be also called a pseudo-transformation (-operator, etc). Instead of writing $(y, x) \in R$, we will then write $y = R(x)$ or, in some contexts, $y = Rx$. We also introduce the graph of R :

$$\text{Gr } R := \{(y, x) \in Y \times X : y = R(x), x \in \text{Dom}R\}.$$

Note that strictly speaking $\text{Gr } R = R$. The difference of $\text{Gr } R$ and R lies only in their syntactic role.

Note that a superposition of pseudotransformations is a pseudotransformation.

We say that a pseudotransformation is injective if it is left-unique. The inverse of a pseudotransformation is a pseudotransformation iff it is injective.

A transformation is a pseudotransformation with a maximal domain. The composition of transformations is a transformation.

We say that a transformation R is bijective iff it is left-unique and $\text{Ran } R = Y$. The inverse of a transformation is a transformation iff it is bijective.

Proposition 1.2 *Let $R \subset X \times Y$ and $S \subset Y \times X$ be transformations such that $R \circ S = 1_Y$ and $S \circ R = 1_X$. Then S and R are bijections and $S = R^{-1}$.*

1.2 Linear pseudooperators

Let \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} be vector spaces.

Proposition 1.3 *1) A linear subspace $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{Y} \oplus \mathcal{X}$ is a graph of a certain pseudooperator iff $(y, 0) \in \mathcal{V}$ implies $y = 0$.*

2) A pseudooperator A is injective iff $(0, x) \in \text{Gr } A$ implies $x = 0$.

From now on by an “operator” we will mean a “pseudooperator”. To say that A is a true operator we will write $\text{Dom}A = \mathcal{X}$.

1.3 Closed operators

Let \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} be Banach spaces.

Theorem 1.4 *Let $A : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be an operator. The following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) $\text{Gr } A$ is closed in $\mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{X}$.
- (2) If $x_n \rightarrow x$, $x_n \in \text{Dom}A$ and $Ax_n \rightarrow y$, then $x \in \text{Dom}A$ and $y = Ax$.
- (3) For some $p \in [1, \infty]$, $\text{Dom}A$ with the norm

$$\|x\|_{A,p} := (\|Ax\|^p + \|x\|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

is a Banach space.

Proof. The equivalence of (1), (2) and (3) is obvious, if we note that

$$\text{Dom}A \ni x \mapsto (Ax, x) \in \text{Gr} A$$

is a bijection. \square

Definition 1.5 *An operator satisfying the above conditions is called closed.*

We will say that $A : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ is bounded iff

$$\|Ax\| \leq c\|x\|, \quad x \in \text{Dom}A. \quad (1.1)$$

$B(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$ will denote all bounded operators from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{Y} with the domain equal to \mathcal{X} .

Proposition 1.6 *A bounded operator A is closed iff $\text{Dom}A$ is closed.*

Theorem 1.7 *Let $B \in B(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$ be invertible and $A : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ closed. Then BA is closed on $\text{Dom}A$ and AB is closed on $B^{-1}\text{Dom}A$.*

Proof. We check that

$$\|x\|_A \leq \max(1, \|B^{-1}\|)\|x\|_{BA},$$

$$\|x\|_{BA} \leq \max(1, \|B\|)\|x\|_A,$$

$$\|Bx\|_A \leq \max(1, \|B\|)\|x\|_{AB},$$

$$\|x\|_{AB} \leq \max(1, \|B^{-1}\|)\|Bx\|_A.$$

\square

Theorem 1.8 *If A is closed and injective, then so is A^{-1} .*

Proof. The flip $\tau : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ is continuous. \square

1.4 Closable operators

Theorem 1.9 *Let $A : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be an operator. The following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) *There exists a closed operator B such that $B \supset A$.*
- (2) *$(\text{Gr} A)^{\text{cl}}$ is the graph of an operator.*
- (3) *$(y, 0) \in (\text{Gr} A)^{\text{cl}} \Rightarrow y = 0$.*
- (4) *$(x_n) \subset \text{Dom}A$, $x_n \rightarrow 0$, $Ax_n \rightarrow y$ implies $y = 0$.*

Definition 1.10 *An operator A satisfying the conditions of Theorem 1.9 is called closable. If the conditions of Theorem 1.9 hold, then the operator whose graph equals $(\text{Gr} A)^{\text{cl}}$ is denoted by A^{cl} and called the closure of A .*

Proof of Theorem 1.9 To show (2) \Rightarrow (1) it suffices to take as B the operator A^{cl} . Let us show (1) \Rightarrow (2). Let B be a closed operator such that $A \subset B$. Then $(\text{Gr} A)^{\text{cl}} \subset (\text{Gr} B)^{\text{cl}} = \text{Gr} B$. But $(y, 0) \in \text{Gr} B \Rightarrow y = 0$, hence $(y, 0) \in (\text{Gr} A)^{\text{cl}} \Rightarrow y = 0$. Thus $(\text{Gr} A)^{\text{cl}}$ is the graph of an operator. \square

As a by-product of the above proof, we obtain

Proposition 1.11 *If A is closable, B closed and $A \subset B$, then $A^{\text{cl}} \subset B$.*

Proposition 1.12 *Let A be bounded. Then A is closable, $\text{Dom}A^{\text{cl}} = (\text{Dom}A)^{\text{cl}}$ and $A^{\text{cl}}x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Ax_n$ for $x_n \rightarrow x$, $x_n \in \text{Dom}A$. Besides, A^{cl} satisfies (1.1).*

Let A be a closed operator. We say that a linear subspace \mathcal{D} is an essential domain for A iff \mathcal{D} is dense in $\text{Dom}A$ in the graph topology. In other words, \mathcal{D} is an essential domain for A , if

$$\left(A \Big|_{\mathcal{D}}\right)^{\text{cl}} = A.$$

Theorem 1.13 (1) *If $A \in B(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$, then a linear subspace $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{X}$ is an essential domain for A iff it is dense in \mathcal{X} (in the usual topology).*

(2) *If A is closed, has a dense domain and \mathcal{D} is its essential domain, then \mathcal{D} is dense in \mathcal{X} .*

1.5 Perturbations of closed operators

Definition 1.14 *Let $B, A : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$. We say that B is bounded relatively to A iff $\text{Dom}A \subset \text{Dom}B$ and there exist constants a, b such that*

$$\|Bx\| \leq a\|Ax\| + b\|x\|, \quad x \in \text{Dom}A. \quad (1.2)$$

The infimum of a satisfying (1.2) is called the A -bound of B . In other words: the A -bound of B equals

$$\inf_{c>0} \sup_{x \in \text{Dom}A \setminus \{0\}} \frac{\|Bx\|}{\|Ax\| + c\|x\|}.$$

In particular, if B is bounded, then its A -bound equals 0.

If A is unbounded, then its A -bound equals 1.

In the case of Hilbert spaces it is more convenient to use the following condition to define the relative boundedness:

Theorem 1.15 *B is bounded relatively to A with the A -bound a iff $\text{Dom}A \subset \text{Dom}B$ and*

$$\inf_{c>0} \sup_{x \in \text{Dom}A \setminus \{0\}} \left(\frac{\|Bx\|^2}{\|Ax\|^2 + c\|x\|^2} \right)^{1/2} < \infty. \quad (1.3)$$

If this is the case, then (1.3) equals the A -bound of B

Proof. For any $\epsilon > 0$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} & (\|Ax\|^2 + c^2\|x\|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ & \leq \|Ax\| + c\|x\| \\ & \leq ((1 + \epsilon^2)\|Ax\|^2 + c^2(1 + \epsilon^{-2})\|x\|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.16 *Let A be closed and let B be bounded relatively to A with the A -bound less than 1. Then $A + B$ with the domain $\text{Dom}A$ is closed. All essential domains of A are essential domains of $A + B$*

Proof. We know that

$$\|Bx\| \leq a\|Ax\| + b\|x\|$$

for some $a < 1$ and b . Hence

$$\|(A + B)x\| + \|x\| \leq (1 + a)\|Ax\| + (1 + b)\|x\|$$

and

$$(1 - a)\|Ax\| + \|x\| \leq \|Ax\| - \|Bx\| + (1 + b)\|x\| \leq \|(A + B)x\| + (1 + b)\|x\|.$$

Hence the norms $\|Ax\| + \|x\|$ and $\|(A + B)x\| + \|x\|$ are equivalent on $\text{Dom}A$. \square

Theorem 1.17 *Suppose that A, C are two operators with the same domain $\text{Dom}A = \text{Dom}C = \mathcal{D}$ satisfying*

$$\|(A - C)x\| \leq a(\|Ax\| + \|Cx\|) + b\|x\|$$

for some $a < 1$. Then

- (1) A is closed on \mathcal{D} iff C is closed on \mathcal{D} .
- (2) A is closable on \mathcal{D} iff C is closable on \mathcal{D} and then the domains of A^{cl} and C^{cl} coincide.

Proof. Define $B := C - A$ and $F(t) := A + tB$ with the domain \mathcal{D} . For $0 \leq t \leq 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|Bx\| &\leq a(\|Ax\| + \|Cx\|) + b\|x\| \\ &= a(\|(F(t) - tB)x\| + \|(F(t) + (1 - t)B)x\|) + b\|x\| \\ &\leq 2a\|F(t)x\| + a\|Bx\| + b\|x\| \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\|Bx\| \leq \frac{2a}{1 - a}\|F(t)x\| + \frac{b}{1 - a}\|x\|.$$

Therefore, if $|s| < \frac{1 - a}{2a}$ and $t, t + s \in [0, 1]$, then $F(t + s)$ is closed iff $F(t)$ is closed. \square

1.6 Invertible unbounded operators

Definition 1.18 *We say that an operator A is invertible iff $A^{-1} \in B(\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{X})$.*

Theorem 1.19 *Let A be closed. Suppose that for some $c > 0$*

$$\|Ax\| \geq c\|x\|, \quad x \in \text{Dom}A. \tag{1.4}$$

Then $\text{Ran} A$ is closed. If $\text{Ran} A = Y$, then A is invertible and

$$\|A^{-1}\| \leq c^{-1}$$

Proof. Let $y_n \in \text{Ran} A$ and $y_n \rightarrow y$. Let $Ax_n = y_n$. Then x_n is a Cauchy sequence. Hence there exists $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n := x$. But A is closed, hence $Ax = y$. Therefore, $\text{Ran} A$ is closed. \square

Corollary 1.20 *Let A be closed. Suppose that for some $c > 0$*

$$\|Ax\| \geq c\|x\|,$$

and $\text{Ran} A$ is dense in \mathcal{Y} . Then A is invertible

Theorem 1.21 *Let A be closable and for some c (1.4) holds. Then (1.4) holds for A^{cl} as well.*

Theorem 1.22 (1) *Let A be injective and $\text{Dom}B \supset \text{Dom}A$. Then B has the A -bound less than $\|BA^{-1}\|$.*

(2) *If, moreover, $\|BA^{-1}\| < 1$, then $A + B$ with the domain $\text{Dom}A$ is closed, invertible and*

$$(A + B)^{-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (-1)^j A^{-1} (BA^{-1})^j.$$

Proof. Let $a := \|BA^{-1}\|$. By the estimate

$$\|Bx\| \leq a\|Ax\|, \quad x \in \text{Dom}A,$$

we see that B has the A -bound less than or equal to a . This proves (1).

Assume now that $a < 1$. Let

$$C_n := \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j A^{-1} (BA^{-1})^j.$$

Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n =: C$ exists.

Let $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Clearly, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n y = Cy$.

$$(A + B)C_n y = y + (-1)^n (BA^{-1})^{n+1} y \rightarrow y.$$

But $A + B$ is closed, hence $Cy \in \text{Dom}(A + B)$ and $(A + B)Cy = y$.

If $x \in \text{Dom}(A + B)$, then

$$C_n(A + B)x = x + (-1)^n A^{-1} (BA^{-1})^n Ax \rightarrow x.$$

Hence $C(A + B)y = y$. \square

Proposition 1.23 *Let A and B be invertible and $\text{Dom}B \supset \text{Dom}A$. Then*

$$B^{-1} - A^{-1} = B^{-1}(A - B)A^{-1}.$$

1.7 Spectrum of unbounded operators

Let A be an operator on \mathcal{X} . We define the resolvent set of A as

$$\text{rs}A := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z - A \text{ is invertible}\}.$$

We define the spectrum of A as $\text{sp}A := \mathbb{C} \setminus \text{rs}A$.

We say that $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is an eigenvector of A with the eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ iff $x \in \text{Dom}A$, $x \neq 0$ and $Ax = \lambda x$. The set of eigenvalues is called the point spectrum of A and denoted $\text{sp}_p A$. Clearly, $\text{sp}_p A \subset \text{sp}A$.

Let \mathbb{C}^{comp} denote the Riemann sphere (the one-point compactification of \mathbb{C}). In the case of unbounded operators it is sometimes convenient to use the “extended spectrum”, which is a subset of \mathbb{C}^{comp} , instead of the usual spectrum—a subset of \mathbb{C} .

The extended resolvent set is defined as $\text{rs}^{\text{ext}}A := \text{rs}A \cup \{\infty\}$ if $A \in B(\mathcal{X})$ and $\text{rs}^{\text{ext}}A := \text{rs}A$, if A is unbounded. The extended spectrum is defined as

$$\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}A = \mathbb{C}^{\text{comp}} \setminus \text{rs}^{\text{ext}}A.$$

If $A \in B(\mathcal{X})$, we set $(\infty - A)^{-1} = 0$.

Theorem 1.24 (1) If $\lambda, \mu \in \text{rs}A$, then

$$(\lambda - A)^{-1} - (\mu - A)^{-1} = (\mu - \lambda)(\lambda - A)^{-1}(\mu - A)^{-1}.$$

(2) If $\lambda \in \text{rs}A$ and $\|(\lambda - A)^{-1}\| = c$, then $\{z : |z - \lambda| < c^{-1}\} \subset \text{rs}A$.

(3) $\|(z - A)^{-1}\| \geq (\text{dist}(z, \text{sp}A))^{-1}$.

(4) If $\text{rs}A$ is nonempty, then A is closed.

(5) $\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}A$ is a compact subset of \mathbb{C}^{comp} .

(6) $(z - A)^{-1}$ is analytic on $\text{rs}^{\text{ext}}A$.

(7) $(z - A)^{-1}$ cannot be analytically extended to a larger subset of \mathbb{C}^{comp} than $\text{rs}^{\text{ext}}(A)$.

(8) $\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}(A) \neq \emptyset$

(9) $\text{Ran}(z - A)^{-1}$ does not depend on $z \in \text{rs}A$ and equals $\text{Dom}A$.

(10) $\text{Ker}(z - A)^{-1} = \{0\}$.

Proof. Let us show (4). If $\lambda \in \text{rs}(A)$, then $\lambda - A$ is invertible, hence closed. \square

It is easy to define the functional calculus for unbounded operators with a non-empty resolvent set. The definition usual definition can be repeated verbatim, replacing $\text{sp}A$ with $\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}(A)$. Theorem ?? remains valid except that the point about convergent power series should be dropped

Proposition 1.25 Suppose that $\text{rs}A$ is non-empty and $\text{Dom}A$ is dense. Then $\text{Dom}A^2$ is dense.

Proof. Let $z \in \text{rs}A$. $(z - A)^{-1}$ is a bounded operator with a dense range and $\text{Dom}A$ is dense. Hence $(z - A)^{-1}\text{Dom}A$ is dense. If $x \in \text{Dom}A$, then $A(z - A)^{-1}x = (z - A)^{-1}Ax \in \text{Dom}A$ Hence $(z - A)^{-1}\text{Dom}A \subset \text{Dom}A^2$. \square

Theorem 1.26 Let A and B be operators on \mathcal{X} with $A \subset B$, $A \neq B$. Then $\text{rs}A \subset \text{sp}B$, and hence $\text{rs}B \subset \text{sp}A$.

Proof. Let $\lambda \in \text{rs}A$. Let $x \in \text{Dom}B \setminus \text{Dom}A$. We have $\text{Ran}(\lambda - A) = \mathcal{X}$, hence there exists $y \in \text{Dom}A$ such that $(\lambda - A)y = (\lambda - B)x$. Hence $(\lambda - B)y = (\lambda - B)x$. Hence $\lambda \notin \text{rs}B$. \square

1.8 Examples of unbounded operators

Example 1.27 Let I be an infinite set and $(a_i)_{i \in I}$ be an unbounded complex sequence. Let $C_0(I)$ be the space of sequences with a finite number of non-zero elements. For $1 \leq p < \infty$ we define the operator

$$L^p(I) \supset C_0(I) \ni x \mapsto Ax \in L^p(I)$$

by the formula

$$(Ax)_i = a_i x_i.$$

(We can use $C_\infty(I)$ instead of $L^p(I)$, then $p = \infty$ in the formulas below). Then the operator A is unbounded and non-closed. Besides,

$$\text{sp}_p(A) = \{a_i : i \in I\},$$

$$\text{sp}A = \mathbb{C}.$$

The closure of A has the domain

$$\text{Dom}A^{\text{cl}} := \{(x_i)_{i \in I} \in L^p(I) : \sum_{i \in I} |a_i x_i|^p < \infty\} \quad (1.5)$$

We then have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sp}_p(A^{\text{cl}}) &= \{a_i : i \in I\}, \\ \text{sp}A^{\text{cl}} &= \{a_i : i \in I\}^{\text{cl}}. \end{aligned}$$

To prove this let \mathcal{D} be the rhs of (1.5) and $x \in \mathcal{D}$. Then there exists a countable set I_1 such that $i \notin I_1$ implies $x_i = 0$. We enumerate the elements of I_1 : i_1, i_2, \dots . Define $x^n \in C_0(I)$ setting $x_{i_j}^n = x_{i_j}$ for $j \leq n$ and $x_i^n = 0$ for the remaining indices. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = x$ and $Ax^n \rightarrow Ax$. Hence, $\{(x, Ax) : x \in \mathcal{D}\} \subset (\text{Gr } A)^{\text{cl}}$.

If x^n belongs to (1.5) and $(x^n, Ax^n) \rightarrow (x, y)$, then $x_i^n \rightarrow x_i$ and $a_i x_i^n = (Ax^n)_i \rightarrow y_i$. Hence $y_i = a_i x_i$. Using that $y \in L^p(I)$ we see that x belongs to (1.5).

Example 1.28 Let $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$, $1 < p \leq \infty$ and let $(w_i)_{i \in I}$ be a sequence that does not belong to $L^q(I)$. Let $C_0(I)$ be as above. Define

$$L^p(I) \supset C_0(I) \ni x \mapsto \langle w|x \rangle := \sum_{i \in I} x_i w_i \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Then $\langle w|$ is non-closable.

It is sufficient to assume that $I = \mathbb{N}$ and define $v_i^n := \frac{|w_i|^q}{w_i(\sum_{i=1}^n |w_i|^q)}$, $i \leq n$, $v_i^n = 0$, $i > n$. Then $\langle w|v^n \rangle = 1$ and $\|v^n\|_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |w_i|^q)^{-\frac{1}{q}} \rightarrow 0$. Hence $(0, 1)$ belongs to the closure of the graph of the operator.

1.9 Pseudoresolvents

Definition 1.29 Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ be open. Then the continuous function

$$\Omega \ni z \mapsto R(z) \in B(\mathcal{X})$$

is called a pseudoresolvent if

$$R(z_1) - R(z_2) = (z_2 - z_1)R(z_1)R(z_2). \quad (1.6)$$

Evidently, every resolvent of a closed operator is a pseudoresolvent.

Proposition 1.30 Let $\Omega \ni z \mapsto R_n(z) \in B(\mathcal{X})$ be a sequence of pseudoresolvents and $R(z) := s\text{-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(z)$. Then $R(z)$ is a pseudoresolvent.

Theorem 1.31 Let $\Omega \ni z \mapsto R(z) \in B(\mathcal{X})$ be a pseudoresolvent. Then

- (1) $\mathcal{R} := \text{Ran } R(z)$ does not depend on $z \in \Omega$.
- (2) $\mathcal{N} := \text{Ker } R(z)$ does not depend on $z \in \Omega$.
- (3) $R(z)$ is an analytic function and

$$\frac{d}{dz} R(z) = -R(z)^2.$$

- (4) $R(z)$ is a resolvent of a certain operator iff $\mathcal{N} = \{0\}$. The domain of this operator equals \mathcal{R} .

Proof. Let us prove (4) \Leftarrow . Fix $z_1 \in \Omega$. If $\mathcal{N} = \{0\}$, then every element of \mathcal{R} can be uniquely represented as $R(z_1)x$, $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Define $HR(z_1)x := -x + z_1 R(z_1)x$. By formula (1.6) we check that the definition does not depend on z_1 . \square

2 One-parameter semigroups in Banach spaces

2.1 (M, β) -type semigroups

Let \mathcal{X} be a Banach space.

Definition 2.1 $[0, \infty[\ni t \mapsto W(t) \in B(\mathcal{X})$ is called a strongly continuous one-parameter semigroup iff

- (1) $W(0) = 1$;
- (2) $W(t_1)W(t_2) = W(t_1 + t_2)$, $t_1, t_2 \in [0, \infty[$;
- (3) $\lim_{t \downarrow 0} W(t)x = x$, $x \in \mathcal{X}$;
- (4) for some $t_0 > 0$, $\|W(t)\| < M$, $0 \leq t \leq t_0$.

Remark 2.2 Using the Banach-Steinhaus Theorem one can show that (4) follows from the remaining points.

Theorem 2.3 If $W(t)$ is a strongly continuous semigroup, then

$$[0, \infty[\times \mathcal{X} \ni (t, x) \mapsto W(t)x \in \mathcal{X}$$

is a continuous function. Besides, there exist constants M, β such that

$$\|W(t)\| \leq Me^{\beta t}. \quad (2.7)$$

Proof. By (4), for $t \leq nt_0$ we have $\|W(t)\| \leq M^n$. Hence, $\|W(t)\| \leq M \exp(\frac{t}{t_0} \log M)$. Therefore, (2.7) is satisfied.

Let $t_n \rightarrow t$ and $x_n \rightarrow x$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|W(t_n)x_n - W(t)x\| &\leq \|W(t_n)x_n - W(t_n)x\| + \|W(t_n)x - W(t)x\| \\ &\leq Me^{\beta t_n} \|x_n - x\| + Me^{\beta \min(t_n, t)} \|W(|t - t_n|)x - x\|. \end{aligned}$$

□

We say that the semigroup $W(t)$ is (M, β) -type, if the condition (2.7) is satisfied.

Clearly, if $W(t)$ is (M, β) -type, then $W(t)e^{-\beta t}$ is $(M, 0)$ -type. Since $W(0) = 1$, no semigroups (M, β) exist for $M < 1$.

2.2 Generator of a semigroup

If $W(t)$ is a strongly continuous one-parameter semigroup, we define

$$\text{Dom}A := \{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{there exists } \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^{-1}(W(t)x - x)\}.$$

The operator A with the domain $\text{Dom}A$ is defined by the formula

$$Ax := \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^{-1}(W(t)x - x).$$

A will be called the generator of $W(t)$.

Theorem 2.4 (1) A is a closed densely defined operator;

(2) $W(t)\text{Dom}A \subset \text{Dom}A$ and $W(t)A = AW(t)$;

(3) If $W_1(t)$ and $W_2(t)$ are two different semigroups, then their generators are different.

By (3), if A is an operator, which is a generator of a semigroup $W(t)$, then such $W(t)$ is unique. We will write $W(t) =: e^{tA}$.

Proof of Theorem 2.4 (2). Let $x \in \text{Dom}A$. Then

$$\lim_{s \downarrow 0} s^{-1}(W(s) - 1)W(t)x = W(t) \lim_{s \downarrow 0} s^{-1}(W(s) - 1)x = W(t)Ax. \quad (2.8)$$

Hence the limit of the left hand side of (2.8) exists. Hence $W(t)x \in \text{Dom}A$ and $AW(t)x = W(t)Ax$. \square

Lemma 2.5 For $x \in \mathcal{X}$ put

$$B_t x := t^{-1} \int_0^t W(s)x ds.$$

Then

(1) $s\text{-}\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} B_t = 1$.

(2) $B_t W(s) = W(s)B_t$.

(3) If $x \in \mathcal{X}$, then $B_t x \in \text{Dom}A$,

$$AB_t x = t^{-1}(W(t)x - x), \quad (2.9)$$

(4) For $x \in \text{Dom}A$, $AB_t x = B_t Ax$.

Proof. (1) follows by

$$B_t x - x = t^{-1} \int_0^t (W(s)x - x) ds \xrightarrow[t \downarrow 0]{} 0.$$

(2) is obvious. (4) is proven as Theorem 2.4 (2). To prove (3) we note that

$$u^{-1}(W(u) - 1)B_t x = t^{-1}(W(t) - 1)B_u x \xrightarrow[u \downarrow 0]{} t^{-1}(W(t)x - x).$$

\square

Proof of Theorem 2.4 (1), (3) The density of $\text{Dom}A$ follows by Lemma 2.5 (1) and (3).

Let us show that A is closed. Let $x_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} x$ and $Ax_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} y$. Using the boundedness of $B_t A = AB_t$ we get

$$B_t y = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_t Ax_n = B_t Ax.$$

Hence

$$y = \lim_{t \downarrow 0} B_t y = \lim_{t \downarrow 0} B_t Ax = Ax.$$

\square

Proposition 2.6 Let $W(t)$ be a semigroup and A its generator. Then, for any $x \in \text{Dom}A$ there exists a unique solution of

$$[0, t_0] \ni t \mapsto x(t) \in \text{Dom}A, \quad \frac{d}{dt}x(t) = Ax(t), \quad (2.10)$$

(for $t = 0$ the derivative is right-sided). The solution is given by $x(t) = W(t)x$.

Proof. Let us show that $x(t) := W(t)x$ solves (2.10). We already know that the right-sided derivative equals $Ax(t)$. It suffices to prove the same about the left-sided derivative. For $0 \leq u \leq t$ we have

$$(-u)^{-1}(W(t-u)x - W(t)x) = W(t-u)u^{-1}(W(u) - 1)x \xrightarrow[u \rightarrow 0]{} W(t)Ax = AW(t)x.$$

Let us show now the uniqueness. Let $x(t)$ solve (2.10). Let $y(s) := W(t-s)x(s)$. Then

$$\frac{d}{ds}y(s) = W(t-s)Ax(s) - AW(t-s)x(s) = 0$$

Hence $y(s)$ does not depend on s . At $s = t$ it equals $x(t)$, and at $s = 0$ it equals $W(t)x$. \square

Proof of Theorem 2.4 (3) By Theorem 2.6 (2), $W(t)$ is uniquely determined by A on $\text{Dom}A$. But $W(t)$ is bounded and $\text{Dom}A$ is dense, hence $W(t)$ is uniquely determined. \square

2.3 Norm continuous semigroups

Theorem 2.7 (1) *If $A \in B(\mathcal{X})$, then $\mathbb{C} \ni z \mapsto e^{zA}$ is a norm continuous group and A is its generator.*
(2) *If a one-parameter semigroup $W(t)$ is norm continuous, then its generator is bounded.*

Proof. (1) follows by the functional calculus.

Let us show (2). $W(t)$ is norm continuous, hence $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} B_t = 1$. Therefore, for $0 < t < t_0$

$$\|B_t - 1\| < 1.$$

Hence B_t is then invertible.

We know that for $x \in \text{Dom}A$

$$t^{-1}(W(t) - 1)x = B_t Ax.$$

For $0 \leq t < t_0$ we can write this as

$$Ax = t^{-1}B_t^{-1}(W(t) - 1)x.$$

Hence $\|Ax\| \leq c\|x\|$. \square

2.4 Essential domains of generators

Theorem 2.8 *Let $W(t)$ be a strongly continuous one-parameter semigroup and let A be its generator. Let $\mathcal{D} \subset \text{Dom}A$ be dense in \mathcal{X} and $W(t)\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{D}$, $t > 0$. Then \mathcal{D} is dense in $\text{Dom}A$ in the graph topology—in other words, \mathcal{D} is an essential domain of A .*

Lemma 2.9 (1) *For $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\|B_t x\|_{\text{Dom}A} \leq (Ct^{-1} + 1)\|x\|$;*

(2) *For $x \in \text{Dom}A$, $\lim_{t \downarrow 0} \|B_t x - x\|_{\text{Dom}A} = 0$;*

(3) *$W(t)$ is a strongly continuous semi-group on $\text{Dom}A$ equipped with the graph norm.*

(4) *If $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}$ is a closed subspace in $\text{Dom}A$ invariant wrt $W(t)$, then it is invariant also wrt B_t .*

Proof. (1) follows by Lemma 2.5 (3).

(2) follows by Lemma 2.5 (1) and because $B(t)$ commutes with A .

(3) follows from the fact that $W(t)$ is a strongly continuous semigroup on \mathcal{X} , preserves $\text{Dom}A$ and commutes with A .

To show (4), note that $B_t x$ is defined using an integral involving $W(s)x$. $W(s)x$ depends continuously on s in the topology of $\text{Dom}A$, as follows by (3). Hence this integral (as Riemann's integral) is well defined. Besides, $B_t x$ belongs to the closure of the space spanned by $W(s)x$, $0 \leq s \leq t$. \square

Proof of Theorem 2.8. Let $x \in \text{Dom}A$, $x_n \in \mathcal{D}$ and $x_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} x$ in \mathcal{X} . Let $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}$ be the closure of \mathcal{D} in $\text{Dom}A$. Then $B_t x_n \in \tilde{\mathcal{D}}$, by Lemma 2.9 (4). By Lemma 2.9 (1) we have

$$\|B_t x_n - B_t x\|_{\text{Dom}A} \leq C_t \|x_n - x\|.$$

Hence $B_t x \in \tilde{\mathcal{D}}$. By Lemma 2.9 (2)

$$\|B_t x - x\|_{\text{Dom} A} \xrightarrow[t \downarrow 0]{} 0.$$

Hence, $x \in \tilde{\mathcal{D}}$. \square

2.5 Operators of (M, β) -type

Theorem 2.10 *Let A be a densely defined operator. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

(1) $[\beta, \infty[\subset \text{rs}(A)$ and

$$\|(x - A)^{-m}\| \leq M|x - \beta|^{-m}, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots, \quad x \in [\beta, \infty[$$

(2) $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Re}z > \beta\} \subset \text{rs}(A)$ and

$$\|(z - A)^{-m}\| \leq M|\text{Re}z - \beta|^{-m}, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots, \quad z \in \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Re}z > \beta\}.$$

Proof. It suffices to prove (1) \Rightarrow (2). Let (1) be satisfied. It suffices to assume that $\beta = 0$. Let $z = x + iy$. Then for $t > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} (z - A)^{-m} &= (x + t - A)^m (1 + (iy - t)(x + t - A)^{-1})^{-m} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (x + t - A)^{-m-j} (iy - t)^j \binom{-m}{j}. \end{aligned}$$

Using the fact that $\binom{-m}{j}$ has an alternating sign we get

$$\begin{aligned} \|(z - A)^{-m}\| &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |x + t|^{-m-j} (-1)^j |iy - t|^j \binom{-m}{j} \\ &= M|x + t|^m \left(1 - \frac{|iy - t|}{x + t}\right)^{-m} \\ &= M(x + t - |iy - t|)^{-m} \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow \infty]{} Mx^{-m}. \end{aligned}$$

\square

Definition 2.11 *We say that an operator A is (M, β) -type, iff the conditions of Theorem 2.10 are satisfied.*

Obviously, if A is of (M, β) -type, then $A - \beta$ is of $(M, 0)$ -type.

2.6 The Hille-Philips-Yosida theorem

Theorem 2.12 *If $W(t)$ is a semigroup of (M, β) -type, then its generator A is also of (M, β) -type. Besides,*

$$(z - A)^{-1} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-tz} W(t) dt, \quad \text{Re}z > \beta.$$

Proof. Set

$$R(z)x := \int_0^\infty e^{-zt}W(t)xdt.$$

Let $y = R(z)x$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & u^{-1}(W(u) - 1)y \\ &= -u^{-1}e^{zu} \int_0^u e^{-zt}W(t)xdt + u^{-1}(e^{zu} - 1) \int_0^\infty e^{-zt}W(t)xdt \xrightarrow[u \downarrow 0]{} -x + zy. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $y \in \text{Dom}A$ and $(z - A)R(z)x = x$.

Suppose now that $x \in \text{Ker}(z - A)$. Then $x_t := e^{zt}x \in \text{Dom}A$ satisfies $\frac{d}{dt}x_t = Ax_t$. Hence $x_t = W(t)x$. But $\|x_t\| = e^{\text{Re}zt}\|x\|$, which is impossible.

By the formula

$$(z - A)^{-m} = \int_0^\infty \dots \int_0^\infty e^{-z(t_1 + \dots + t_m)}W(t_1 + \dots + t_m)dt_1 \dots dt_m$$

we get the estimate

$$\|(z - A)^{-m}\| \leq \int_0^\infty \dots \int_0^\infty M e^{-(z-\beta)(t_1 + \dots + t_m)} dt_1 \dots dt_m = M|z - \beta|^{-m}.$$

□

Theorem 2.13 *If A is an operator of (M, β) -type, then it is the generator of a semigroup $W(t)$. This semigroup is of (M, β) -type.*

To simplify, let us assume that $\beta = 0$ (which does not restrict the generality). Then we have the formula

$$\begin{aligned} W(t) &= s\text{-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}A\right)^{-n}, \\ \left\| W(t)x - \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}A\right)^{-n} x \right\| &\leq M \frac{t^2}{2} \|A^2x\|, \quad x \in \text{Dom}A^2. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Set

$$V_n(t) := \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}A\right)^{-n}.$$

Let us first show that

$$s\text{-}\lim_{t \downarrow 0} V_n(t) = 1. \quad (2.11)$$

To prove (2.11) it suffices to prove that

$$s\text{-}\lim_{s \downarrow 0} (1 - sA)^{-1} = 1. \quad (2.12)$$

We have $(1 - sA)^{-1} - 1 = (s^{-1} - A)^{-1}A$. Hence for $x \in \text{Dom}A$

$$\|(1 - sA)^{-1}x - x\| \leq Ms^{-1}\|Ax\|,$$

which proves (2.12).

Let us list some other properties of $V_n(t)$: for $\operatorname{Re} t > 0$, $V_n(t)$ is holomorphic, $\|V_n(t)\| \leq M$ and

$$\frac{d}{dt} V_n(t) = A \left(1 - \frac{t}{n} A \right)^{-n-1}.$$

To show that $V_n(t)x$ is a Cauchy sequence for $x \in \operatorname{Dom}(A^2)$, we compute

$$\begin{aligned} V_n(t)x - V_m(t)x &= \lim_{s \downarrow 0} V_n(t-s)V_m(s)x - \lim_{s \uparrow t} V_n(t-s)V_m(s)x \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{t-\epsilon} \frac{d}{ds} V_n(t-s)V_m(s)x \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{t-\epsilon} \left(-V_n'(t-s)V_m(s) + V_n(t-s)V_m'(s) \right) x \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{t-\epsilon} \left(\frac{s}{n} - \frac{t-s}{m} \right) \left(1 - \frac{t-s}{n} A \right)^{-n-1} \left(1 - \frac{s}{m} A \right)^{-m-1} A^2 x. \end{aligned}$$

Hence for $x \in \operatorname{Dom}(A^2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \|V_n(t)x - V_m(t)x\| &\leq \|A^2 x\| \int_0^t \left| \frac{s}{m} - \frac{t-s}{n} \right| M^2 ds \\ &= M^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} \right) \frac{t^2}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

By the Proposition 1.25, $\operatorname{Dom}(A^2)$ is dense in \mathcal{X} . Therefore, there exists a limit uniform on $[0, t_0]$

$$s\text{-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} V_n(t) =: W(t),$$

which depends strongly continuously on t .

Finally, let us show that $W(t)$ is a semigroup with the generator A . To this end it suffices to show that for $x \in \operatorname{Dom} A$

$$\frac{d}{dt} W(t)x = AW(t)x. \quad (2.13)$$

But $x \in \operatorname{Dom} A$

$$V_n(t+u)x = V_n(t)x + \int_t^{t+u} A \left(1 - \frac{s}{n} A \right)^{-1} V_n(s)x ds$$

Hence passing to the limit we get

$$W(t+u)x = W(t)x + \int_t^{t+u} AW(s)x ds.$$

This implies (2.13). \square

2.7 Semigroups of contractions and dissipative operators

Theorem 2.14 *Let A be a closed operator on \mathcal{X} . Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) A is a generator of a semigroup of contractions, eg. $\|e^{tA}\| \leq 1$
- (2) The operator A is of $(1, 0)$ -type.
- (3) $]0, \infty[\subset \operatorname{rs}(A)$ and

$$\|(\mu - A)^{-1}\| \leq \mu^{-1}, \quad \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \mu > 0,$$

- (4) $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z > 0\} \subset \operatorname{rs}(A)$ and

$$\|(z - A)^{-1}\| \leq |\operatorname{Re} z|^{-1}, \quad z \in \mathbb{C}, \operatorname{Re} z > 0.$$

(5) $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z > 0\} \subset \operatorname{rs}A$; besides, if $x \in \operatorname{Dom}A$, $v \in \mathcal{X}^\#$, $\|v\| = 1$ and $\langle v|x \rangle = \|x\|$, then

$$\operatorname{Re}\langle v|Ax \rangle \leq 0.$$

(6) There exists $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$ such that $\operatorname{Ran}(z - A) = X$; besides if $x \in \operatorname{Dom}A$, then there $\vee v \in \mathcal{X}^\#$ such that $\|v\| = 1$, $\langle v|x \rangle = \|x\|$, and

$$\operatorname{Re}\langle v|Ax \rangle \leq 0.$$

Proof. The equivalence of (1) and (2) is a special case of Theorems 2.12 and 2.13. The implications (2) \Rightarrow (3) and (2) \Rightarrow (4) are obvious, the converse implications are easy.

Let us show (1),(3) \Rightarrow (5). We have

$$\operatorname{Re}\langle v|x \rangle = \langle v|x \rangle = \|x\|,$$

$$\operatorname{Re}\langle v|e^{tA}x \rangle \leq |\langle v|e^{tA}x \rangle| \leq \|x\|.$$

Hence

$$\operatorname{Re}\langle v|Ax \rangle = \lim_{t \downarrow 0} \operatorname{Re} t^{-1}(\langle v|e^{tA}x \rangle - \langle v|x \rangle) \leq 0.$$

We know that if $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$, then $z \in \operatorname{rs}(A)$. Hence $\operatorname{Ran}(z - A) = \mathcal{X}$.

The implication (5) \Rightarrow (6) is obvious.

Let us prove (6) \Rightarrow (3).

$$\begin{aligned} \|(z - A)x\| &\geq |\langle v|(z - A)x \rangle| \\ &\geq \operatorname{Re}\langle v|(z - A)x \rangle \geq \operatorname{Re} z \langle v|x \rangle = \|x\| \operatorname{Re} z. \end{aligned}$$

Using $\operatorname{Ran}(z - A)^{-1} = \mathcal{X}$, we conclude that $(z - A)^{-1}$ exists and $\|(z - A)^{-1}\| \leq |\operatorname{Re} z|^{-1}$. \square

3 Unbounded operators in Hilbert spaces

3.1 Graph scalar product

Let \mathcal{V} , \mathcal{W} be Hilbert spaces. Let $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ be an operator with domain $\operatorname{Dom}A$. It is natural to treat $\operatorname{Dom}A$ as a space with a scalar product

$$(v_1|v_2)_A := (v_1|v_2) + (Av_1|Av_2).$$

Clearly, $\operatorname{Dom}A$ is a Hilbert space with this product iff A is closed.

3.2 The adjoint of an operator

Definition 3.1 Let $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ have a dense domain. Then $w \in \operatorname{Dom}A^*$, iff the functional

$$\operatorname{Dom}A \ni v \mapsto (w|Av)$$

is bounded (in the topology of \mathcal{V}). Hence there exists a unique $y \in \mathcal{V}$ such that

$$(w|Av) = (y|v), \quad v \in \mathcal{V}.$$

We set then

$$A^*w = y.$$

If $C_{\mathcal{V}}, C_{\mathcal{W}}$ are the Riesz antiisomorphisms, then we have the relationship between the (Banach space)-conjugate $A^{\#}$ and the (Hilbert space)-adjoint A^* :

$$A^* = C_{\mathcal{V}}^{-1} A^{\#} C_{\mathcal{W}}.$$

Theorem 3.2 *Let $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ have a dense domain. Then*

- (1) A^* is closed.
- (2) $\text{Dom} A^*$ is dense in \mathcal{W} iff A is closable.
- (3) $(\text{Ran } A)^{\perp} = \text{Ker} A^*$.
- (4) $\text{Dom} A \cap (\text{Ran } A^*)^{\perp} \supset \text{Ker} A$.

Proof. Let $j : \mathcal{V} \oplus \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathcal{W} \oplus \mathcal{V}$, $j(v, w) := (-w, v)$. Note that j is unitary. We have

$$\text{Gr } A^* = j(\text{Gr } A)^{\perp}.$$

Hence $\text{Gr } A^*$ is closed. This proves (1).

Let us prove (2).

$$\begin{aligned} w \in (\text{Dom} A^*)^{\perp} &\Leftrightarrow (0, w) \in (\text{Gr } A^*)^{\perp} \\ &\Leftrightarrow (w, \cdot) \in (\text{Gr } A)^{\perp\perp} = (\text{Gr } A)^{\text{cl}}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (3):

$$\begin{aligned} w \in \text{Ker} A^* &\Leftrightarrow (A^* w | v) = 0, \quad v \in \mathcal{V} \\ &\Leftrightarrow (A^* w | v) = 0, \quad v \in \text{Dom} A \\ &\Leftrightarrow (w | Av) = 0, \quad v \in \text{Dom} A \\ &\Leftrightarrow w \in (\text{Ran } A)^{\perp}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (4)

$$\begin{aligned} v \in \text{Ker} A &\Leftrightarrow (w | Av) = 0, \quad w \in \mathcal{W} \\ &\Rightarrow (w | Av) = 0, \quad w \in \text{Dom} A^* \\ &\Leftrightarrow (A^* w | v) = 0, \quad w \in \text{Dom} A^* \\ &\Leftrightarrow v \in (\text{Ran } A^*)^{\perp}. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 3.3 *Let $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ be closable with a dense domain. Then*

- (1) A^* is closed with a dense domain.
- (2) $A^* = (A^{\text{cl}})^*$.
- (3) $(A^*)^* = A^{\text{cl}}$
- (4) $(\text{Ran } A)^{\perp} = \text{Ker} A^*$. Hence A^* is injective iff $\text{Ran } A$ is dense.
- (5) $(\text{Ran } A^*)^{\perp} = \text{Ker} A$. Hence A is injective iff $\text{Ran } A^*$ is dense.

Proof. (1) was proven in Theorem 3.2.

To see (2) note that

$$\text{Gr } A^* = j(\text{Gr } A)^{\perp} = j((\text{Gr } A)^{\text{cl}})^{\perp} = \text{Gr } A^{\text{cl}*}.$$

To see (3) we use

$$\text{Gr } (A^{**}) = j^{-1} (j(\text{Gr } A)^{\perp})^{\perp} = (\text{Gr } A)^{\perp\perp} = (\text{Gr } A)^{\text{cl}}.$$

(4) is proven in Theorem 3.2.

To prove (5) note that in the second line of the proof of Theorem 3.2 (4) we can use the fact that $\text{Dom}A^*$ is dense in \mathcal{W} to replace \Rightarrow with \Leftrightarrow . \square

3.3 Inverse of the adjoint operator

Theorem 3.4 *Let A be densely defined, closed, injective and with a dense range. Then*

- (1) A^{-1} is densely defined, closed, injective and with a dense range.
- (2) A^* is densely defined, closed, injective and with a dense range.
- (3) $(A^*)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^*$.

Proof. (1) and (2) sum up previously proven facts.

To prove (3), recall the maps $\tau, j : \mathcal{V} \oplus \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathcal{W} \oplus \mathcal{V}$. We have

$$\text{Gr } A^* = j(\text{Gr } A)^\perp, \quad \text{Gr } A^{-1} = \tau(\text{Gr } A).$$

Hence

$$\text{Gr } A^{-1*} = j(\tau(\text{Gr } A))^\perp = \tau^{-1}(j(\text{Gr } A)^\perp) = \text{Gr } A^{*-1}.$$

\square

Theorem 3.5 *Let $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ be densely defined and closed. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) A is invertible.
- (2) A^* is invertible.
- (3) For some $c > 0$, $\|Av\| \geq c\|v\|$, $v \in \mathcal{V}$ and $\|A^*w\| \geq c\|w\|$, $w \in \mathcal{W}$.

Moreover, $\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}(A) = \text{sp}^{\text{ext}}(A^*)$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). Let A be invertible. Then $A^{-1} \in B(\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{V})$. Hence, $A^{-1*} \in B(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W})$.

Clearly, the assumptions of Theorem 3.4 are satisfied, and hence $A^{*-1} = A^{-1*}$. Therefore, $A^{*-1} \in B(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W})$.

(1) \Leftarrow (2). A^* is also densely defined and closed. Hence the same arguments as above apply.

It is obvious that (1) and (2) imply (3). Let us prove that (3) \Rightarrow (1). $\|A^*v\| \geq c\|v\|$ implies that $\text{Ker } A^* = \{0\}$. Hence $(\text{Ran } A)^\perp$ is dense. This together with $\|Av\| \geq c\|v\|$ implies that $\text{Ran } A = \mathcal{W}$, and consequently, A is invertible. \square

3.4 Maximal operators

The numerical range of the operator T is defined as

$$\text{Num}T = \{(v|Tv) : v \in \text{Dom}T, \|v\| = 1\}.$$

Theorem 3.6 (1) $\|(z - T)v\| \geq \text{dist}(z, \text{Num}T)\|v\|$, $v \in \text{Dom}T$.

(2) If T is a closed operator and $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus (\text{Num}T)^{\text{cl}}$, then $z - T$ has a closed range.

(3) If $z \in \text{rs}T \setminus \text{Num}T$, then $\|(z - T)^{-1}\| \leq |\text{dist}(z, \text{Num}T)|^{-1}$.

(4) Let Δ be a connected component of $\mathbb{C} \setminus (\text{Num}T)^{\text{cl}}$. Then either $\Delta \subset \text{sp}T$ or $\Delta \subset \text{rs}T$.

Proof. To prove (1), take $(z_0 \notin \text{Num}T)^{\text{cl}}$. Recall that $\text{Num}T$ is convex. Hence, replacing T with $\alpha T + \beta$ we can assume that $z_0 = i\nu$ and $0 \in \text{Num}T \subset \{\text{Im}z \leq 0\}$. Thus $\nu = \text{dist}(i\nu, \text{Num}T)$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \|(i\nu - T)v\|^2 &= (Tv|Tv) - i\nu(v|Tv) + i\nu(Tv|v) + |\nu|^2\|v\|^2 \\ &= (Tv|Tv) - 2\nu\text{Im}(v|Tv) + |\nu|^2\|v\|^2 \\ &\geq |\nu|^2\|v\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

(1) implies (2) and (3).

Let $z_0 \in \text{rs}T \setminus \text{Num}T$. By (3), if $r = \text{dist}(z_0, \text{Num}T)$, then $\{|z - z_0| < r\} \subset \text{rs}T$. This proves (4). \square

Definition 3.7 An operator T is called maximal, if $\text{sp}T \subset (\text{Num}T)^{\text{cl}}$.

Clearly, if T is a maximal operator, and $z \notin (\text{Num}T)^{\text{cl}}$, then

$$\|(z - T)^{-1}\| \leq (\text{dist}(z, \text{Num}T))^{-1}.$$

If T is bounded, then T is maximal.

Theorem 3.8 Suppose that T is an operator and for any connected component Δ_i of $\mathbb{C} \setminus (\text{Num}T)^{\text{cl}}$ we choose $\lambda_i \in \Delta_i$. Then the following conditions are necessary and sufficient for T to be maximal

- (1) For all i , $\lambda_i \notin \text{sp}T$;
- (2) T is closable and for all i , $\text{Ran}(\lambda_i - T) = \mathcal{V}$.
- (3) T is closed and for all i , $\text{Ran}(\lambda_i - T)$ is dense in \mathcal{V} .
- (4) T is closed and for all i , $\text{Ker}(\bar{\lambda}_i - T^*) = \{0\}$.

3.5 Dissipative operators

We say that an operator A is dissipative iff

$$\text{Im}(v|Av) \leq 0, \quad v \in \text{Dom}A.$$

Equivalently, A is dissipative iff $\text{Num}A \subset \{\text{Im}z \leq 0\}$.

A is maximally dissipative iff A is dissipative and $\text{sp}A \subset \{\text{Im}z \leq 0\}$.

Theorem 3.9 Let A be a densely defined operator. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (1) $-iA$ is the generator of a strongly continuous semigroup of contractions.
- (2) A is maximally dissipative.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) We have

$$\text{Re}(v|e^{-itA}v) \leq |(v|e^{-itA}v)| \leq \|v\|^2.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Im}(v|Av) &= -\text{Rei}(v|Av) \\ &= \text{Re} \lim_{t \nearrow 0} t^{-1} ((v|e^{-itA}v) - \|v\|^2) \leq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence A is dissipative.

We know that the generators of contractions satisfy $\{\text{Re}z > 0\} \subset \text{rs}(-iA)$.

(2) \Rightarrow (1) Let $\operatorname{Re}z > 0$. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\|v\| \|(z + iA)v\| &\geq |(v|(z + iA)v)| \\ &\geq \operatorname{Re}(v|(z + iA)v) \geq \operatorname{Re}z \|v\|^2.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, noting that $z \in \operatorname{rs}A$, we obtain $\|(z + iA)^{-1}\| \leq \operatorname{Re}z^{-1}$. Therefore, A is an operator of the type $(1, 0)$. \square

Theorem 3.10 *Let A be dissipative. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) A is maximally dissipative.
- (2) A is closable and there exists z_0 with $\operatorname{Im}z_0 > 0$ and $\operatorname{Ran}(z_0 - A) = \mathcal{V}$.
- (3) A is closed and there exists z_0 with $\operatorname{Im}z_0 > 0$ and $\operatorname{Ran}(z_0 - A)$ dense in \mathcal{V} .
- (4) A is closed and there exists z_0 with $\operatorname{Im}z_0 > 0$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(\bar{z}_0 - A^*) = \{0\}$.

3.6 Hermitian operators I

An operator $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is hermitian iff

$$(Aw|v) = (w|Av), \quad w, v \in \operatorname{Dom}A.$$

Clearly, A is hermitian iff $\operatorname{Num}A \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Remark 3.11 *In a part of literature the term “symmetric” is used instead of “hermitian”.*

Theorem 3.12 *Let A be densely defined and hermitian. Then A is closable. Besides, one of the following possibilities is true:*

- (1) $\operatorname{sp}A \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- (2) $\operatorname{sp}A = \{\operatorname{Im}z \geq 0\}$.
- (3) $\operatorname{sp}A = \{\operatorname{Im}z \leq 0\}$.
- (4) $\operatorname{sp}A = \mathbb{C}$.

Proof. $A \subset A^*$ and A^* is closed. Hence A is closable. \square

Theorem 3.13 *Let A be a densely defined operator. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) $-iA$ is the generator of a strongly continuous semigroup of isometries.
- (2) A is hermitian and $\operatorname{sp}A \subset \{\operatorname{Im}z \leq 0\}$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) For $v \in \operatorname{Dom}A$,

$$0 = \partial_t(e^{-itA}v|e^{-itA}v)\Big|_{t=0} = -i(Av|v) + i(v|Av).$$

(2) \Rightarrow (1) We know that e^{-itA} is the generator of a strongly continuous contractive semigroup. For $v \in \operatorname{Dom}A$,

$$0 = \partial_t(e^{-itA}v|e^{-itA}v)$$

Hence, for $v \in \operatorname{Dom}A$, $\|e^{-itA}v\|^2 = \|v\|^2$. \square

Theorem 3.14 *Let A be hermitian. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) $\operatorname{sp}A \subset \{\operatorname{Im}z \leq 0\}$.
- (2) There exists z_0 with $\operatorname{Im}z_0 > 0$ and $\operatorname{Ran}(z_0 - A) = \mathcal{V}$.
- (3) A is closed and there exists z_0 with $\operatorname{Im}z_0 > 0$ and $\operatorname{Ran}(z_0 - A)$ dense in \mathcal{V} .
- (4) A is closed and there exists z_0 with $\operatorname{Im}z_0 > 0$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(\bar{z}_0 - A^*) = \{0\}$.

3.7 Self-adjoint operators

Let T be a densely defined operator on \mathcal{V} . T is self-adjoint iff $T^* = T$, that means if for $w \in \mathcal{W}$ there exists $y \in \mathcal{V}$ such that

$$(y|v) = (w|Tv), \quad v \in \text{Dom}T,$$

then $w \in \text{Dom}T$ and $Tw = y$.

Theorem 3.15 *Every self-adjoint operator is hermitian and closed. If A is bounded, then it is self-adjoint iff it is hermitian.*

Theorem 3.16 *Fix z_{\pm} with $\pm \text{Im}z_{\pm} > 0$. Let A be hermitian. Then the following conditions are necessary and sufficient for A to be self-adjoint:*

- (1) $\text{sp}A \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- (2) $z_{\pm} \notin \text{sp}A$.
- (3) $\text{Ran}(z_{\pm} - A) = \mathcal{V}$.
- (4) A is closed and $\text{Ran}(z_{\pm} - A)$ is dense in \mathcal{V} .
- (5) A is closed and $\text{Ker}(\bar{z}_{\pm} - A^*) = \{0\}$.

Theorem 3.17 *Let $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. Let A be hermitian. Then the following conditions are sufficient for A to be self-adjoint:*

- (1) $\lambda_0 \notin \text{sp}A$.
- (2) $\text{Ran}(\lambda_0 - A) = \mathcal{V}$.
- (3) A is closed and $\text{Ran}(\lambda_0 - A)$ is dense in \mathcal{V} .
- (4) A is closed and $\text{Ker}(\lambda_0 - A^*) = \{0\}$.

Theorem 3.18 *Let A be self-adjoint. Then $U := (A + i)(A - i)^{-1}$ is a unitary operator with $\text{sp}U = (\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}A + i)(\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}A - i)^{-1}$.*

If $f \in C(\text{sp}^{\text{ext}}A)$, we can define

$$f(A) := f(i(U + i)(U - i)^{-1}).$$

Of course, we can also apply the functional calculus for measurable functions. In particular, the function $\text{sp}A \ni x \mapsto \text{id}(x) := x$ is a measurable function on $\text{sp}A$. We have $\text{id}A = A$.

Theorem 3.19 (Stone Theorem) *Let A be an operator. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) iA is the generator of a strongly continuous group of unitary operators.
- (2) A is self-adjoint.

Proof. To prove (1) \Rightarrow (2), suppose that $\mathbb{R} \mapsto U(t)$ is a strongly continuous unitary group. Let $-iA$ be its generator. Then $[0, \infty[\ni U(t), U(-t)$ are semigroups of contractions with the generators iA and $-iA$. By Theorem 3.19, A is hermitian and $\text{sp}A \subset \mathbb{R}$. Hence A is self-adjoint.

(2) \Rightarrow (1) follows by the spectral theorem. \square

3.8 Essentially self-adjoint operators

Definition 3.20 An operator $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is essentially self-adjoint iff A^{cl} is self-adjoint.

Theorem 3.21 Every essentially self-adjoint operator is hermitian and closable.

Theorem 3.22 Fix z_{\pm} with $\pm \text{Im} z_{\pm} > 0$. Let A be hermitian. Then the following conditions are necessary and sufficient for A to be essentially self-adjoint:

- (1) A^* is self-adjoint.
- (2) $\text{Ran}(z_{\pm} - A)$ is dense in \mathcal{V} .
- (3) $\text{Ker}(\bar{z}_{\pm} - A^*) = \{0\}$.

Theorem 3.23 Let $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. Let A be hermitian. Then the following conditions are sufficient for A to be self-adjoint:

- (1) $\text{Ran}(\lambda_0 - A)$ is dense in \mathcal{V} .
- (2) $\text{Ker}(\lambda_0 - A^*) = \{0\}$.

3.9 Scale of Hilbert spaces

Let B be a positive operator on \mathcal{V} with $B \geq 1$. We define the family of Hilbert spaces \mathcal{V}_{α} , $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ as follows. For $\alpha \geq 0$, we set $\mathcal{V}_{\alpha} := \text{Ran } B^{-\alpha/2}$ with the scalar product

$$(v|w)_{\alpha} := (v|B^{\alpha}w),$$

and $\mathcal{V}_{-\alpha} := \mathcal{V}_{\alpha}^*$, (where \mathcal{V}_{α}^* denotes the space of bounded antilinear functionals on \mathcal{V}_{α}). Note that we have the identification $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{V}^*$, hence both definitions give $\mathcal{V}_0 = \mathcal{V}$.

It is clear, that for $0 \leq \alpha \leq \beta$, $\mathcal{V} \supset \mathcal{V}_{\alpha} \supset \mathcal{V}_{\beta}$. Hence $\mathcal{V}_{-\alpha} = \mathcal{V}_{\alpha}^*$ can be identified with a subspace of $\mathcal{V}_{-\beta} = \mathcal{V}_{\beta}^*$. Thus we obtain $\mathcal{V}_{\alpha} \supset \mathcal{V}_{\beta}$ for any $\alpha \leq \beta$.

Note that for $\alpha > 0$ \mathcal{V} is embedded in $\mathcal{V}_{-\alpha}$ and for $v, w \in \mathcal{V}$

$$(v|w)_{-\alpha} = (B^{-\alpha/2}v|B^{-\alpha/2}w).$$

Moreover, \mathcal{V} is dense in $\mathcal{V}_{-\alpha}$.

It is easy to see that, for $\alpha \geq 0$, $B_0^{-\alpha} := B^{-\alpha}$ is a unitary operator from \mathcal{V}_0 to $\mathcal{V}_{2\alpha}$. Moreover, the operator B^{α} , defined by the functional calculus (or as the inverse of the bounded operator $B^{-\alpha}$, with the domain $\mathcal{V}_{2\alpha}$ extends to a unitary operator from \mathcal{V}_0 to $\mathcal{V}_{-\alpha}$, which we will denote by B_0^{α} . For any α, β , setting $B_{\alpha}^{\alpha-\beta} := B_0^{-\beta}(B_0^{-\alpha})^{-1}$ we obtain a unitary operator from $\mathcal{V}_{2\alpha}$ to $\mathcal{V}_{2\beta}$. These operators satisfy the chain rule:

$$B_{\alpha+2\beta}^{-\gamma} B_{\alpha}^{-\beta} = B_{\alpha}^{-\gamma-\beta}.$$

Sometimes we will use a different notation: $B^{-\alpha}\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{V}_{2\alpha}$. If A is a self-adjoint operator, then we will use the notation $\langle A \rangle := (1 + A^2)^{1/2}$.

Lemma 3.24 Let $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$. Then $\text{Dom} B = \{v \in \mathcal{V}_{\alpha} : B_{\alpha}v \in \mathcal{V}\}$.

3.10 Relative operator boundedness

Theorem 3.25 Let A be a closed operator and B an operator with $\text{Dom} B \supset \text{Dom} A$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1) B has the A -bound equal to a_1 , that is

$$\inf_{\nu>0} \sup_{v \neq 0, v \in \text{Dom}A} \left(\frac{\|Bv\|^2}{\|Av\|^2 + \nu^2\|v\|^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = a_1.$$

(2)

$$\inf_{\nu>0} \|B(A^*A + \nu^2)^{-1/2}\| = a_1.$$

If, moreover, A is self-adjoint, then the above statements are equivalent to

$$(3) \quad \inf_{\nu>0} \|B(i\nu - A)^{-1}\| = a_1$$

Proof. The equivalence of (1) and (2) is evident.

The equivalence of (2) and (3) for a self-adjoint A is the consequence of the unitarity of

$$(A^2 + \nu^2)^{-1/2}(i\nu - A).$$

□

Theorem 3.26 (Kato-Rellich) *Let A be self-adjoint, B hermitian. Let B be A -bounded with the A -bound < 1 . Then*

(1) $A + B$ is self-adjoint on $\text{Dom}A$.

(2) If A is essentially self-adjoint on \mathcal{D} , then $A + B$ is essentially self-adjoint on \mathcal{D} .

Proof. Clearly, $A + B$ is hermitian on $\text{Dom}A$. Moreover, for some ν , $\|B(i\nu - A)^{-1}\| < 1$ and (which is equivalent by the unitarity of $(A - i\nu)(A + i\nu)^{-1}$), $\|B(-i\nu - A)^{-1}\| < 1$. Hence, $i\nu - A - B$ and $-i\nu - A - B$ are invertible. □

Let us note an improved version of the notion of the operator boundedness:

Theorem 3.27 *Let A be a closed operator and B an operator with $\text{Dom}B \supset \text{Dom}A$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(1)

$$a_2 = \inf_{\mu, \nu > 0} \sup_{v \neq 0} \left(\frac{\|Bv\|^2}{\|(A - \mu)v\|^2 + \nu^2\|v\|^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

(2)

$$\inf_{\mu, \nu > 0} \|B((A - \mu)^*(A - \mu) + \nu^2)^{-1/2}\| = a_2.$$

If, moreover, A is self-adjoint, then the above statements are equivalent to

$$(3) \quad \inf_{\mu, \nu > 0} \|B(\mu + i\nu - A)^{-1}\| = a_2$$

Note that the analog of Theorem 3.26 is true with a_1 replaced with a_2 .

3.11 Relative form boundedness

Theorem 3.28 *Let A be a self-adjoint operator. Let B be a bounded operator from $(1 + |A|)^{-1/2}\mathcal{H}$ to $(1 + |A|)^{1/2}\mathcal{H}$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(1)

$$\inf_{\mu, \nu} \|(A - \mu)^2 + \nu^2\|^{-\frac{1}{4}} B \|(A - \mu)^2 + \nu^2\|^{-\frac{1}{4}} = a_3.$$

(2)

$$\inf_{\mu, \nu > 0} \|(\mu + i\nu - A)^{-\frac{1}{2}} v, (\mu + i\nu - A)^{-\frac{1}{2}}\| = a_3.$$

If the conditions of the above theorem are satisfied, then we say that the A -form-bound of B equals a_3 .

Theorem 3.29 *Let A be a self-adjoint operator. Let B have the A -form-bound less than 1. Then there exists a open subsets in the upper and lower complex half-plane such that the series*

$$R(z) := \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (z - A)^{-1} (B(z - A)^{-1})^j$$

is convergent. Moreover, $R(z)$ is a resolvent of a self-adjoint operator, which will be called the form sum of A and B . If A is bounded from below, then so is $A + B$ and $\text{Dom}|A + B|^{\frac{1}{2}} = \text{Dom}|A|^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

3.12 Non-maximal operators

Theorem 3.30 $\dim \text{Ran}(z - A)^{\perp} = \dim \text{Ker}(\bar{z} - A^*)$ *is a constant function on connected components of $\mathbb{C} \setminus (\text{Num}A)^{\text{cl}}$.*

Proof. Let us show that if $|\alpha| < \lambda$, then

$$\text{Ran}(i\lambda - A) \cap \text{Ran}(i\lambda + \alpha - A)^{\perp} = \{0\}. \quad (3.14)$$

Let $w \in \text{Ran}(i\lambda - A)$. Then there exists $v \in \text{Dom}A$ such that

$$w = (i\lambda - A)v$$

and $\|v\| \leq \lambda^{-1}\|w\|$. If moreover, $w \in \text{Ran}(i\lambda + \alpha - A)^{\perp} = \text{Ker}(-i\lambda - \bar{\alpha} - A^*)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= ((-i\lambda + \bar{\alpha} - A^*)w|v) \\ &= (w|(i\lambda - A)v) + \alpha(w|v) \\ &= \|w\|^2 + \alpha(w|v). \end{aligned}$$

But

$$\| \|w\|^2 + \alpha(w|v) \| \geq (1 - |\alpha|/|\lambda|)\|w\|^2 > 0,$$

which is a contradiction and completes the proof of (3.14).

Now (3.14) implies that $\dim \text{Ran}(i\lambda - A) \leq \dim \text{Ran}(i\lambda + \alpha - A)$. \square

3.13 Hermitian operators II

Let A be closed hermitian.

Theorem 3.31 *The so-called defect indices*

$$n_{\pm} := \dim \text{Ker}(z - A^*), \quad z \in \mathbb{C}_{\pm}$$

do not depend on λ . One of the following possibilities is true:

- 1) $\text{sp}A \subset \mathbb{R}$, $n_{\pm} = 0$, A is self-adjoint;
- 2) $\text{sp}A = \{\text{Im}z \geq 0\}$, $n_+ \neq 0, n_- = 0$, A is not self-adjoint;
- 3) $\text{sp}A = \{\text{Im}z \leq 0\}$, $n_+ = 0, n_- \neq 0$, A is not self-adjoint;
- 4) $\text{sp}A = \mathbb{C}$ $n_+ \neq 0, n_- \neq 0$, A is not self-adjoint.

Proof. This is a special case of Theorem 3.30. \square

Definition 3.32 *Let A be hermitian and closed. Define on $\text{Dom}A^*$ the following scalar product:*

$$(v|w)_{A^*} := (v|w) + (A^*v|A^*w)$$

and the following antihermitian form:

$$[v|w]_{A^*} := (A^*v|w) - (v|A^*w).$$

The A^* -completeness and the A^* -orthogonality is defined using the scalar product $(\cdot|\cdot)_{A^*}$. A space is A^* -hermitian iff $[\cdot|\cdot]_{A^*}$ vanishes on this subspace.

Theorem 3.33 (1) *Every closed extension of A is a restriction of A^* to an A^* -closed subspace in $\text{Dom}A^*$ containing $\text{Dom}A$.*

(2)

$$\text{Dom}A^* = \text{Dom}A \oplus \text{Ker}(A^* + i) \oplus \text{Ker}(A^* - i)$$

and the components in the above direct sum are A^* -closed, A^* -orthogonal and

$$(w \oplus w_+ \oplus w_- | v \oplus v_+ \oplus v_-)_{A^*} = (w|v) + (Aw|Av) + 2(w_+|v_+) + 2(w_-|v_-),$$

$$[w \oplus w_+ \oplus w_- | v \oplus v_+ \oplus v_-]_{A^*} = 2i(w_+|v_+) - 2i(w_-|v_-).$$

Proof. (1) is obvious. In (2) the A^* -orthogonality and the A^* -closedness are easy.

Let $w \in \text{Dom}A^*$ and

$$w \perp \text{Dom}A \oplus \text{Ker}(A^* + i) \oplus \text{Ker}(A^* - i)$$

in the sense of the product $(\cdot|\cdot)_{A^*}$. In particular, for $v \in \text{Dom}A$ we have

$$0 = (A^*w|A^*v) + (w|v) = (A^*w|Av) + (w|v).$$

Hence $A^*w \in \text{Dom}A^*$ and

$$A^*A^*w = -w.$$

Therefore,

$$(A^* + i)(A^* - i)w = 0.$$

Thus

$$(A^* - i)w \in \text{Ker}(A^* + i). \quad (3.15)$$

If $y \in \text{Ker}(A^* + i)$, then

$$i(y|(A^* - i)w) = (A^*\eta|A^*w) + (\eta|w) = (\eta|w)_{A^*} = 0$$

In particular, setting $y = (A^* - i)w$ and using (3.15), we get

$$w \in \text{Ker}(A^* - i).$$

But $w \perp \text{Ker}(A^* - i)$, hence $w = 0$. \square

Every A^* -closed subspace containing $\text{Dom}A$ is of the form $\text{Dom}A \oplus \mathcal{Z}$, where

$$\mathcal{Z} \subset \text{Ker}(A^* + i) \oplus \text{Ker}(A^* - i).$$

If

$$A \subset B \subset A^*,$$

then the subspace \mathcal{Z} corresponding to B will be denoted by \mathcal{Z}_B . We will write

$$\mathcal{Z}^{\text{per}} := \{v \in \text{Ker}(A^* - i) \oplus \text{Ker}(A^* - i) : [z, v]_{A^*} = 0, z \in \mathcal{Z}\}.$$

The subspace \mathcal{Z} is A^* -hermitian iff

$$\mathcal{Z}^{\text{per}} \supset \mathcal{Z}.$$

Theorem 3.34 *We have*

$$\mathcal{Z}_{B^*} = (\mathcal{Z}_B)^{\text{per}}.$$

In particular, B is hermitian iff \mathcal{Z} is A^ -hermitian. Every A^* -hermitian subspace corresponds to a partial isometry $U : \text{Ker}(A^* + i) \rightarrow \text{Ker}(A^* - i)$. Then*

$$\mathcal{Z} := \{z \oplus Uz : z \in \text{Ran } U^*U\}.$$

B is self-adjoint iff U is unitary.

4 Sesquilinear forms

4.1 Sesquilinear forms

Let \mathcal{W}, \mathcal{V} be complex spaces. We say that \mathfrak{t} is a sesquilinear quasiform on $\mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{V}$ iff there exist subspaces $\text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t} \subset \mathcal{W}$ and $\text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t} \subset \mathcal{V}$ such that

$$\text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t} \times \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t} \ni (w, v) \mapsto \mathfrak{t}(w, v) \in \mathbb{C}$$

is a sesquilinear map. From now on by a sesquilinear form we will mean a sesquilinear quasiform.

We define a form \mathfrak{t}^* with the domains $\text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}^* := \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}$, $\text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}^* := \text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}$, by the formula $\mathfrak{t}^*(v, w) := \overline{\mathfrak{t}(w, v)}$. If \mathfrak{t}_1 are \mathfrak{t}_2 forms, then we define $\mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2$ with the domain $\text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2 := \text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}_1 \cap \text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}_2$, $\text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2 := \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}_1 \cap \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}_2$ by $(\mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2)(w, v) := \mathfrak{t}_1(w, v) + \mathfrak{t}_2(w, v)$. We write $\mathfrak{t}_1 \subset \mathfrak{t}_2$ if $\text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}_1 \subset \text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}_2$, $\text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}_1 \subset \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}_2$, and $\mathfrak{t}_1(w, v) = \mathfrak{t}_2(w, v)$ $w \in \text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}_1$, $v \in \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}_1$.

\mathfrak{t} is bounded iff

$$|\mathfrak{t}(w, v)| \leq c\|w\|\|v\|, \quad w \in \text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t}, \quad v \in \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}.$$

From now on, we will usually assume that $\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{V}$ and $\text{Dom}_\ell \mathfrak{t} = \text{Dom}_r \mathfrak{t}$ and the latter subspace will be simply denoted by $\text{Dom} \mathfrak{t}$.

Recall that the numerical range of the form \mathfrak{t} is defined as

$$\text{Numt} := \{\mathfrak{t}(v) : v \in \text{Domt}, \|v\| = 1\}.$$

We proved that Numt is a convex set.

The form \mathfrak{t} is bounded iff Numt is bounded. Equivalently, $|\mathfrak{t}(v)| \leq c\|v\|^2$.
 \mathfrak{t} is bounded from below, if there exists c such that

$$\text{Numt} \subset \{z : \text{Re}z > c\}.$$

\mathfrak{t} is hermitian iff $\text{Numt} \subset \mathbb{R}$. The equivalent condition: $\mathfrak{t}(w, v) = \overline{\mathfrak{t}(v, w)}$.

If T is an operator on \mathcal{V} , then $\mathfrak{t}(w, v) := (w, Tv)$ with the domain $\text{Dom}T$ is a form called the form associated with the operator T . Clearly, $\text{Numt} = \text{Num}T$.

4.2 Closed positive forms

Let \mathfrak{s} be a positive form.

Definition 4.1 We say that \mathfrak{s} is a closed form iff $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ with the scalar product

$$(w, v)_{\mathfrak{s}} := (\mathfrak{s} + 1)(w, v), \quad w, v \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s},$$

is a Hilbert space.

Theorem 4.2 The form \mathfrak{s} is closed iff for any sequence (x_n) in $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$, if $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $\mathfrak{s}(x_n - x_m) \rightarrow 0$, then $x \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ and $\mathfrak{s}(x_n - x) \rightarrow 0$.

Example 4.3 Let A be an operator. Then $(Aw|Av)$ with the domain $\text{Dom}A$ is a closed form iff A is closed.

4.3 Closable positive forms

Let \mathfrak{s} be a positive form.

Definition 4.4 We say that \mathfrak{s} is a closable form iff there exists a closed form \mathfrak{s}_1 such that $\mathfrak{s} \subset \mathfrak{s}_1$.

Theorem 4.5 (1) The form \mathfrak{t} is closable \Leftrightarrow for any sequence $(x_n) \subset \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$, if $x_n \rightarrow 0$ and $\mathfrak{s}(x_n - x_m) \rightarrow 0$, then $\mathfrak{s}(x_n) \rightarrow 0$.

(2) If \mathfrak{s} is closable, then there exists the smallest closed form \mathfrak{s}_1 such that $\mathfrak{s} \subset \mathfrak{s}_1$. We will denote it by \mathfrak{s}^{cl} .

(3) $\text{Num}\mathfrak{s}$ is dense in $\text{Num}\mathfrak{s}^{\text{cl}}$

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow follows immediately from Theorem 4.2.

To prove (1) \Leftarrow , define \mathfrak{s}_1 as follows: $v \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}_1$, iff there exists a sequence $(v_n) \subset \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ such that $v_n \rightarrow v$ and $\mathfrak{s}(v_n - v_m) \rightarrow 0$. We set then $\mathfrak{s}_1(v) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathfrak{s}(v_n)$ (the limit exists, because $\mathfrak{s}(v_n)$ is a Cauchy sequence).

To show that the definition is correct, suppose that $w_n \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$, $w_n \rightarrow v$ and $\mathfrak{s}(w_n - w_m) \rightarrow 0$. Then $v_n - w_n - (v_m - w_m) \rightarrow 0$ and $v_n - w_n \rightarrow 0$. By the hypothesis we get $\mathfrak{s}(v_n - w_n) \rightarrow 0$. Hence, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathfrak{s}(v_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathfrak{s}(w_n)$. Thus the definition of \mathfrak{s}_1 does not depend on the choice of the sequence v_n . It is clear that \mathfrak{s}_1 is a closed form containing \mathfrak{s} . Hence \mathfrak{s} is closable.

To prove (2) note that the form \mathfrak{s}_1 constructed above is the smallest closed form containing \mathfrak{s} . \square

Example 4.6 Let A be an operator. Then $(Aw|Av)$ with the domain $\text{Dom}A$ is closable iff A is a closable operator. Then $(A^{\text{cl}}w|A^{\text{cl}}v)$ with the domain $\text{Dom}A^{\text{cl}}$ is its closure.

4.4 Operators associated with positive forms

Let S be a positive self-adjoint operator. We define the form \mathfrak{s} as follows: $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s} := \text{Dom}S^{1/2}$ and $\mathfrak{s}(v, w) := (S^{1/2}v|S^{1/2}w)$. We will say that \mathfrak{s} is the form associated with S .

Theorem 4.7 (1) \mathfrak{s} is a closed form.

(2) $\text{Dom}S$ is an essential domain for \mathfrak{s} .

(3) $\text{Num}S$ is dense in $\text{Num}\mathfrak{s}$.

The next theorem describes the converse construction.

Theorem 4.8 Let \mathfrak{s} be a densely defined closed positive form. Then there exists a unique positive self-adjoint operator S such that $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s} = \text{Dom}S^{1/2}$ and $\mathfrak{s}(v, w) := (S^{1/2}v|S^{1/2}w)$. We will say that S is the operator associated with the form \mathfrak{s} .

Proof. For $w \in \mathcal{V}$, $v \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$, we have

$$|(v|w)| \leq \|v\|\|w\| \leq \|v\|_{\mathfrak{s}}\|w\|.$$

By the Riesz lemma, there exists $A : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ such that

$$(v|w) = (v|Aw)_{\mathfrak{s}}, \quad (4.16)$$

$$\|Aw\| \leq \|Aw\|_{\mathfrak{s}} \leq \|w\|.$$

$\text{Ker}A = \{0\}$, because $Aw = 0$ implies $(v|w) = 0$ for $v \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$, and $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ is dense in \mathcal{V} . Besides, A is self-adjoint. Putting

$$S := A^{-1} - 1$$

we define a positive self-adjoint operator.

$$\mathfrak{s}(v, y) = (v|Sy), \quad v \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}, \quad y \in \text{Dom}S = \text{Ran}A.$$

Let us show that $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ is an essential domain for \mathfrak{s} . Let $v \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ is \mathfrak{s} -orthogonal to $\text{Ran}A = \text{Dom}S$. Then v is orthogonal to $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ —see (4.16). Hence $v = 0$.

Define \mathfrak{s}_1 by $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}_1 = \text{Dom}S^{1/2}$ and $\mathfrak{s}_1(w, v) = (S^{1/2}w|S^{1/2}v)$. The form \mathfrak{s} and \mathfrak{s}_1 coincide on $\text{Dom}S \subset \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}_1 \cap \text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$. We proved above that $\text{Dom}S$ is an essential domain for \mathfrak{s} . The form \mathfrak{s}_1 is obviously closed and $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}_1$ is an essential domain for \mathfrak{s}_1 . Hence, $\mathfrak{s}_1 = \mathfrak{s}$. \square

4.5 Polar decomposition

Theorem 4.9 Let A be a densely defined closed operator. Let B be the operator associated to the form $(Aw|Av)$. Let \mathcal{V}_α be the scale of spaces $(B+1)^{-\alpha}\mathcal{V}$, so that $\mathcal{V}_1 = \text{Dom}A$ and $\mathcal{V}_{-1} = \mathcal{V}_1^*$. Then

(1) A , treated as an operator from \mathcal{V}_1 to \mathcal{V}_0 , and denoted A_1 , is bounded.

(2) A^* extends by density to a bounded operator, denoted A_0^* from \mathcal{V}_0 to \mathcal{V}_{-1} . We have $A_0^* = (A_1)^*$.

(3) $\text{Dom}A^* = \{v \in \mathcal{V} : A_0^*v \in \mathcal{V}\}$.

(4) $\text{Dom}B = \{v \in \text{Dom}A : Av \in \text{Dom}A^*\}$ and for $v \in \text{Dom}B$, $Bv = A^*Av$.

Proof. (1) is obvious.

To see (2), note that for $v \in \text{Dom}A^*$, $w \in \text{Dom}A$ we have

$$|(A^*v|w)| = (v|Aw)| \leq \|v\|\|w\|_1.$$

Hence $\|A^*v\|_{-1} \leq \|v\|$, and so $A^* : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}_{-1}$ is bounded. $\text{Dom}A^*$ is dense in \mathcal{V} . Hence A^* extends to a bounded operator $A_0^* : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}_{-1}$.

To prove (3), let $v \in \mathcal{V}$, $A_0^*v = w \in \mathcal{V}$. Then there exists $(v_n) \subset \text{Dom}A^*$ such that $v_n \rightarrow v$ in the norm of \mathcal{V} and $A^*v_n \rightarrow w$ in the norm of \mathcal{V}_{-1} . Hence for $x \in \text{Dom}A$,

$$(v_n|Ax) = (A^*v_n|x) \rightarrow (w|x).$$

Therefore, $(w|x) = (v|Ax)$. Hence, $v \in \text{Dom}A^*$ and $A^*v = w$.

To prove (4), denote B_1 as the extension of B to the operator from \mathcal{V}_1 to \mathcal{V}_{-1} . Note that B_1 is bounded.

We have $B_1 = A_0^*A_1$. In fact, for $v, w \in \mathcal{V}_1$

$$(w|B_1v) = (B^{1/2}w|B^{1/2}v) = (Aw|Av) = (w|A_0^*A_1v).$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Dom}B &= \{v \in \mathcal{V}_1 : B_1v \in \mathcal{V}\} \\ &= \{v \in \mathcal{V}_1 : A_0^*A_1v \in \mathcal{V}\} \\ &= \{v_1 : Av \in \text{Dom}A^*\}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Motivated by the above theorem we will write A^*A for B .

Theorem 4.10 *Let A be closed. Then there exist a unique positive operator $|A|$ and a unique partial isometry U such that $\text{Ker}U = \text{Ker}A$ and $A = U|A|$. We have then $\text{Ran}U = \text{Ran}A^{\text{cl}}$.*

Proof. The operator A^*A is positive. By the spectral theorem, we can then define

$$|A| := \sqrt{A^*A}.$$

On $\text{Ran}|A|$ the operator U is defined by

$$U|A|v := Av.$$

It is isometric, because

$$\||A|v\|^2 = (v\||A|^2v) = (v|A^*Av) = \|Av\|^2,$$

and correctly defined. We can extend it to $(\text{Ran}|A|)^{\text{cl}}$ by continuity. On $\text{Ker}|A| = (\text{Ran}|A|)^{\text{cl}}$, we extend it by putting $Uv = 0$. □

4.6 Sectorial forms

A subset of \mathbb{C} of the form $\text{Sec}(a, \theta) := a + \{z : |\arg z| < \theta\}$ with $\theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ will be called a sector. a will be called its tip and θ its angle. We say that a form \mathfrak{t} is sectorial iff there exists $a \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ such that $\text{Numt} \subset \text{Sec}(a, \theta)$.

Lemma 4.11 *Let \mathfrak{t} be a sectorial form with the sector given by a, θ . Then*

$$|(\mathfrak{t} - a)(w, v)| \leq (1 + \tan \theta) \text{Re}(\mathfrak{t} - a)(w)^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{Re}(\mathfrak{t} - a)(v)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Clearly, if \mathfrak{t} is sectorial and a is the tip of a sector containing $\text{Num}\mathfrak{t}$, then $\text{Re}\mathfrak{t} + \text{Re}a$ is a positive form. We say that a sectorial form \mathfrak{t} is closed iff $\text{Re}\mathfrak{t}$ is closed. We say that a sectorial form \mathfrak{t} is closable iff $\text{Re}\mathfrak{t}$ is closable.

It is easy to see, using Lemma 4.11, that Theorems 4.2 and 4.5 remain true if the form \mathfrak{s} is assumed to be sectorial.

4.7 Operators associated with sectorial forms

Definition 4.12 *An operator T is called sectorial iff the associated form is sectorial, that means, if $\text{Num}T \subset \text{Sec}(a, \theta)$. A maximal sectorial operator is called shortly m -sectorial.*

Theorem 4.13 (1) *Let \mathfrak{t} be a sectorial form. Then there exists a unique m -sectorial operator T such that $\text{Dom}T \subset \text{Dom}\mathfrak{t}$ and*

$$\mathfrak{t}(w, v) = (w|Tv), \quad v \in \text{Dom}T, \quad w \in \text{Dom}\mathfrak{t}.$$

T is called the operator associated with the form \mathfrak{t} and denoted by $T_{\mathfrak{t}}$.

- (2) *$\text{Dom}T$ is an essential domain for \mathfrak{t} .*
- (3) *$\text{Num}T$ is dense in $\text{Num}\mathfrak{t}$.*
- (4) *If \mathfrak{t} is bounded, then so is T .*

We will assume that the sector of \mathfrak{t} has the tip at 0. We will write $\mathfrak{s} := \text{Re}\mathfrak{t}$.

Lemma 4.14 *There exists an invertible operator $B \in B(\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s})$ such hat*

$$(\mathfrak{t} + 1)(w, v) = \mathfrak{s}(w, Bv) + (w|Bv).$$

Proof. By Lemma 4.11, the form $\mathfrak{t} + 1$ is bounded in the Hilbert space $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$. Hence there exists $B \in B(\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s})$ such that

$$(\mathfrak{t} + 1)(w, v) = (w|Bv)_{\mathfrak{s}} = (w|Bv) + \mathfrak{s}(w, Bv).$$

We have

$$\|v\|_{\mathfrak{s}}^2 = \text{Re}(\mathfrak{t} + 1)(v) = \text{Re}(v|Bv)_{\mathfrak{s}} \leq \|Bv\|_{\mathfrak{s}}\|v\|_{\mathfrak{s}}.$$

Hence $\|v\|_{\mathfrak{s}} \leq \|Bv\|_{\mathfrak{s}}$. Therefore, $\text{Ran}B$ is closed.

If w is orthogonal in $\text{Dom}\mathfrak{s}$ to $\text{Ran}B$, then

$$\|w\|_{\mathfrak{s}}^2 = \text{Re}(w|Bw)_{\mathfrak{s}} = 0.$$

Hence, $w = 0$. Therefore, B is invertible. \square

Proof of Theorem 4.13. Let S denote the operator associated with \mathfrak{s} . Then $T := S(B + 1) - 1$ with the domain $\text{Dom}T = \text{Dom}S$ satisfies the conditions of the theorem. \square

4.8 Perturbations of sectorial forms

Theorem 4.15 *Let \mathfrak{t}_1 and \mathfrak{t}_2 be sectorial forms.*

- (1) *$\mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2$ is also a sectorial form.*
- (2) *If \mathfrak{t}_1 and \mathfrak{t}_2 are closed, then $\mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2$ is closed as well.*
- (3) *If \mathfrak{t}_1 and \mathfrak{t}_2 are closable, then $\mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2$ is closable as well and $(\mathfrak{t}_1 + \mathfrak{t}_2)^{\text{cl}} \subset \mathfrak{t}_1^{\text{cl}} + \mathfrak{t}_2^{\text{cl}}$.*

Definition 4.16 Let $\mathfrak{p}, \mathfrak{s}$ be forms and let \mathfrak{s} be positive. We say that \mathfrak{p} is \mathfrak{s} -bounded iff $\text{Dom} \mathfrak{s} \subset \text{Dom} \mathfrak{p}$ and

$$b := \inf_{c>0} \sup_{v \in \text{Dom} \mathfrak{s}} \frac{|\mathfrak{p}(v)|}{\mathfrak{s}(v) + c\|v\|^2} < \infty.$$

The number b is called the \mathfrak{s} -bound of \mathfrak{p} .

Theorem 4.17 Let \mathfrak{t} be sectorial and let \mathfrak{p} be Ret-bounded with the Ret-bound < 1 . Then

- (1) The form $\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p}$ (with the domain $\text{Dom} \mathfrak{t}$) is sectorial as well.
- (2) \mathfrak{t} is closed $\Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p}$ is closed.
- (3) \mathfrak{t} is closable $\Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p}$ is closable, and then $\text{Dom}(\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p})^{\text{cl}} = \text{Dom} \mathfrak{t}^{\text{cl}}$.

Proof. Let us prove (1). For some $b < 1$, we have

$$|\mathfrak{p}(v)| \leq b \text{Ret}(v) + c\|v\|^2.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Im}(\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p})(v) &\leq |\text{Im} \mathfrak{t}(v)| + |\text{Im} \mathfrak{p}(v)| \leq (\tan \theta + b) \text{Ret}(v) + c\|v\|^2, \\ \text{Re}(\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p})(v) &\geq \text{Ret}(v) - |\text{Im} \mathfrak{p}(v)| \geq (1 - b) \text{Ret}(v) - c\|v\|^2. \end{aligned} \quad (4.17)$$

Hence,

$$|\text{Im}(\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p})(v)| \leq (1 - b)^{-1} (\tan \theta + b) (\text{Re}(\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p})(v) + c\|v\|^2) + c\|v\|^2.$$

This proves that $\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p}$ is sectorial.

To see (2) and (3), note that (4.17) and

$$(1 + b) \text{Ret}(v) + c\|v\|^2 \geq \text{Re}(\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p})(v)$$

prove that the norms $\|\cdot\|_{\mathfrak{t}}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{\mathfrak{t} + \mathfrak{p}}$ are equivalent. \square

4.9 Friedrichs extensions

Theorem 4.18 Let T be a sectorial operator. Then the form $\mathfrak{t}(w, v) := (w|Tv)$ is closable.

Proof. It suffices to assume that the tip of the sector of \mathfrak{t} is 0. Suppose that $w_n \in \text{Dom} T = \text{Dom} \mathfrak{t}$, $w_n \rightarrow 0$, $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow \infty} \mathfrak{t}(w_n - w_m) = 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathfrak{t}(w_n)| &\leq |\mathfrak{t}(w_n - w_m, w_n)| + |\mathfrak{t}(w_m, w_n)| \\ &\leq (1 + \tan \theta) (\text{Ret}(w_n))^{\frac{1}{2}} (\text{Ret}(w_n - w_m))^{\frac{1}{2}} + (w_m|Tw_n). \end{aligned}$$

For any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N such that for $n, m > N$ we have $\text{Ret}(w_n - w_m) \leq \epsilon^2$. Besides, $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (w_m|Tw_n) = 0$. Therefore,

$$|\mathfrak{t}(w_n)| \leq \epsilon(1 + \tan \theta) |\mathfrak{t}(w_n)|^{1/2}.$$

Hence $\mathfrak{t}(w_n) \rightarrow 0$. \square

Thus there exists a unique m -sectorial operator T_{Fr} associated with the form \mathfrak{t}^{cl} . The operator T_{Fr} is called the Friedrichs extension of T .

5 Aronszajn-Donoghue and Friedrichs Hamiltonian and their renormalization

5.1 Aronszajn Donoghue Hamiltonians

Let H_0 be a self-adjoint operator on \mathcal{H} , $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$H := H_0 + \lambda|h)(h|, \quad (5.18)$$

is a rank one perturbation of H_0 . We will call (5.18) the Aronszajn Donoghue Hamiltonian.

We would like to describe how to define the Aronszajn-Donoghue Hamiltonian if h is not necessarily a bounded functional on \mathcal{H} . It will turn out that it is natural to consider 3 types of h :

$$\text{I. } h \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \text{II. } h \in \mathcal{H}_{-1} \setminus \mathcal{H}, \quad \text{III. } h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2} \setminus \mathcal{H}_{-1}, \quad (5.19)$$

where by \mathcal{H}_{-n} we denoted the usual scale of spaces associated to the operator H_0 , that is $\mathcal{H}_{-n} := \langle H_0 \rangle^{n/2} \mathcal{H}$, where $\langle H_0 \rangle := (1 + H_0^2)^{1/2}$.

Clearly, in the case I H is self-adjoint on $\text{Dom}H_0$. We will see that in the case II one can easily define H as a self-adjoint operator, but its domain is no longer equal to $\text{Dom}H_0$. In the case III, strictly speaking, the formula (5.18) does not make sense. Nevertheless, it is possible to define a *renormalized Aronszajn-Donoghue Hamiltonian*. To do this one needs to *renormalize the parameter* λ . This procedure resembles the *renormalization of the charge* in quantum field theory.

Consider first the case I. We can compute its resolvent. In fact, for $z \notin \text{sp}H_0$ we define an analytic function

$$g(z) := -\lambda^{-1} + (h|(z - H_0)^{-1}h). \quad (5.20)$$

Then for $z \in \Theta := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \text{sp}H_0 : g(z) \neq 0\}$ and $\lambda \neq 0$, the resolvent of the operator H is given by Krein's formula

$$R(z) = (z - H_0)^{-1} - g(z)^{-1}(z - H_0)^{-1}|h)(h|(z - H_0)^{-1}. \quad (5.21)$$

For $\lambda = 0$, we set $\Theta = \mathbb{C} \setminus \text{sp}H_0$ and clearly

$$R(z) = (z - H_0)^{-1}. \quad (5.22)$$

The following theorem will describe how to define the Aronszajn-Donoghue Hamiltonian in all the cases I, II and III:

Theorem 5.1 *Assume that:*

(A) $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-1}$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ and let $R(z)$ be given by (5.22) or (5.21) with $g(z)$ given by (5.20),
or

(B) $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2}$, $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $R(z)$ be given by (5.21) with $g(z)$ given by

$$g(z) := \gamma + (h|((z - H_0)^{-1} + H_0(1 + H_0^2)^{-1})h).$$

Then, for all $z \in \Theta$,

- (1) $R(z)$ is a bounded operator which fulfills the first resolvent formula;
- (2) $\text{Ker}R(z) = \{0\}$, unless $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\lambda = \infty$;
- (3) $\text{Ran}R(z)$ is dense in \mathcal{H} , unless $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\lambda = \infty$;
- (4) $R(z)^* = R(\bar{z})$.

Hence, except for the case $h \in \mathcal{H}$, $\lambda = \infty$, there exists a unique densely defined self-adjoint operator H such that $R(z)$ is the resolvent of H .

Another way to define H for the case $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2}$ is the cut-off method. For all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ we define h_k as in (5.35) and fix the *running coupling constant* by

$$-\lambda_k^{-1} := \gamma + (h_k | H_0 (1 + H_0^2)^{-1} h_k)$$

and set the cut-off Hamiltonian to be

$$H_k := H_0 + \lambda_k |h_k\rangle\langle h_k|. \quad (5.23)$$

Then the resolvent for H_k is given by

$$R_k(z) = (z - H_0)^{-1} + g_k(z)^{-1} (z - H_0)^{-1} |h_k\rangle\langle h_k| (z - H_0)^{-1}, \quad (5.24)$$

where

$$g_k(z) := -\lambda_k^{-1} + (h_k | (z - H_0)^{-1} h_k). \quad (5.25)$$

Note that λ_k is chosen in such a way that the renormalization condition $\frac{1}{2} (g_k(i) + g_k(-i)) = \gamma$ holds. It is easy to see that if H_0 is bounded from below, then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_k = 0$. Again, the cut-off Hamiltonian converges to the renormalized Hamiltonian:

Theorem 5.2 *Assume that $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2}$. Then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} R_k(z) = R(z)$.*

Let us assume that h is cyclic. Then the support of the spectral measure of h wrt H_0 is $\text{sp}H_0$. If $g(\beta) = 0$ and $\beta \notin \text{sp}H_0$, then H has an eigenvalue at β and the corresponding eigenprojection equals

$$1_{\{\beta\}}(H) = (h | (\beta - H_0)^{-2} h)^{-1} (\beta - H_0)^{-1} |h\rangle\langle h| (\beta - H_0)^{-1}.$$

5.2 Aronszajn-Donoghue Hamiltonians and extensions of Hermitian operators

Let H_0 be as above and $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2} \setminus \mathcal{H}$. Define H_{\min} to be the restriction of H_0 to

$$\text{Dom}(H_{\min}) := \{v \in \text{Dom}(H_0) = \mathcal{H}_2 : (h|v) = 0\}.$$

Then H_{\min} is a closed Hermitian operator. Set $H_{\max} := H_{\min}^*$. Then

$$\text{Dom}(H_{\max}) = \text{Span}\{\text{Dom}H_{\min}, (i - H_0)^{-1}h, (-i - H_0)^{-1}h\}.$$

Note that $\text{Ker}(H_{\max} \pm i)$ is spanned by

$$v_{\pm} := (\pm i - H_0)^{-1}h.$$

Thus the indices of defect of H_{\min} are $(1, 1)$.

The operators H_{γ} discussed in the previous subsection are self-adjoint extensions of H_{\min} . To obtain H_{γ} it suffices to increase the domain of H_{\min} by adding the vector

$$\theta_{\gamma}(i - H_0)^{-1}h - \bar{\theta}_{\gamma}(i + H_0)^{-1}h,$$

where $\theta_{\gamma} := \frac{\gamma + (h | H_0 (1 + H_0^2)^{-1} h)}{\gamma - i(h | (1 + H_0^2)^{-1} h)}$.

5.3 Aronszajn-Donoghue Hamiltonians and extensions of positive forms

Assume now in addition that H_0 is positive.

Consider the positive form \mathfrak{h}_{\min} associated with H_{\min} . Thus $\mathfrak{h}(v, v) = (v | H_{\min} v) = (v | H_0 v)$ with the domain $\text{Dom}(\mathfrak{h}_{\min}) := \text{Dom}H_{\min}$.

Assume first that $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-1}$. The Friedrichs extension of H_{\min} is H_{λ} with $\lambda = \infty$. The closure of the form \mathfrak{h}_{\min} has the domain $\{v \in \mathcal{H}_1 : (h|v) = 0\}$.

Assume now that $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2} \setminus \mathcal{H}_{-1}$. Then the Friedrichs extension of H_{\min} equals H_0 .

5.4 Friedrichs Hamiltonian

Let H_0 be again a self-adjoint operator on the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} . Let $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $h \in \mathcal{H}$. The following operator on the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C} \oplus \mathcal{H}$ is often called the Friedrichs Hamiltonian:

$$G := \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon & (h| \\ |h\rangle & H_0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (5.26)$$

Recall that expression the operators $(h|$ and $|h\rangle$ are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H} \ni v &\mapsto (h|v := (h|v) \in \mathbb{C}, \\ \mathbb{C} \ni \alpha &\mapsto |h\rangle\alpha := \alpha h \in \mathcal{H}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.27)$$

We would like to describe how to define the Friedrichs Hamiltonian if h is not necessarily a bounded functional on \mathcal{H} . It will turn out that it is natural to consider 3 types of h :

$$\text{I. } h \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \text{II. } h \in \mathcal{H}_{-1} \setminus \mathcal{H}, \quad \text{III. } h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2} \setminus \mathcal{H}_{-1}, \quad (5.28)$$

Clearly, in the case I G is self-adjoint on $\mathbb{C} \oplus \text{Dom}H_0$. We will see that in the case II one can easily define G as a self-adjoint operator, but its domain is no longer equal to $\mathbb{C} \oplus \text{Dom}H_0$. In the case III, strictly speaking, the formula (5.26) does not make sense. Nevertheless, it is possible to define a *renormalized Friedrichs Hamiltonian*. To do this one needs to *renormalize the parameter* ϵ . This procedure resembles the *renormalization of mass* in quantum field theory. Let us first consider the case $h \in \mathcal{H}$. As we said earlier, the operator G with $\text{Dom}G = \mathbb{C} \oplus \text{Dom}H_0$ is self-adjoint. It is well known that the resolvent of G can be computed exactly. In fact, for $z \notin \text{sp}H_0$ define the analytic function

$$g(z) := \epsilon + (h|(z - H_0)^{-1}h). \quad (5.29)$$

Then for $z \in \Omega := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \text{sp}H_0 : g(z) - z \neq 0\}$ the resolvent $Q(z) := (z - G)^{-1}$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} Q(z) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & (z - H_0)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &+ (z - g(z))^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & (h|(z - H_0)^{-1} \\ (z - H_0)^{-1}|h\rangle & (z - H_0)^{-1}|h\rangle(h|(z - H_0)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.30)$$

Theorem 5.3 *Assume that:*

(A) $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-1}$, $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $Q(z)$ be given by (5.30) with $g(z)$ defined by (5.29),

or

(B) $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2}$, $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $Q(z)$ be given by (5.30) with $g(z)$ defined by

$$\begin{aligned} g(z) &:= \gamma + (h|((z - H_0)^{-1} + H_0(1 + H_0^2)^{-1})h) \\ &= \gamma + \left(h| \left(\frac{i-z}{2(z-H_0)(i-H_0)} - \frac{i+z}{2(z-H_0)(-i-H_0)} \right) h \right) \end{aligned} \quad (5.31)$$

Then for all $z \in \Omega$:

- (1) $Q(z)$ is a bounded operator which fulfills the first resolvent formula (in the terminology of [Ka], $Q(z)$ is a pseudoresolvent);
- (2) $\text{Ker}Q(z) = \{0\}$;
- (3) $\text{Ran}Q(z)$ is dense in $\mathbb{C} \oplus \mathcal{H}$;

(4) $Q(z)^* = Q(\bar{z})$.

Therefore, by [Ka], there exists a unique densely defined self-adjoint operator G such that $Q(z) = (z - G)^{-1}$. More precisely, for any $z_0 \in \Omega$, $\text{Dom}G = \text{Ran}Q(z_0)$, and if $\varphi \in \text{Ran}Q(z_0)$ and $Q(z_0)\psi = \varphi$, then

$$G\varphi := -\psi + z_0Q(z_0)\psi,$$

Proof. Let $z \in \Omega$. It is obvious that $Q(z)$ is bounded and satisfies (4). We easily see that both in the case (A) and (B) the function $g(z)$ satisfies

$$g(z_1) - g(z_2) = -(z_1 - z_2)(h|(z_1 - H_0)^{-1}(z_2 - H_0)^{-1}|h). \quad (5.32)$$

Direct computations using (5.32) show the first resolvent formula.

Let $(\alpha, f) \in \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathcal{H}$ be such that $(\alpha, f) \in \text{Ker}Q(z)$. Then

$$0 = (z - g(z))^{-1} \left(\alpha + (h|(z - H_0)^{-1}f) \right), \quad (5.33)$$

$$0 = (z - H_0)^{-1}f + (z - H_0)^{-1}h(z - g(z))^{-1} \left(\alpha + (h|(z - H_0)^{-1}f) \right). \quad (5.34)$$

Inserting (5.33) into (5.34) we get $0 = (z - H_0)^{-1}f$ and hence $f = 0$. Now (5.33) implies $\alpha = 0$, so $\text{Ker}Q(z) = \{0\}$.

Using (2) and (4) we get $(\text{Ran}Q(z))^\perp = \text{Ker}Q(z)^* = \text{Ker}Q(\bar{z}) = \{0\}$. Hence 3) holds. \square

Let $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2}$ and $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$. Let us impose a cut-off on h . For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ we define

$$h_k := 1_{[-k, k]}(H_0)h, \quad (5.35)$$

where $1_{[-k, k]}(H_0)$ is the spectral projection for H_0 associated with the interval $[-k, k] \subset \mathbb{R}$. Note that $h_k \in \mathcal{H}$ and hence both $(h_k|$ and $|h_k)$ are well defined bounded operators. Set

$$\epsilon_k := \gamma + (h_k|H_0(1 + H_0^2)^{-1}h_k).$$

For all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, the cut-off Friedrichs Hamiltonian

$$G_k := \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_k & (h_k| \\ |h_k) & H_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is well defined and we can compute its resolvent, $Q_k(z) := (z - G_k)^{-1}$:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_k(z) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & (z - H_0)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &+ (z - g_k(z))^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & (h_k|(z - H_0)^{-1} \\ (z - H_0)^{-1}|h_k) & (z - H_0)^{-1}|h_k)(h_k|(z - H_0)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.36)$$

where

$$g_k(z) := \epsilon_k + (h_k|(z - H_0)^{-1}h_k). \quad (5.37)$$

Note that ϵ_k is chosen such a way that the following *renormalization condition* is satisfied: $\frac{1}{2}(g_k(i) + g_k(-i)) = \gamma$. Let us also mention that if H_0 is bounded from below, then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_k = \infty$.

Theorem 5.4 *Assume that $h \in \mathcal{H}_{-2}$. Then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} Q_k(z) = Q(z)$, where $Q(z)$ is given by (5.30) and $g(z)$ is given by (5.31).*

Proof. The proof is obvious if we note that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|(z - H_0)^{-1}h - (z - H_0)^{-1}h_k\| = 0$ and $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g_k(z) = g(z)$.
 \square

Thus the cut-off Friedrichs Hamiltonian is norm resolvent convergent to the renormalized Friedrichs Hamiltonian.

Let us assume that h is cyclic. Then the support of the spectral measure of h wrt H_0 is $\text{sp}H_0$. If $\beta = g(\beta) = 0$ and $\beta \notin \text{sp}H_0$, then G has an eigenvalue at β . The corresponding projection equals

$$1_\beta(G) = (1 + (h|(\beta - H_0)^{-2}|h))^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & (h|(\beta - H_0)^{-1} \\ (\beta - A)^{-1}|h) & (\beta - H_0)^{-1}|h)(h|(\beta - H_0)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

6 Discrete and essential spectrum

6.1 Extended discrete and essential spectrum

Let \mathcal{X} be a Banach space and A a closed operator on \mathcal{X} . Recall that we defined the discrete and essential spectra of A denoted by $\text{sp}_d A$ and $\text{sp}_{\text{ess}} A$.

We say that ∞ belongs to the extended discrete spectrum iff there is a decomposition of $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_0 \oplus \mathcal{X}_1$ into the direct sum of two closed subspaces such that \mathcal{X}_1 is nonzero finite dimensional, $\text{Dom} A = \mathcal{X}_0$ and A maps \mathcal{X}_0 into itself and A restricted to \mathcal{X}_0 is bounded. Equivalently, ∞ is a discrete point in $\text{sp}^{\text{ext}} A$ and $1_{\{\infty\}}(A)$ is finite dimensional. The discrete extended spectrum is denoted by $\text{sp}_d^{\text{ext}}(A)$. The essential extended spectrum is defined as

$$\text{sp}_{\text{ess}}^{\text{ext}} A := \text{sp}^{\text{ext}} A \setminus \text{sp}_d^{\text{ext}} A.$$

Theorem 6.1 *Let $z_0 \in \text{rs}A$. Then*

$$\text{sp}_{\text{ess}}^{\text{ext}}(z_0 - A)^{-1} = (z_0 - \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}^{\text{ext}} A)^{-1}, \quad \text{sp}_d^{\text{ext}}(z_0 - A)^{-1} = (z_0 - \text{sp}_d^{\text{ext}} A)^{-1}.$$

6.2 Operators with a compact resolvent

Theorem 6.2 *Let A be an operator with a non-empty resolvent set. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) $(z_0 - A)^{-1}$ is compact for some $z_0 \in \text{rs}A$.
- (2) $(z - A)^{-1}$ is compact for all $z \in \text{rs}A$.

Proof. We use the resolvent equation

$$(z - A)^{-1} = (z_0 - A)^{-1} (1 - (z - z_0)(z - A)^{-1}).$$

\square

When the conditions of Theorem 6.2 are satisfied, then we say that the operator A has a compact resolvent.

Theorem 6.3 (1) *Let A be normal. Then A has a compact resolvent iff $\text{sp}A = \text{sp}_d A$.*

- (2) *Let A be bounded from below and self-adjoint. Then A has a compact resolvent iff $\mu_n(A) \rightarrow \infty$.*

Theorem 6.4 *Let $f, g \in L_{\text{loc}}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$ and $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \infty$. Then*

$$H := f(x) + g(D)$$

has a compact resolvent.

Proof. Clearly, the functions f, g are bounded from below. Fix $\epsilon > 0$. For $r > 0$, let

$$H_r := f(x) + \min(g(D), r).$$

Then for $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ the operator $(\min(g(D), r) - r)(z - f(x) - r)^{-1}$ is compact. Hence also the operator

$$(z - H_r)^{-1} - (z - f(x) - r)^{-1} = (z - H_r)^{-1}(\min(g(D), r) - r)(z - f(x) - r)^{-1}$$

is compact. Thus

$$\text{sp}_{\text{ess}}(H_r) = \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}(f(x) + r) \subset [r + \inf f, \infty[.$$

Therefore, there exists N such that for $n > N$

$$\mu_n(H_r) \geq r - \epsilon + \inf f.$$

But $H_r \leq H$. Hence

$$\mu_n(H_r) \leq \mu_n(H).$$

Therefore, for $n > N$, we have $\mu_n(H) \geq R - \epsilon + \inf f$. Thus $\mu_n(H) \rightarrow \infty$. \square

6.3 Stability of essential spectrum

Theorem 6.5 *Let \mathcal{V} be a Hilbert space and $A \in B(\mathcal{V})$ be normal. Then $\lambda \in \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}A$ iff there exists a sequence of vectors v_n such that*

$$\|v_n\| = 1, \quad \text{w-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n = 0, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (A - \lambda)v_n = 0. \quad (6.38)$$

Proof. \Rightarrow We know that for any n $\dim 1_{B(\lambda, \frac{1}{n})}(A) = \infty$. Therefore, we can find an orthonormal system v_1, v_2, \dots such that $v_n \in \text{Ran } 1_{B(\lambda, \frac{1}{n})}(A)$. The sequence v_1, v_2, \dots satisfies (6.38).

\Leftarrow Let $\epsilon > 0$. We have

$$(1 - 1_{B(\lambda, \epsilon)}(A))v_n = (1 - 1_{B(\lambda, \epsilon)}(A))(A - \lambda)^{-1}(A - \lambda)v_n \rightarrow 0.$$

Hence

$$c_n := \|1_{B(\lambda, \epsilon)}(A)v_n\| \rightarrow 1.$$

Let

$$\tilde{v}_n := \frac{1}{c_n} 1_{B(\lambda, \epsilon)}(A)v_n.$$

Then $\|\tilde{v}_n\| = 1$, $\text{w-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{v}_n = 0$ and $\tilde{v}_n \in \text{Ran } 1_{B(\lambda, \epsilon)}(A)$. Hence $\text{Span}\{\tilde{v}_1, \tilde{v}_2, \dots\}$ is infinite dimensional. Thus, $1_{B(\lambda, \epsilon)}(A)$ is infinite dimensional. \square

Definition 6.6 *A sequence of vectors v_n satisfying the conditions of the above theorem will be called a Weyl sequence for λ and the operator A .*

Theorem 6.7 (Weyl) *Let $A, B \in B(\mathcal{V})$ be normal and let $B - A$ be compact. Then $\text{sp}_{\text{ess}}A = \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}B$.*

Proof. Assume that $\lambda \in \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}A$. Then there exists a Weyl sequence v_1, v_2, \dots for λ and the operator A . We have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (B - A)v_n = 0$. Hence v_1, v_2, \dots is a Weyl sequence for λ and the operator B . \square

Theorem 6.8 *Assume that A, B are normal operators such that for some $z_0 \notin \text{sp}A \cup \text{sp}B$ the operator $(z_0 - A)^{-1} - (z_0 - B)^{-1}$ is compact. Then*

$$\text{sp}_{\text{ess}}A = \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}B.$$

Proof. By the Weyl theorem $\text{sp}_{\text{ess}}(z_0 - A)^{-1} = \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}(z_0 - B)^{-1}$. Then we use Theorem 6.1 to normal operators A and B . \square

Theorem 6.9 *Let $f \in L_{\text{loc}}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$ and $g \in L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 0$. Then*

$$\text{sp}_{\text{ess}}(f(D) + g(x)) = \text{sp}_{\text{ess}}(f(D)).$$

Proof. The operator $g(x)(z_0 - f(D))^{-1}$ is compact. Hence, the operator

$$(z_0 - f(D) - g(x))^{-1} - (z_0 - f(D))^{-1} = (z_0 - f(D) - g(x))^{-1}g(x)(z_0 - f(D))^{-1}$$

is compact as well. We can thus use Theorem 6.8. \square

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