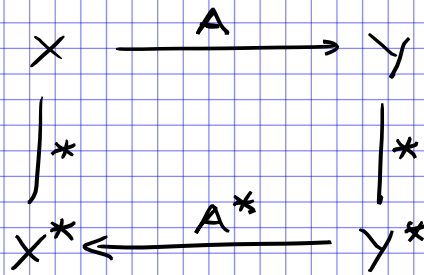


Adjunction in Hilbert spaces

Recall:



key identity:

$$\langle y^*, Ax \rangle_{Y^* \times Y} = \langle A^* y^*, x \rangle_{X^* \times X}$$

$\forall x \in D_A, \forall y^* \in D_{A^*}$

Hilbert space setting  $\rightsquigarrow$  the story simplifies a lot

$(H, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$J: H \longrightarrow H^*$$

$\leftarrow$  (conjugate) isometry

Given  $A: D_A \subset H \longrightarrow H$

$$[ A^*: D_{A^*} \subset H^* \longrightarrow H^*, \text{ cf. Lecture 22} ]$$

Def (adjoint)  $A^T: D_{A^T} \subset H \longrightarrow H$

$$D_{A^T} = \left\{ y \in H \text{ s.t. } \begin{array}{l} D_A \xrightarrow{l_y} \mathbb{R} \\ x \mapsto (y, Ax) \end{array} \right.$$

is continuous i.e.  $\sup_{\substack{x \in D_A \\ \|x\| \leq 1}} |(y, Ax)| < \infty$

If  $y \in D_{A^T}$ , denoted by  $l_y \in H^*$  the (unique) extension of the continuous map above we set  $A^T y := J^{-1} l_y$ .

key identity:

$$(y, Ax) = (A^T y, x)$$

$\forall x \in D_A \quad \forall y \in D_{A^T}$

Link: i)  $y^* \in \mathcal{D}_{A^*} \iff J^{-1} y^* \in \mathcal{D}_{A^T}$

ii)  $\forall y^* \in \mathcal{D}_{A^*} \quad A^* y^* = J A^T J^{-1} y^*$

i.e.  $A^* = J \cdot A^T \cdot J^{-1}$

Example (verify check)

$H = \mathbb{R}^n$ , standard Euclidean product  $(,)$

have that  $\mathcal{D}_A = \mathcal{D}_{A^T} = \mathbb{R}^n$  for any linear map  $A: H \rightarrow H$   
 (since linear  $\Rightarrow$  continuous for finite-dim vector spaces)

why?

$A^T$  is represented by the transpose of the matrix representing  $A$ .

key identity

$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad (y, Ax) = (A^T y, x)$

$\sum_{i,j=1}^n (a_{ij} x_j) y_i$

$\sum_{i,j=1}^n (a_{ij}^T y_j) x_i$

$\sum_{i,j=1}^n (a_{ij} y_i) x_j$

$\Rightarrow a_{ji} = a_{ij}^T$

$\forall i, j$

rename indices

$(i, j) \rightarrow (j, i)$

$\sum_{i,j=1}^n (a_{ji} y_j) x_i$

Def (setting above)

From now onwards, we'll write  $A^*$  for  $A^T$  meaning the adjoint operator,  $A^*: H \rightarrow H$

i)  $A: \mathcal{D}_A \subset H \rightarrow H$  is called symmetric

if  $A \subset A^*$  i.e.  $\mathcal{D}_A \subset \mathcal{D}_{A^*}$  and  $A^*|_{\mathcal{D}_A} = A$

a particular  $(y, Ax) = (Ay, x) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathcal{D}_A$

ii)  $A: D_A \subset H \rightarrow H$  is called self-adjoint

if  $A = A^*$  i. e. A sym and  $D_A = D_{A^*}$ .

Prop. 1.  $A$  sym  $\iff$   $A$  self-adjoint

Prop. 2 if  $A \in L(H)$  then  $A^* \in L(H)$

(cf. lecture 22), and so

$A$  sym  $\iff$   $A$  self-adjoint

Prop. 3 Special case of Prop. 2: if  $T \in L(H)$  is self-adjoint, then  $(\text{id} - T)$  is also self-adjoint.

If  $T \in L(H)$  is self-adjoint and compact then the

operator  $S := \text{id} - T \in L(H)$  satisfies the following 3 properties:

- ①  $S$  has closed image
- ②  $S$  has finite-dim kernel
- ③  $S$  has finite-dim cokernel

use orthogonality relations  
(fill in the gaps!)

any bounded linear operator satisfying these properties is called Fredholm.

Example: a symmetric operator that is not self-adjoint:

$$D_{A_0} = C_c^\infty(\Omega) \subset \underbrace{L^2(\Omega)}_H \xrightarrow{A_0 = \Delta} \underbrace{L^2(\Omega)}_H$$

$$D_{A_1} = C^2(\bar{\Omega})$$

$$D_{A_2} = \{u \in C^2(\bar{\Omega}) : u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega\}$$

$$D_{A_3} = \{u \in C^2(\bar{\Omega}) : u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega\}$$

$$A_\infty \subsetneq A_3 \subsetneq A_2 \subsetneq A_1$$

$$A_1^* \subseteq A_2^* \subseteq A_3^* \subseteq A_\infty^*$$

Claim:  $A_3$  is symmetric: it's enough to check that

for all  $u, v \in \mathcal{D}_{A_3}$   $(u, A_3 v)_{L^2} = (A_3 u, v)_{L^2}$

i.e.

$$\int_{\Omega} u(x) \Delta v(x) dx = \int_{\Omega} \Delta u(x) v(x) dx$$

this is true!

(apply div theorem and note that the boundary terms vanish by the way we defined  $\mathcal{D}_{A_3}$ )

But in fact  $A_3 \subsetneq A_3^*$  because  $\not\subseteq$  holds

also if  $u \in \mathcal{D}_{A_3}$  and  $v \in \mathcal{D}_{A_1} \equiv C^2(\bar{\Omega})$

so  $\mathcal{D}_{A_3^*} \supseteq \mathcal{D}_{A_1} \not\subseteq \mathcal{D}_{A_3}$

$\not\subseteq$

$\leadsto A_3$  is NOT self-adjoint.

## Spectrum and Resolvent

$(X, \|\cdot\|)$  Banach space /  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $A: \mathcal{D}_A \subset X \rightarrow X$  linear.

Def: The resolvent set of  $A$  is

$$\rho(A) = \left\{ \lambda \in \mathbb{C} : (\lambda - A): \mathcal{D}_A \rightarrow X \text{ is bijective} \right.$$

$$\left. \wedge / \text{ bounded inverse } (\lambda - A)^{-1} \in L(X) \right\}$$

The spectrum of  $A$  is  $\sigma(A) = \mathbb{C} \setminus \rho(A)$ .

Example:  $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} X < \infty \leadsto \sigma(A) = \{ \text{eigenvalues of } A \}$   
 $\nwarrow$  a bunch of points

Prop. 1: if  $A \in L(X)$  then, using open mapping thm.,  $\rho(A) := \{ \lambda \in \mathbb{C} : (\lambda - A) : X \rightarrow X \text{ bijective} \}$ .

Prop. 2: if  $A$  has closed graph and  $(\lambda - A)$  bijective  $\implies \exists (\lambda - A)^{-1} \in L(X)$  (Prop. 3.3.2)

So can simplify def. of  $\rho(A)$ , as in Prop. 1, under hyp.  $A$  has closed graph.

Prop. 3 (cf. Prop. 2)

if  $\rho(A) \neq \emptyset$  then  $A : \mathcal{D}_A \rightarrow X$  has closed graph.

why? let  $\lambda \in \rho(A)$ , so  $(\lambda - A)^{-1} \in L(X)$

then  $\Gamma_{(\lambda - A)^{-1}}$  is closed, i.e.

$M := \{ (x, y) \in X \times X : x = (\lambda - A)^{-1} y, y \in X \}$  is closed in  $X \times X$ . Equivalently

$M = \{ (x, y) \in X \times X : x \in \mathcal{D}_A, y = (\lambda - A)x \}$

thus  $(\lambda - A)$  is closed (i.e. a closed operator)

But

$$A = \underbrace{(A - \lambda)}_{\text{closed}} + \underbrace{\lambda}_{\text{closed}}$$

closed!

Def: In the setting above, the resolvent of  $A$  is the map

$$R : \rho(A) \longrightarrow L(H)$$

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

Thm.  $A: \mathcal{D}_A \subset X \rightarrow X$  linear,  $z_0 \in \rho(A)$

Then  $\rho(A) \supset \mathcal{B}_C(z_0; \|R_{z_0}\|_{L(X)}^{-1})$

Thus  $\rho(A) \subset \mathbb{C}$  is open ( $\Leftrightarrow \sigma(A)$  is closed)

and  $\forall z \in \rho(A) \quad \text{dist}(z, \sigma(A)) \geq \frac{1}{\|R_z\|_{L(X)}}$ .

Lastly,  $\rho(A) \rightarrow L(X)$   
 $z \mapsto R_z$  is continuous.

Pf.  $\left\{ \begin{aligned} z - A &= (z - z_0) + (z_0 - A) \\ &= \underbrace{(1 + (z - z_0)R_{z_0})}_{\text{Neumann series}} (z_0 - A) \end{aligned} \right.$

if  $z_0 \in \rho(A)$  and  $z \in \mathcal{B}_C(z_0, \|R_{z_0}\|_{L(X)}^{-1})$

then (Neumann series)  $\exists (1 + (z - z_0)R_{z_0})^{-1} \in L(X)$

and so  $\exists R_z \in L(X)$  i.e.  $z \in \rho(A)$  and

by  $\left\{ \begin{aligned} R_z &= (z_0 - A)^{-1} (1 + (z - z_0)R_{z_0})^{-1} \\ &= R_{z_0} (1 + (z - z_0)R_{z_0})^{-1} \end{aligned} \right.$

We only need to check that the resolvent (map) is continuous:

$$\|R_z - R_{z_0}\|_{L(X)} \stackrel{\text{above}}{=} \|R_{z_0} \left( (1 + (z - z_0)R_{z_0})^{-1} - 1 \right)\|_{L(X)}$$

$$\leq \|R_{z_0}\|_{L(X)} \underbrace{\left\| (1 + (z - z_0)R_{z_0})^{-1} - 1 \right\|_{L(X)}}_{\text{use explicit form of } \downarrow z \rightarrow z_0}$$

the inverse of Neumann series

Basic Resolvent Identities: given  $\lambda, \mu \in \rho(A)$  then

$$i) R_\lambda A \subset A R_\lambda = \lambda R_\lambda - \text{id}_X \in L(X)$$

$$ii) R_\lambda - R_\mu = (\mu - \lambda) R_\mu R_\lambda$$

$$iii) R_\lambda R_\mu = R_\mu R_\lambda.$$

pf: i) "we're working in a commutative subalgebra, but we need to be careful with the domains,"

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{R_\lambda (\lambda - A)} &= R_\lambda \lambda - R_\lambda A = \lambda R_\lambda - R_\lambda A \\ &= \text{id}_{D_A} \subset \text{id}_X = \underline{(\lambda - A) R_\lambda} \\ &= \lambda R_\lambda - A R_\lambda \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightsquigarrow R_\lambda A &= \lambda R_\lambda - \text{id}_{D_A} \\ &\subset \lambda R_\lambda - \text{id}_X = A R_\lambda \end{aligned}$$

$$ii) \text{ by part i) } \begin{aligned} \lambda R_\lambda - \text{id}_X &= A R_\lambda \\ \mu R_\mu - \text{id}_X &= A R_\mu \end{aligned}$$

subtract and get  $\mu R_\mu - \lambda R_\lambda = A (R_\mu - R_\lambda)$

subtract  $\mu (R_\mu - R_\lambda)$  on both sides

$$(\mu - \lambda) R_\lambda = (A - \mu) (R_\mu - R_\lambda)$$

left multiplication by  $R_\mu$   $(\mu - \lambda) R_\mu R_\lambda = R_\mu (A - \mu) (R_\mu - R_\lambda)$

$$iii) \text{ follows from ii) } R_\lambda - R_\mu = (\mu - \lambda) R_\mu R_\lambda$$

$$(\lambda, \mu) \rightarrow (\mu, \lambda) \quad R_\mu - R_\lambda = (\lambda - \mu) R_\lambda R_\mu$$

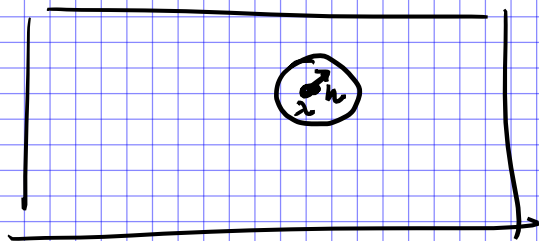
sum and get what you want.  $\Rightarrow$

$$\underline{\text{Cor}} : \begin{aligned} \rho(A) &\longrightarrow L(X) \\ \lambda &\longmapsto (\lambda - A)^{-1} =: R_\lambda \in L(X) \end{aligned}$$

is actually differentiable.

Pf. (use part ii) above)

$$\frac{R_{\lambda+h} - R_{\lambda}}{h} \stackrel{(ii)}{=} -R_{\lambda+h}R_{\lambda}$$



$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{R_{\lambda+h} - R_{\lambda}}{h} = - \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} R_{\lambda+h} R_{\lambda}$$

$$\stackrel{\uparrow}{=} -R_{\lambda}^2$$

continuity of  $z \mapsto R_z$

continuity of multiplication in Banach

algebra  $L(X)$   $\square$