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SPECTRAL PROPERTIES OF SELF-ADJOINT LINEAR OPERATORS

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ABSTRACT

The spectral theory mainly deals with a systemic study of inverse operators, their general properties and their

relation to the original operators.

Operators on Hilbert space is a basis for a comprehensive study of the spectral theory. In particular, the hermitian

or self-adjoint operators are very important in many applications. In this peper, we have generalized this idea by showing

that the spectrum of a self-adjoint operator on a Hilbert space also consists entirely of real values.

KEYWORDS: Spectral Theory, Self Adjoint, Hilbert Space, Inverse Operator, Projection

1. INTRODUCTION

While solving the system of linear algebraic equations, differential equations or integral equations, we come

across the problem related to inverse operation. Spectral theory is concerned with such inverse problem.

In chapter one we discuss the preliminary concepts which are frequently used in the project work. In chapter Two

we discuss the spectral theory of bounded self-adjoint linear operator and in chapter Three we discuss Projection operators.

The definition of projection is suitable for spectral family. Projections are always positive operators.

In Chapter Four we discuss spectral family. The spectral family of a bounded self-adjoint linear operator at points

of the resolvent set, at eigen values and at the point of continuous spectrum.

The spectral projection are the given, as in the bounded case, by defining E_{λ} to be the orthogonal projection on the

null space of $(T - \lambda I)^+$ for all real λ . If the two sets are vector spaces, we can introduce the concept of a linear operator, if

the sets are normed spaces, we can construct a theory of bounded linear operators on such spaces. Operators that map

members of a specified space into the real or complex numbers are called functional. We shall also discuss the Hilbert-

adjoint operators as well as the self-adjoint, unitary and normal operators. Finally, we shall look at the spectral family of

the Hermitian (self-adjoint) operators which is an important aspect of functional analysis.

2. PRELIMINARY CONCEPT

2.1 Basic Definition

Norm: Let X be a vector space over a field K. Then a mapping $\|.\|: X \to [0, \infty)$ is said to be a norm on X if for

each $x, y \in X, \lambda \in K$

 $||x|| \ge 0$ and ||x|| = 0 if and only if x = 0 (positive definiteness)

 $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$ (Homogeneity)

 $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\| \ (\ triangle\ inequality).$

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If norm is defined on a vector space X, then X is said to be a **normed space**.

Linear Functional: A linear functional on Hilbert space H is a linear map from H to \mathbb{C} . That is $\varphi: H \to \mathbb{C}$.

Bounded Linear Functional: A linear functional φ is bounded or Continuous, if there exists a constant k such that

$$|\varphi(x)| \le k||x||$$

The norm of a bounded linear functional is

$$\|\varphi\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |\varphi(x)|$$

If $y \in H$, then $\varphi_y(x) = \langle y, x \rangle$ is a bounded linear functional on H, with $\|\varphi_y\| = \|y\|$

Continuous Operator

An operator T from a normed space V into another normed space W is continuous at a point $x \in D(T)$ if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$, such that $||Tx - Ty|| < \varepsilon$ for all $y \in D(T)$ whenever $||x - y|| < \delta$ then T is continuous, if its continuous at all points of D(T).

Let X be a vector space over K and let $\langle .,. \rangle$: $X \times X \to K$, where for all $x, y, z \in X$

- $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$ (linearity)
- $\langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$ (Homogeneity)
- $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle \overline{y, x} \rangle$ (conjugate symmetry)
- $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0$ and $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$ (positive definiteness).

Then the pair $(X, \langle .,. \rangle)$ is said to be an **inner product space**. **Hilbert space** is a complete inner product space. If $T: X \to X$ is a linear operator on linear space X, then $X \in X$ is called **eigen value** of X, if there exist an non-zero $X \in X$ then

$$Tx = \lambda x$$

Resolvent Set: Let H be a Hilbert space and let $T: D(T) \to H$ be a linear operator with domain $D(T) \subseteq H$. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, we define the operator $T_{\lambda} = \lambda I - T$, then λ is said to be a **regular value** if R_{λ} is inverse operator. That is λ is regular if provided,

- R_{λ} exists
- R_{λ} is a bounded linear operator;
- R_{λ} is defined on a dense subspace of H

The resolvent set of T is the set of all regular values of T

$$\rho(T) = {\lambda \in \mathbb{C}: \lambda \text{ is a regular value of } T}$$

Spectrum. The set
$$\sigma(T) = \mathbb{C} - \rho(T)$$

The spectrum of an operator T is usually divided into three disjoint unions.

- Point spectrum $\sigma_p(T)$.
- Continuous spectrum $\sigma_c(T)$.
- Residual spectrum $\sigma_r(T)$.

Where

$$\begin{split} &\sigma_p(T) = \{\lambda \in &\sigma(T) \colon ker(\lambda I - T) \neq \{0\}\} \\ &\sigma_c(T) = \{\lambda \in &\sigma(T) \colon (\lambda I - T)^{-1} \text{ is densely defined but not bounded}\} \\ &\sigma_r(T) = \{\lambda \in &\sigma(T) \colon &R(\lambda I - T) \text{ is not dense in } H\} \end{split}$$

Elements of $\sigma_n(T)$ are called eigenvalues.

Orthogonality

Two vectors x and y in inner product space are said to be orthogonal if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Orthonormality

The set containing those vectors x, y such that $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ and ||x|| = 1 is said to be orthonormal set.

Orthogonal Complement

For non-empty subset S of Hilbert space we define the orthogonal complement to S, denoted by S^{\perp} .

$$S^{\perp} = \{ y \in H : \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } x \in S \}$$

Convergence of Sequence of Operator

Let *X* and *Y* be normed space. A Sequence (T_n) of operators $T_n \in B(X,Y)$ is said to be:

• Uniformly Operator Convergent: If (T_n) converges in the norm of B(X,Y) to $T \in B(X,Y)$

i.e
$$||T_n - T|| \to 0$$

• **Strongly Operator Convergent:** If $(T_n x)$ converges strongly in Y for every $x \in X$

$$||T_nx - Tx|| \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$$

Unitary Operator: A bounded linear operator $T: H \to H$ on Hilbert space H is said to be unitary if T is bijective and

$$T^* = T^{-1}$$

Normal Operator: A bounded linear operator $T: H \to H$ on a Hilbert space is said to be normal

if
$$TT^* = T^*T$$

2.2. BASIC THEOREMS

Theorem (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality):- If X is inner product space then

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \le \langle x, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} \langle y, y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

This equality holds if and only if x and y are linearly depedent.

Proof. Continuity of Inner Product-If in an inner product $x_n \to x$ and $y_n \to y$. Then $\langle x_n, y_n \rangle \to \langle x, y \rangle$

Reiszre-Presentation Theorem: Let φ be a continuous linear functional on a Hilbert space H. Then there is a unique $z \in H$ such that $\varphi(x) = \langle x, z \rangle$ for all $x \in H$

Bounded Inverse Theorem-Let $T: V \to W$ be a bounded, linear and bijective operator from Banach space V into Banach space W then the inverse operator $T^{-1}: W \to V$ is also bounded.

Principle of Uniform Boundness: Let(T_n) be sequence of bounded, linear operator $T_n: X \to Y$ from a Banach space X into a normed space Y such that is bounded for every $x \in X$, say

$$||T_n x|| \le C_N n = 1.2$$

Where C_N is real number, then the sequence of the norms $||T_n||$ is bounded, that is there is C a such that $||T_n|| \le C$

Weierstress Approximation Theorem (Polynomial) - The set of all polynomials W with real coefficient is dense in real space C[a,b]. Hence for every $x \in C[a,b]$ and given $\varepsilon > 0$ there exist a polynomial P such that $|x(t) - P(t)| < \varepsilon$ for all $t \in C[a,b]$

Proof in [1], [2] and [3]

3. SPECTRAL THEORY OF BOUNDED SELF-ADJOINT LINEAR OPERATORS

3.1. Spectral Properties of Bounded Self- Adjoint Linear Operators

3.1.1. Definition

Let H_1 and H_2 be complex Hilbert spaces and $T: H_1 \to H_2$ bounded linear operator. Then the **Hilbert-adjoint** operator $T^*: H_2 \to H_1$ defined to be the operator satisfying.

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$$
 for all $x, y \in H$

3.1.1. Theorem

If $(H_1 = H_2 = H)$, then T^* exists as bounded linear operator of norm

 $||T^*|| = ||T||$ and is unique.

Proof. Let H be complex Hilbert spaces and T^* be operator we need to show:

- T* bounded.
- T* linear operator
- T^* is unique.

Take $y \in H$ and $T \in B(H)$. We define a bounded linear functional X' on H by $x'(x) = \langle Tx, y \rangle \ \forall x, y \in H \Rightarrow X'$

bounded since $|x'(x)| = |\langle Tx, y \rangle| \le ||Tx|| ||y||$.

By **Riesz-representation theorem** there is unique $z \in H$ such that $x'(x) = \langle x, z \rangle$ for all $x \in H$.here we observe that y and z must have a certain relation so we can define an operator $T^*y = z$ satisfying $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$ for all $x \in H$.

Now let's see T^* Linear. Let $y_1, y_2 \in H$ and $\alpha, \beta \in C$, so $\forall x \in H$

$$\begin{split} \langle x, T^*(\alpha y_1 + \beta y_2) \rangle &= \langle Tx, \alpha y_1 + \beta y_2 \rangle = \langle Tx, \alpha y_1 \rangle + \langle Tx, \beta y_2 \rangle \\ &= \overline{\alpha} \langle Tx, y_1 \rangle + \overline{\beta} \langle Tx, y_2 \rangle = \langle x, \alpha T^* y_1 \rangle + \langle x, \beta T^* y_2 \rangle = \langle x, \alpha T^* y_1 + \beta T^* y_2 \rangle \\ \Rightarrow T^*(\alpha y_1 + \beta y_2) &= \alpha T^* y_1 + \beta T^* y_2. \end{split}$$

\therefore T^* Linear operator.

We want show that the uniqueness of $||T^*|| = ||T||$. Let $y \in H$

$$\parallel T^*y \parallel^2 = \langle T^*y, T^*y \rangle \ = \ \langle y, TT^*y \rangle \ \leq \ \|y\| \|TT^*y\| \ \leq \ \|y\| \|T\| \|T^*y\|$$

 $\Rightarrow ||T^*y|| \le ||y|| ||T||$, This shows that T^* is bounded

$$\Rightarrow ||T^*|| \le ||T|| \tag{1}$$

Similarly, let $x \in H$

$$||Tx||^2 = \langle Tx, Tx \rangle = \langle x, T^*Tx \rangle \le ||x|| ||T^*Tx|| \le ||x|| ||T^*|| ||Tx|| \Rightarrow ||Tx|| \le ||x|| ||T^*||$$

$$\Rightarrow \parallel T \parallel \leq \parallel T^* \parallel \tag{2}$$

Combining(1) and (2) we get

 $\parallel T^* \parallel = \parallel T \parallel. \blacksquare$

3.1.2. Definition

A bounded linear operator $T: H \to H$ on a complex Hilbert space H is said to be self-adjoint or hermitian, if $T = T^*$. Equivalently, a bounded linear operator T is said to be self-adjoint, if $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle \, \forall x, y \in H$.

3.1.2. Theorem

Let $T:H \to H$ be a bounded linear operator on a Hilbert space H. Then

- If T is self-adjoint, then $\langle Tx, x \rangle$ is real for all $x \in H$
- If H is complex and $\langle Tx, x \rangle$ is real for all $x \in H$, then the operator T is self-adjoint

Proof. 1. If T is self-adjoint, then for all x

$$\overline{\langle Tx, x \rangle} = \langle x, Tx \rangle \tag{1}$$

By definition $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$ and since T is self-adjoint, we have:

$$\langle Tx, x \rangle = \langle x, Tx \rangle \tag{2}$$

Combining equation (1) and (2) gives

$$\overline{\langle Tx, x\rangle} = \langle Tx, x\rangle$$

Hence $\langle Tx, x \rangle$ is equal to its complex conjugate which implies that it is real. If $\langle Tx, x \rangle$ is real for all $x \in H$, then: $\langle Tx, x \rangle = \overline{\langle Tx, x \rangle} = \overline{\langle x, T^*x \rangle} = \langle T^*x, x \rangle$. Hence $0 = \langle Tx, x \rangle - \langle T^*x, x \rangle = \langle (T - T^*)x, x \rangle$. Thus, $T - T^* = 0$. Therefore $T = T^*$

Remark 1: If T Self-adjoint or unitary, then T is normal; in general the converse is not true.

Example 1: If $I: H \to H$ is identity operator, then T = 2iI is normal, since $T^* = -2iI$, so that $TT^* = T^*T = 4I$ but $T \neq T^*$ and $T^* \neq T^{-1} = \frac{-1}{2}iI$

3.1.3. Theorem

Let $T: H \to H$ be a bounded self-adjoint linear operator on complex Hilbert space H. Then:

- All the eigenvalue of *T* are real.
- Eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalue of *T* are mutually orthogonal.

Proof. a): Let λ be any eigenvalue of T and x a corresponding eigenvectors. Then $x \neq 0$ & $Tx = \lambda x \Rightarrow \lambda \langle x, x \rangle = \langle \lambda x, x \rangle = \langle Tx, x \rangle = \langle x, T^*x \rangle = \langle x, Tx \rangle = \langle x, \lambda x \rangle = \overline{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle$, using the self-adjointness of T.

$$\Rightarrow \lambda \langle x, x \rangle - \overline{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - \overline{\lambda})\langle x, x \rangle = 0$$
. Here $\langle x, x \rangle = ||x||^2 \neq 0$

$$\lambda = \overline{\lambda}$$

• Let $\lambda \& \mu$ be eigenvalues of T and let x and y be corresponding eigenvectors. Then $Tx = \lambda x$ and $Ty = \mu y$ since T is self-adjiont and μ real.

$$\lambda \langle x, y \rangle = \langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle = \langle x, \mu y \rangle = \mu \langle x, y \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda \langle x, y \rangle - \mu \langle x, y \rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - \mu)\langle x, y \rangle = 0, \lambda \neq \mu$$

$$\therefore \langle x,y\rangle = 0 \; i.\, e \; x \perp y$$

Example 4:
$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1-i \\ 1+i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Spectrum of $(\lambda) = \{0,3\}$ distinct real numbers with eigenvectors.

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1+i \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1-i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ respectively

Finally $\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle = x_1^T \overline{x_2} = [-1 + i \ 2] \begin{bmatrix} 1 + i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$. So the eigenvectors are orthogonal.

3.1.4. Theorem

Let $T: H \to H$ be a bounded self –adjoint linear operator on a complex Hilbert space H. Then a number λ belongs to the resolvent set $\rho(T)$ of T if and only if there exists a c > 0 such that for ever $x \in H$

$$||T_{\lambda}x|| \ge c||x|| T_{\lambda} = T - \lambda I$$

Proof: \Longrightarrow) Suppose that $\lambda \in \rho(T)$, $R_{\lambda} = T^{-1}_{\lambda}$: $H \to H$ exists and is bounded set $||R_{\lambda}|| = k$ where k > 0, since $R_{\lambda} \neq 0$ now $I = R_{\lambda} T_{\lambda}$, so that for every $x \in H$

$$\Rightarrow T_{\lambda}x = y, \Rightarrow x = T^{-1}_{\lambda}y, \text{ since } R_{\lambda} = T^{-1}_{\lambda}$$

$$\implies x = R_{\lambda}T_{\lambda}x$$

$$\Rightarrow ||x|| = ||R_{\lambda}T_{\lambda}x|| \le ||R_{\lambda}|| ||T_{\lambda}x|| = k||T_{\lambda}x||$$

$$\Rightarrow ||x|| \le k||T_{\lambda}x||$$

$$\Rightarrow ||T_{\lambda}x|| \ge \frac{1}{k}||x||$$
, where $c = \frac{1}{k}$

$$\|T_{\lambda}x\| \ge c\|x\|$$

3.1.5. Theorem

The spectrum $\sigma(T)$ of a bounded self-adjoint linear operator $T: H \to H$ on a complex Hilbert space H is real.

Proof: By theorem 2.1.5 we show that a $\lambda = \alpha + i\beta$ $(\alpha, \beta \ real)$ with $\beta \neq 0$ which belongs to $\rho(T)$ so that $\sigma(T) \subset \mathbb{R}$.

$$\langle T_{\lambda}x, x \rangle = \langle Tx, x \rangle - \lambda \langle x, x \rangle$$
 for all $x \in H$ (1)

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

$$\overline{\langle T_{\lambda} x, x \rangle} = \langle T x, x \rangle - \overline{\lambda} \langle x, x \rangle, here \overline{\lambda} = \alpha - i\beta$$
 (2)

Subtract equation (2) from (1)

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

So that

$$-2i\operatorname{Im}\langle T_{\lambda}x, x\rangle = 2i\beta \|x\|^2$$

$$-\mathrm{Im}\langle T_{\lambda}x, x\rangle = \beta \|x\|^2$$

$$|\beta| ||x||^2 = |\operatorname{Im}\langle T_{\lambda} x, x \rangle| \le ||T_{\lambda} x|| ||x||$$

$$|\beta| ||x|| \le ||T_{\lambda}x||, for ||x|| \ne 0.$$

If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\lambda \in \rho(T)$. Hence for $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ we must have $\beta = 0$. i.e λ is real

3.2 Further Spectral Properties of Bounded Self-Adjoint Linear Operators

3.2.1 Theorem

The spectrum $\sigma(T)$ of a bounded self-adjoint linear operator $T: H \to H$ on a complex Hilbert space H lies in the closed interval [m,M] on the real axis, where

$$m = inf_{\|x\|=1} \langle Tx, x \rangle M = sup_{\|x\|=1} \langle Tx, x \rangle$$

Proof: $\sigma(T)$ lies on the real axis. We show that any real $\lambda = M + c$ with c > 0 belongs to the resolvent set $\rho(T)$. For every $x \neq 0$ and $v = ||x||^{-1}x$ we have x = ||x||v and

$$\langle Tx, x \rangle = \|x\|^2 \langle Tv, v \rangle \leq \|x\|^2 \sup_{\|\widetilde{v}\| = 1} \langle T\widetilde{v}, \widetilde{v} \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle M$$

Hence $-\langle Tx, x \rangle \ge -\langle x, x \rangle M$ and by Cauchy-Schwartz inequality we obtain

$$||T_{\lambda}x||||x|| \ge -\langle T_{\lambda}x, x\rangle = -\langle Tx, x\rangle + \lambda\langle x, x\rangle = -\langle x, x\rangle M + \lambda\langle x, x\rangle$$

$$\geq (-M + \lambda)\langle x, x \rangle = C||x||^2$$

$$\Rightarrow ||T_{\lambda}x|| ||x|| \ge C||x||^2, ||x|| \ne 0$$

$$||T_{\lambda}x|| \geq C||x||$$

$$\lambda \in \rho(T)$$

3.2.2 Theorem

For any bounded self-adjoint linear operator T on a complex Hilbert space H we have:

$$||T|| = max(|m|, |M|) = sup_{||x||=1} |\langle Tx, x \rangle|$$

Proof. By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$\sup_{\|x\|=1} |\langle Tx, x \rangle| \le \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Tx\| \|x\| = \|T\|$$
, where $K = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |\langle Tx, x \rangle|$. Hence, $K \le \|T\|$

We want show $||T|| \le K$.If Tz = 0, then $0 \le K||z||^2 \Longrightarrow ||Tz|| \le K \ \forall z \in H$, ||z|| = 1. Otherwise $Tz \ne 0$ for any z of norm 1. $v = ||Tz||^{\frac{1}{2}}z$ and $w = ||Tz||^{-\frac{1}{2}}Tz$. Now set $y_1 = v + w$ and $y_2 = v - w$. T is self-adjoint

$$\langle Ty_1,y_1\rangle - \langle Ty_2,y_2\rangle = 2(\langle Tv,w\rangle + \langle Tw,v\rangle)$$

$$= 2(\langle Tz, Tz \rangle + \langle T^2z, z \rangle)$$

$$= 2(\langle Tz, Tz \rangle + \langle Tz, Tz \rangle)$$

$$=2(2\langle Tz,Tz\rangle)=4\langle Tz,Tz\rangle=4||Tz||^2\tag{1}$$

Now for every $y \neq 0$ and $x = ||y||^{-1}y$ we have y = ||y||x and

 $|\langle Ty,y\rangle|=\|y\|^2|\langle Tx,x\rangle|\leq \|y\|^2sup_{\|\tilde{x}\|=1}|\langle T\tilde{x},\tilde{x}\rangle|=K\|y\|^2, \text{ so that by the triangle inequality}.$

$$|\langle Ty_1, y_1 \rangle - \langle Ty_2, y_2 \rangle| \le |\langle Ty_1, y_1 \rangle| + |\langle Ty_2, y_2 \rangle|$$

$$\leq K(\|y_1\|^2 + \|y_2\|^2) \leq 2K(\|v\|^2 + \|w\|^2) = 4K\|Tz\| \tag{2}$$

Combining (1) and (2) we get

$$4\|Tz\|^2 \le 4K\|Tz\|, \|Tz\| \ne 0$$

$$\|Tz\| \le K \text{ by taking supremum over all z of norm } 1. \|T\| \le K \text{ and } K \le \|T\|$$

$$\|T\| = K = \max(|m|, |M|) = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |\langle Tx, x \rangle| \blacksquare$$

3.2.3 Theorem.

The residual spectrum $\sigma_r(T)$ of a bounded self-adjoint linear operator $T: H \to H$ on a complex Hilbert space H is empty

Proof. Suppose $\operatorname{not}\sigma_r(T) \neq \emptyset$. Let $\lambda \in \sigma_r(T)$. By definition of $\sigma_r(T)$, the inverse of T_λ exists but its domain $\mathfrak{D}(T^{-1}_\lambda)$ is not dense in H. Hence, by the projection theorem there is a $y \neq 0 \in H$ which is orthogonal $\operatorname{to}\mathfrak{D}(T^{-1}_\lambda)$, but $\mathfrak{D}(T^{-1}_\lambda)$ is a range of T_λ , hence, $\langle T_\lambda x, y \rangle = 0$, $\forall x \in H$. since λ is real and T self-adjoint, we obtain $\langle x, T_\lambda y \rangle = 0 \ \forall x$. Taking $x = T_\lambda y$ we get $\|T_\lambda y\|^2 = 0$, so that $T_\lambda y = Ty - \lambda y = 0$, since $y \neq 0$. This shows that λ is an eigenvalue of T, but contradicts $\lambda \in \sigma_r(T)$. Therefore $\lambda \in T$

3.3 Positive Operators

In this section we can see the definition of **partial order** is a binary relation " \leq " over a set *P* which is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive i.e $\forall a, b, c \in P$. We have that:

- $a \le a$ (Reflexive)
- if $a \le b$ and $b \le a$ then a = b (Antisymmetrive)
- *if* $a \le b$ and $b \le c$ then $a \le c$ (Transitive)

3.3.1. Definition.

Abounded linear operator $T: H \to H$ is called a positive operator if and only if T self-adjoint and $\langle Tx, x \rangle \ge 0$ for all $x \in H$. A bounded linear operator $T: H \to H$ is said to be **positive**, written

$$T \ge 0$$
 if and only if $\langle Tx, x \rangle \ge 0$ for all $x \in H$

Remark 2: The sum of positive operators is positive. Every positive operator on a complex Hilbert space is self-adjoint.

The following theorem is like the familiar statement about real numbers which says that when you multiply two non-negative real numbers the result is a non-negative real numbers.

3.3.1 Theorem

Let S and T be a positive and self-adjoint such that ST = TS. Then their product ST is also self-adjoint and positive.

Proof. Since $(ST)^* = T^*S^* = TS$ we see that ST is self-adjoint if and only if ST = TS. We show that ST is positive. This is true for n = 0. Assume it is true for any n. We consider

$$S_1 = \frac{1}{\|S\|} S, S_{n+1} = S_n - S_n^2 (n = 1, 2, 3 \dots) (*)$$

and prove by induction such that $0 \le S_n \le I$ (**)

• For n = 1 the inequality (**) holds. Indeed, the assumption $0 \le S$ implies $S_1 \le I$ is obtained by application of the Schwarz inequality $||Sx|| \le ||s|| ||x||$

$$\langle S_1 x, x \rangle = \frac{1}{\|S\|} \langle Sx, x \rangle \le \frac{1}{\|S\|} \|sx\| \|x\| \le \|x\|^2 = \langle Ix, x \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow S_1 \leq I$$
.

Suppose (**) holds for any = k that is $0 \le S_k \le I$. Thus, $0 \le I - S_k \le I$.

Since S_k is self-adjoint, for every $x \in H \& y = S_k x$, we obtain

$$\langle S_k^2(I - S_k)x, x \rangle = \langle (I - S_k)S_kx, S_kx \rangle = \langle (I - S_k)y, y \rangle \ge 0.$$

By definition this proves $S_k^2(I - S_k) \ge 0$. Similarly, $S_k(I - S_k)^2 \ge 0$.

Since S_k is self-adjiont. It is clear that from remark (2) sum of positive operator is positive.

$$0 \le S_k^2 (I - S_k) + S_k (I - S_k)^2 = S_k - S_k^2 = S_{k+1}.$$

Hence $0 \le S_{k+1}$ and $S_{k+1} \le I$ follows from $S_k^2 \ge 0$ and $I - S_k \ge 0$

• We now show that $\langle STx, x \rangle \ge 0$ for all $x \in H$. Form (**) we obtain successively

$$S_1 = S_1^2 + S_2, S_2 = S_2^2 + S_3, S_3 = S_3^2 + S_4, S_4 = S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2 + S_4, \cdots$$

$$S_n = S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2 + S_4^2 + \dots + S_n^2 + S_{n+1}^2$$

Since $S_{n+1} \ge 0$ this implies

$$S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2 + S_4^2 + \dots + S_n^2 = S_1 - S_{n+1} \le S_1$$

By the definition of \leq and self-adjiontness of S_i 's

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \left\| S_{j} x \right\|^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \langle S_{j} x, S_{j} x \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \langle S_{j}^{2} x, x \rangle \le \langle S_{1} x, x \rangle$$

Since *n* is arbitrary, the infinite series $||S_1x||^2 + ||S_2x||^2 + \cdots$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{j=1}^n ||S_j x||^2 = ||S_1 x||^2$$
. Hence $\lim_{n\to\infty} S_n x = Sx. (\sum_{j=1}^n S_j^2) x = (S_1 - S_{n+1}) x \to S_1 x$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n S_j^2\right) x = \lim_{n\to\infty} \left(S_1 - S_{n+1}\right) x \to S_1 x.$$

All the S_j 's commute with T since they are sums and product of $S_1 = \|S\|^{-1}S$, S and T commute. Using $S = \|S\|S_1$, $\left(\sum_{j=1}^n S_j^2\right)x = (S_1 - S_{n+1})x \to S_1x$, $T \ge 0$ and the continuity of inner product, we thus obtain for every $x \in H$ and $y_j = S_j x \langle STx, x \rangle = \|S\|\langle TS_1x, x \rangle = \|S\| \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n \langle TS_j^2x, x \rangle = \|S\| \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n \langle Ty_j, y_j \rangle \ge 0$

 $\therefore \langle STx, x \rangle \ge 0$, then ST are positive.

3.3.2. Definition

A monotone sequence (T_n) of self-adjoint linear operators T_n on Hilbert space H is a sequence (T_n) which is either

monotone increasing, that is,

$$T_1 \leq T_2 \leq T_3 \leq \cdots$$

Or monotone decreasing, that is,

$$T_1 \ge T_2 \ge T_3 \ge \cdots$$

The following theorem is a generalization of the familiar fact that if you have an increasing sequence of real numbers which is bounded above, then the sequence converges

3.3.2. Theorem

Let (T_n) be a sequence of bounded self-adjoint linear operators on a complex Hilbert space H such that

$$T_1 \leq T_2 \leq T_3 \leq \cdots \leq T_n \leq \cdots \leq K$$
 (*).

Where K is bounded self-adjointlinear operator on H. Suppose that any T_j commutes with K and with every T_m . Then (T_n) is strongly operator convergent $(T_n x \to Tx \ for \ all \ x \in H)$ and limit operator T is linear, bounded and self-adjoint and satisfies $T \subseteq K$.

Proof. We consider $S_n = K - T_n$. The sequence $(\langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle)$ converges $\forall x \in H; T_n x \to T x$, where T is linear, self-adjoint and bounded by uniform boundness theorem $\langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle = \langle S_n x, S_n x \rangle = \langle x, S_n^2 x \rangle$. Therefore, S_n is self-adjoint? $S_m^2 - S_n S_m = (S_m - S_n) S_m = (T_n - T_m)(k - T_m)$. Let m < n. Then $T_n - T_m$ and $K - T_m$ are positive by (*), since these operators commute, their product is positive. Hence on the left $S_m^2 - S_n S_m \ge 0$, that is $S_m^2 \ge S_n S_m$ for m < n.

Similarly $S_n S_m - {S_n}^2 = S_n (S_m - S_n) = (k - T_n) (T_n - T_m) \ge 0$. So that $S_n S_m \ge {S_n}^2$, together ${S_m}^2 \ge S_n S_m \ge {S_n}^2$, m < n. By definition, using the self-adjointness of S_n

$$\langle S_m^2 x, x \rangle \ge \langle S_n S_m x, x \rangle \ge \langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle = \langle S_n x, S_n x \rangle = ||S_n x||^2 \ge 0.$$
 (**)

This show that $(\langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle)$ with fixed x is a monotone decreasing sequence of non-negative numbers. Hence, $(\langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle)$ converges $\forall x \in H$.

We show that $T_n x \to T x$ is converges. By assumption, every T_n commute withevery T_m and with K. Hence the $S_i's$ all commute. These operators are self-adjoint, since $-2\langle S_n S_m x, x \rangle \leq -2\langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle$ by (**) where m < n

$$||S_m x - S_n x||^2 = \langle (S_m - S_n)x, (S_m - S_n)x \rangle$$

$$= \langle (S_m - S_n)^2 x, x \rangle$$

$$= \langle S_m^2 x, x \rangle - 2 \langle S_n S_m x, x \rangle + \langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle$$

$$\leq \langle S_m^2 x, x \rangle - \langle S_n^2 x, x \rangle.$$

Since $(S_n x)$ is Cauchy sequence in H is completes. We show that T is self-adjoint because T_n is self-adjoint and the inner product is continuous.

$$\langle Tx, x \rangle = \lim_{n \to \infty} \langle T_n x, x \rangle = \lim_{n \to \infty} \langle x, T_n x \rangle = \langle x, Tx \rangle.$$

We show that T is bounded. Now we must show that T is bounded and $(T_n x)$ converges to it $\sup_n \|T_n x\|$ must be finite for every x, there is M such that M > 0.

- $\Rightarrow ||T_n|| \leq M, \forall n$
- $\Rightarrow ||T_n x|| \leq M||x||$
- $\Rightarrow \lim_{n\to\infty} ||T_n x|| \le M||x|| \text{ this implies } ||Tx|| \le M||x||.$

Hence T is bounded, by uniform boundness theorem. Finally $\langle Tx, x \rangle = \lim_{n \to \infty} \langle T_n x, x \rangle \leq \langle Kx, x \rangle$. Therefore $T \leq K \blacksquare$

3.4. Square Roots of Positive Operators

3.4.1. Definition

Let $T: H \to H$ be positive bounded self-adjoint linear operator on complex Hilbert space H. Then a bounded self-adjoint operator A is called a square root of T if, $A^2 = T$. In addition, $A \ge 0$, then A is called a positive square root of T and is denoted by $A = T^{\frac{1}{2}}$ exists and unique.

3.4.1. Theorem

Every positive bounded self-adjoint linear operator $T: H \to H$ on a complex Hilbert space H has a positive square root A, which is unique. This operator A commutes with every bounded linear operator on H which commutes with T.

Proof. a) We show that if the theorem holds under the additional assumption $T \le I$ it also holds without that assumption. If T = 0, we can take $A = T^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0$. Let $T \ne 0$ by Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

$$\langle Tx, x \rangle \le ||Tx|| ||x|| \le ||T|| ||x||^2 = \langle Ix, x \rangle$$

$$\langle \frac{T}{\|T\|} x, x \rangle = \langle Ix, x \rangle, since \|T\| \neq 0 \text{ set } Q = \left(\frac{1}{\|T\|}\right), \text{ We obtain }$$

$$\langle Qx, x \rangle \le ||x||^2 = \langle Ix, x \rangle$$
 that is $Q \le I$.

Assuming that Q has a unique positive square root. $B = Q^{\frac{1}{2}}$ we have $B^2 = Q$ and $T = ||T||Q \Rightarrow T^{\frac{1}{2}} = ||T||^{\frac{1}{2}}Q^{\frac{1}{2}} = T^{\frac{1}{2}}B = ||T||B^2 = ||T||Q = T$. Hence if we prove the theorem under the additional assumption $T \le I$.

• We obtain the existence of the operator $A = T^{\frac{1}{2}} from \ A_n x \rightarrow Ax \ where \ A_0 = 0 \ \&$

$$A_{n+1} = A_n + \frac{1}{2} (T - A_n^2) n = 0,1,2,...(i)$$

We consider(i), since $A_0 = 0$, we have $A_1 = \frac{1}{2}T$, $A_2 = T - \frac{1}{8}T^2 \dots$,

$$A_{n+1} = A_n + \frac{1}{2} (T - A_n^2) n = 0,1,2,...$$

Each A_n is polynomial in T, and they also commutes with T. We now prove

$$A_n \le I \ n = 0,1,2,...$$
 (ii)

$$A_n \le A_{n+1} \ n = 0,1,2,\dots$$
 (iii)

$$A_n x \to A x, A = T^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{iv}$$

$$ST = TS, \Rightarrow AS = SA$$
 (v)

Where *S* is a bounded linear operator on *H*.

Proof (ii). This is true for n = 0. Assume true for n. Since $I - A_{n-1}$ is self-adjoint

 $(I - A_{n-1})^2 \ge 0$. Also $T \le I$. This implies $I - T \ge 0$. From this (i) and we obtain(ii).

$$0 \le \frac{1}{2} (I - A_{n-1})^2 + \frac{1}{2} (I - T) = I - A_{n-1} - \frac{1}{2} (T - A_{n-1}^2) = I - A_n.$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq I - A_n$$
.

Proof (*iii*). We use induction (*i*) gives $0 = A_0 \le A_1 = \frac{1}{2}T$

We show that $A_{n-1} \le A_n$ for fixed n implies $A_n \le A_{n+1}$ from (i) we have;

$$A_{n+1} - A_n = A_n + \frac{1}{2}(T - A_n^2) - A_{n-1} - \frac{1}{2}(T - A_{n-1}^2)$$

$$= A_n - \frac{1}{2}A_n^2 - A_{n-1} + \frac{1}{2}A_{n-1}^2$$

$$= A_n - A_{n-1} - \frac{1}{2}A_n^2 + \frac{1}{2}A_{n-1}^2$$

$$\geq (A_n - A_{n-1})[I_{-\frac{1}{2}}(A_n + A_{n-1})]$$

$$= (A_n - A_{n-1})I - \frac{1}{2}(2I)] = 0.$$

Hence $A_n - A_{n-1} \ge 0$ and $(I - \frac{1}{2}(A_n + A_{n-1}) \ge 0$.

Therefore $A_n \leq A_{n+1} n = 0,1,2,...$

Proof $(iv) \cdot (A_n)$ Monotone increasing by (iii) and $A_n \leq I$ by (ii). Hence (by the theorem monotone sequence) implies the existence of a bounded self-adjoint linear operator A. Such that $A_n x \to Ax$ for all $x \in H$, since $(A_n x)$ converges (i) gives

$$A_{n+1}x - A_nx = \frac{1}{2}(Tx - A_n^2x) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

$$Tx - A^2x = 0 \ \forall x.$$

 $Tx = A^2x$, $x \neq 0$. Hence $T = A^2$. Also $A \ge 0$. Because $0 = A_0 \le A_n$ by (iii)

 $\Rightarrow \lim_{n\to\infty} \langle A_n x, x \rangle = \lim_{n\to\infty} \langle x, A_n x \rangle = \langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle Ax, x \rangle \ge 0, \text{ by continuity of inner product}$

Proof(v). Let $S \in L(H, H)$ be any linear operator that commute with $A.SA_n = A_nS$, $\forall n$

Since $A_n \to A$, $A_n Sx \to ASx$. Using continuity of inner product of S,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} SA_nx = S\lim_{n\to\infty} A_nx = SAx = \lim_{n\to\infty} A_nSx = ASx$$
. Hence $ST = TS \Rightarrow AS = SA$

• Uniqueness: Let both A and B be positive square root of T. Then $A^2 = B^2 = T$. Also $BT = B^2B = BB^2 = TB$. So that AB = BA by (v). Let $x \in H$ be arbitrary and y = (A - B)x. Then $\langle Ay, y \rangle \ge 0$ & $\langle By, y \rangle \ge 0$, because $A \ge 0$ & $B \ge 0$. Using AB = BA & $A^2 = B^2$ we obtain $\langle Ay, y \rangle + \langle By, y \rangle = \langle (A + B)y, y \rangle = \langle (A^2 - B^2)x, y \rangle = 0$.

Hence $\langle Ay, y \rangle = \langle By, y \rangle = 0$, since $A \ge 0$ and A is self-adjoint. It has itself a positive square root C, that is $C^2 = A$ and C is self-adjoint. We obtain: $0 = \langle Ay, y \rangle = \langle C^2y, y \rangle = \langle Cy, Cy \rangle = ||Cy||^2$ and Cy = 0, also $Ay = C^2y = C(Cy) = 0$.

Similarly, $B \ge 0$ and B is self-adjoint, it has itself a positive square root D. That is $D^2 = B$ and D is self-adjoint. $0 = \langle By, y \rangle = \langle D^2y, y \rangle = \langle Dy, Dy \rangle = \|Dy\|^2 \& Dy = 0$, also $By = D^2y = D(Dy) = 0$. Hence By = 0, since $B \ge 0$. Hence By = 0, using By = (A - B)x, By

Example 5

Let $T: L^2(0,1) \to L^2(0,1)$ be a linear operator defined by

$$Tf(x) = xf(x)$$
 for all $f \in L^2(0,1)$, for all $x \in (0,1)$

- Show that T is a positive operator.
- Find the lower and upper bounds of T.
- Find norm of T.

Solution. (a) For all $f \in L^2(0,1)$ we have that. T is self-adjoint

$$\langle Tf,g\rangle = \int_0^1 x f\left(x\overline{g(x)}\right) dx = \int_0^1 f(x)\overline{xg(x)} dx = \langle f,Tg\rangle \ \forall \ f,g \in L^2(0,1)$$

$$\langle Tf, f \rangle = \int_0^1 x f(\overline{xf(x)}) = \int_0^1 x |f(x)|^2 dx \ge 0.$$

Therefore T is positive operator.

• First we Notice that

$$M = \sup_{\|f\|=1} \langle Tf, f \rangle = \sup_{\|f\|=1} \int_0^1 x |f(x)|^2 dx \le \sup_{\|f\|=1} \int_0^1 |f(x)|^2 dx = 1$$

We prove that M = 1, consider

$$f_{\varepsilon}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \in [0, 1 - \varepsilon) \\ \frac{-1}{\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{2}}}, & \text{if } x \in [1 - \varepsilon, 1] \end{cases}.$$

$$\Rightarrow ||f||^2 = \int_{1-\varepsilon}^1 \varepsilon^{-1} dx = 1 \&$$

$$M = \langle Tf_{\varepsilon}, f_{\varepsilon} \rangle = \int_0^1 x |f_{\varepsilon}x|^2 dx = \int_{1-\varepsilon}^1 \frac{x}{\varepsilon} dx = \frac{x^2}{2\varepsilon} \Big|_{1-\varepsilon}^1 = \frac{1-(1-\varepsilon)^2}{2\varepsilon} = 1$$

$$M = 1$$

We proceed similarly in order to prove that $m = \inf_{\|f\|=1} \langle Tf, f \rangle = 0$ using the function

$$g_{\varepsilon}(x) = \begin{cases} \varepsilon^{\frac{-1}{2}}, if x \in [0, \varepsilon] \\ 0, if x \in [\varepsilon, 1] \end{cases}$$

Hence, m = 0

(c)
$$||T|| = \max(|m|, |M|) = \sup_{||f||=1} |\langle Tf, f \rangle| = 1$$

4. PROJECTIONS

4.1.1 Definition

Let *H* be a Hilbert space over Complex number. A bounded linear operator *P* on is *H* called:

- a projection, if $P^2 = P$
- An orthogonal projection, if $P^2 = P$ and $P^* = P$.

Note

The range Ran(P) = P(H) of a projection on a Hilbert space H always is a closed linear subspace of H on which P acts like the identity. If in addition P is orthogonal, then P acts like zero operator on $(R(P))^{\perp}$.

If x = y + z with $y \in R(P)$ and $z \in (R(P))^{\perp} = \mathcal{N}(P)$ is the decomposition guaranteed by the projection theorem, then Px = y. Thus the projection theorem sets up a one –to –one correspondence between orthogonal projection and closed linear subspaces.

$$x = y + z = Px + (I - P)x$$

This show that the projection of H onto Y^{\perp} is I - P

4.1.1. Theorem

A bounded linear operator $P: H \to H$ on a Hilbert space H is a projection if and only if P is self-adjoint and idempotent.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that P is a projection on H and denote P(H) by Y. Then $P^2 = P$ because for every $x \in H$ and $Px = y \in Y$ we have; $P^2x = Py = y$, hence $P^2x = Px \Rightarrow P^2 = P$ is idempotent. Now consider any two vectors $x_1, x_2 \in H$, from decomposition we can write $x_1 = y_1 + z_1$ and $x_2 = y_2 + z_2$, where $y_1, y_2 \in Y = R(P)$ and $z_1, z_2 \in Y^{\perp} = N(P)$. Then, $\langle y_1, z_2 \rangle = \langle y_2, z_1 \rangle = 0$, because $Y \perp Y^{\perp}$. We show that P is self-adjoint; $\langle Px_1, x_2 \rangle = \langle y_1, y_2 + z_2 \rangle = \langle y_1, y_2 \rangle = \langle y_1 + z_1, y_2 \rangle = \langle x_1, Px_2 \rangle$. Hence, P is self-adjoint.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that *P* is self-adjoint and idempotent, denoted *P*(*H*) by *Y*. Then for every x ∈ H

$$x = Px + (I - P)x$$

Orthogonality; $Y = P(H) \perp (I - P)(H)$, follows from:

$$\langle Px, (I-P)v \rangle = \langle x, P(I-P)v \rangle = \langle x, Pv - P^2v \rangle = \langle x, 0 \rangle = 0.$$

Let, Q = (I - P), $y \subset \ker Q$ can see from $QPx = Px - P^2x = QPx = 0$. Next, $y \supset \ker Q$, $Qx = x - Px \Rightarrow Qx = x$. Hence $Y = \{0\}$, since $\{0\}$ is closed, so inverse image $\{x: QPx = 0\} = \ker Q$. Hence Y is closed subspace of H.

Therefore, Y is projection on H.

4.1.2. Theorem

For any projection Y on a Hilbert space H.

- $\langle Px, x \rangle = ||Px||^2$
- $0 \le P \le I$
- $||P|| \le 1$; ||P|| = 1 if $P(H) \ne \{0\}$

Proof.

- $\langle Px, x \rangle = \langle P^2x, x \rangle = \langle Px, Px \rangle = ||Px||^2$
- $0 \le ||Px||^2 = \langle Px, Px \rangle = \langle Px, x \rangle \le ||x||^2 = \langle x, x \rangle = I \Rightarrow 0 \le P \le I$
- By using Schwarz inequality;

$$\langle Px, x \rangle \le ||x||^2$$

$$||Px||^2 \le ||x||^2$$
, since $||x|| \ne 0$

$$||P|| \le 1, \forall x \in H \tag{1}$$

$$||Px|| = ||P(Px)|| \le ||P|| ||Px||$$

$$||Px|| \le ||P|| ||Px||$$
, since $||P|| \ne 0$

$$1 \le \|P\| \dots \tag{2}$$

By combining (1) and (2) we get; ||P|| = 1

4.1.3. Theorem

Products projections on Hilbert space H are satisfying the following two conditions:

- $P = P_1 P_2$ is projection on H if and only if the projections P_1 and P_2 commute. Then P projects H onto $Y = Y_1 \cap Y_2$ where $Y_j = P_j(H)$.
- Two closed subspaces Y and V of H are orthogonal if and only if the corresponding projections satisfy $P_Y P_V = 0$.

Proof. I(\Leftarrow). Suppose that P_1 and P_2 commute, then show that P is self-adjiont and idempotent $P^* = (P_1P_2)^* = P_2^*P_1^* = P_2P_1 = P_1P_2 = P$. Hence $P^* = P$, then P is self-adjoint. $P^2 = (P_1P_2)^2 = (P_1P_2)(P_1P_2) = P_1^2P_2^2 = P_1P_2 = P_2P_1 = P$. Then P is idempotent. Hence P is projection. Then $Px = P_1(P_2x) = P_2(P_1x) = x$, $\forall x \in H$. Since P_1 projects P_2 0 onto P_2 1, we must have:

$$Px = x = P_1(P_2x) \in Y_1$$

$$Px = x = P_2(P_1x) \in Y_2$$

 $Px \in Y_1 \cap Y_2$ since $x \in H$ was arbitrary. This show P projects H into $Y = Y_1 \cap Y_2$. Actually P projects H

onto Y. Indeed, if $y \in Y$, then $y \in Y_1$ and $y \in Y_2$. $Py = P_1P_2y = P_1y = y$. Then $y \in Y_1 \cap Y_2$, $y \in Y$ Hence $Y = Y_1 \cap Y_2$.

 $(\Rightarrow) \text{ . Suppose } P=P_1P_2 \text{ is projection defined on } H \text{ . It must be self-adjoint } \langle Py_1,y_2\rangle = \langle P_1P_2y_1,y_2\rangle = \langle P_2y_1,P_2y_1\rangle = \langle y_1,P_2P_1y_2\rangle = \langle y_1,P_2y_1\rangle = \langle y_1,P_2P_1y_2\rangle = \langle y_1,P_2P_1\rangle.$

II (\Rightarrow) . If $Y \perp V$, then $Y \cap V = \{0\}$ and $P_Y P_V x = \{0\}$ for all $x \in H$ by part (a), so that $P_Y P_V = 0$.

 (\Leftarrow) . If $P_Y P_V = 0$, then for every $y \in Y$ and $v \in V$. We obtain $\langle y, v \rangle = \langle P_Y y, P_V v \rangle = \langle y, P_Y P_V v \rangle = \langle y, 0 \rangle = 0$. Hence $Y \perp V$. ■

3.1.5 Theorem

Let P_1 and P_2 be projections on Hilbert space H. Then:

- The sum $P = P_1 + P_2$ is a projection on H if and only if $Y_1 = P_1(H)$ and $Y_2 = P_2(H)$ are orthogonal.
- If $P = P_1 + P_2$ is a projection, P projects H onto $Y = Y_1 \oplus Y_2$.

Proof. $I(\Rightarrow)$. Suppose that $P = P_1 + P_2$ is a projection.

Let
$$x \in Y_1 \Rightarrow ||x||^2 \ge ||(P_1 + P_2)x||^2 = \langle (P_1 + P_2)x, (P_1 + P_2)x \rangle$$

$$= \langle (P_1 + P_2)^2 x, x \rangle = \langle (P_1 + P_2)x, x \rangle$$

$$= \langle P_1 x, x \rangle + \langle P_2 x, x \rangle$$

$$= ||x||^2 + \langle P_2^2 x, x \rangle$$

$$= ||x||^2 + ||P_2 x||^2 \Rightarrow ||P_2 x|| = 0.$$
For any $y \in Y_2$ and $\in Y_1 \langle x, y \rangle = \langle x, P_2 y \rangle = \langle P_2 x, y \rangle = \langle 0, y \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow \langle x, y, \rangle = 0$. Therefore $Y_1 \perp Y_2$.

 (\Leftarrow) If $Y_1 \perp Y_2$, then $P_2P_1 = P_1P_2 = 0$ which implies $P^2 = P$. Since P_2 and P_1 are self-adjoint, so is $P_1 + P_2$. Hence P is projection.

II. We determine the closed subspace $Y \subset H$ onto which P projects. Since $P_1 + P_2$, $\forall x \in H$. $y = Px = P_1x + P_2x$. Here $P_1x \in Y_1$ and $P_2x \in Y_2$ hence, $y \in Y_1 \oplus Y_2$.

So that;

$$Y \subset Y_1 \oplus Y_2$$
. (1)

We show that $Y \supset Y_1 \oplus Y_2$. Let $v \in Y_1 \oplus Y_2$ be arbitrary, then $v = y_1 + y_2$, here $y_1 \in Y_1$ and $y_2 \in Y_2$ applying in P.Using $Y_1 \perp Y_2$, thus we obtain: $pv = p_1(y_1 + y_2) + p_2(y_1 + y_2) = p_1y_1$. Hence,

$$v \in Y \text{ and } Y \supset Y_1 \oplus Y_2 \tag{2}$$

Combining (1) and (2) we have;

$$Y = Y_1 \oplus Y_2$$

4.2 Further Properties of Projections

4.2.1 Theorem

Let P_1 and P_2 be projections defined on a Hilbert Space H. Denote by $Y_1 = P_1(H)$ and $Y_2 = P_2(H)$ the subspace onto which H is projected by P_1 and P_2 , and let $\mathcal{N}(P_1)$ and $\mathcal{N}(P_2)$ be the Null space of these projection. Then the following conditions are equivalent.

- $P_2P_1 = P_1P_2 = P_1$
- $Y_1 \subset Y_2 = P_1(H) \subset P_2(H)$
- $\mathcal{N}(P_1) \supset \mathcal{N}(P_2)$
- $||P_1x|| \le ||P_2x||$
- $P_1 \leq P_2$

Proof. (ii \Rightarrow i). Suppose $Y_1 \subset Y_2 = P_1(H) \subset P_2(H)$. We want show that $P_2P_1 = P_1P_2 = P_1$. For every $x \in H$, we have $P_1x \in Y_1$. Hence, $P_1x \in Y_2$ by (ii.) $P_2(P_1x) = P_1x \Rightarrow P_2P_1 = P_1 \Rightarrow (P_2P_1)^* = P_1^*P_2^* = P_1P_2 = P_2P_1 = P_1$. Since, P_1 is self-adjoint. Therefore, $P_1 = P_1P_2 = P_1$.

(i \Rightarrow iv). Suppose $P_2P_1 = P_1P_2 = P_1$. We want show that $||P_1x|| \leq ||P_2x||$ for all $x \in H$

- $\Rightarrow \langle P_1 x, x \rangle \leq ||x||^2$, since $P_1 x = x$
- $\Rightarrow ||P_1x||^2 \le ||x||^2$, for all $x \in H$
- $\Rightarrow ||P_1||^2 ||x||^2 \le ||x||^2, ||x|| \ne 0$. We have $||P_1|| \le 1$ by (1) $\langle Px, x \rangle = ||Px||^2$
- $\Rightarrow ||P_1x|| = ||P_1P_2x|| \le ||P_1|| ||P_2x|| \le ||P_2x||.$

Therefore, $||P_1x|| \le ||P_2x||$

(iv \Rightarrow v). Suppose $||P_1x|| \le ||P_2x||$. We want show that $P_1 \le P_2$. From $\langle Px, x \rangle = ||Px||^2$ and (iv.) in present theorem we have for all $x \in H$. $\langle P_1x, x \rangle = ||P_1x||^2 \le ||P_2x||^2 = \langle P_2x, x \rangle$

Therefore, $P_1 \leq P_2$ by definition of positive operators.

 $(v. \Rightarrow iii.)$ Suppose $P_1 \leq P_2$. We want show that $\mathcal{N}(P_1) \supset \mathcal{N}(P_2)$. Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(P_2) \Longrightarrow P_2 x = 0$ by (iii.) sect. 2 and (v.) in the present theorem, $||P_1 x||^2 = \langle P_1 x, x \rangle \leq \langle P_2 x, x \rangle = \langle 0, x \rangle = 0$. Hence, $P_1 x = 0, x \in \mathcal{N}(P_1)$. Therefore, $\mathcal{N}(P_1) \supset \mathcal{N}(P_2)$.

4.2.2. Theorem

 $Let P_1 \& P_2$ be Projections on a Hilbert space H. Then

- The difference $P = P_2 P_1$ is a projection if and only if $Y_1 \subset Y_2$ where $Y_j = P_j(H)$.
- If $P = P_2 P_1$ is a projection, P projects H onto Y, where Y is the orthogonal complement of Y_1 in Y_2 .

Proof.(\Rightarrow) Suppose that $P = P_2 - P_1$ is a projection. We want to show that $Y_1 \subset Y_2$. If $P = P_2 - P_1$ is a projection. $P = P^2 \Rightarrow P_2 - P_1 = (P_2 - P_1)^2 = P_2^2 - P_2 P_1 - P_1 P_2 + P_1^2$.

$$P_2 + P_2 P_1 = 2P_1 *$$

by theorem (2.2) (i.). Multiply both sides by P_2 we have:

$$P_2P_1P_2 + P_2P_1 = 2P_2P_1$$

$$P_1P_2 + P_2P_1P_2 = 2 P_1P_2$$

Hence $P_2P_1P_2 = P_2P_1$, $P_2P_1P_2 = P_1P_2$ and by (*)

$$P_1 = P_1 P_2 = P_1 **$$

Therefore, $Y_1 \subseteq Y_2$.

(⇐) Suppose $Y_1 \subset Y_2$, where $Y_j = P_j(H) \Rightarrow P^2 = (P_2 - P_1)^2 = P_2^2 - P_2 P_1 - P_1 P_2 + P_1^2 = P_2 - P_1$. Therefore, P is idempotent. $\Rightarrow P^* = (P_2 - P_1)^* = P_2^* - P_1^* = P_2 - P_1$. Therefore P is self-adjoint.

 \therefore P is projection.

(b) Y = P(H) consists of all vectors of the form

(8)
$$Y = Px = P_2x - P_1x$$
 for all $x \in H$

Since
$$P_2P_1 = P_1P_2 = P_1$$
 implies $Y_1 \subset Y_2$

$$P_2y = P_2^2x - P_2P_1x = P_2x - P_1x = y$$

This show that $y \in Y_2$, also from (8) and (1)

$$P_1 y = P_1 P_2 x - P_1^2 x = P_1 x - P_1 x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow P_1 y = 0$$

$$y \in \mathcal{N}(P_1) = Y_1^{\perp}$$

Together $y \in V$ where $V = Y_2 \cap Y_1^{\perp}$, since the projection of H onto Y_1^{\perp} is $I - P_1$, every $v \in V$

is the form

(9)
$$v = (I - P_1) + y_2, (y_2 \in Y_2)$$

Using again, $P_2P_1 = P_1$, we obtain from (9), since $P_2y_2 = y_2$

$$Pv = (P_2 - P_1)(I - P_1)y_2$$

$$= (P_2 - P_2 P_1 - P_1 + P_1^2) y_2$$

$$= (P_2 - P_2 P_1 - P_1 + P_1)y_2 = (P_2 - P_1)y_2$$

$$= P_2 y_2 - P_1 y_2 = y_2 - P_1 y_2 = v$$

 $\therefore Pv = v$ so that $v \in Y$, since $v \in V$ was arbitrary

$$\therefore Y \supseteq V$$

$$\therefore Y = P(H) = V = Y_2 \cap Y_1^{\perp}$$

4.2.3. Theorem

Let P_n is a monotone increasing sequence of projection P_n defined on a Hilbert Space H. Then

- (P_n) is strongly operator convergent, say $P_n x \to P x$ for every $x \in H$, and the limit operator P is a projection defined on H.
- P projects H onto
- $P(H) = \overline{\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n(H)}$
- P has the null space

$$\mathcal{N}(P) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}(P_n)$$

Proof a) Let m < n, by assumption, $P_m \le P_n$, so that we have $P_m(H) \subset P_n(H)$ and $P_n - P_m$ is projection. Hence for every fixed $x \in H$, we obtain by 2.1.2

$$||P_n x - P_m x||^2 = ||(P_n - P_m)x||^2 = \langle (P_n - P_m)x, x \rangle = ||P_n x||^2 - ||P_m x||^2.$$

Now $||P_n|| \le 1$ by 3.1.2, so that $||P_nx|| \le ||x||$ for all n. Hence, $(||P_nx||)$ is bounded a sequence of numbers. $(||P_nx||)$ is also monotone by 3.2.1. Since (P_n) is monotone. Hence $\lim_{n\to\infty} P_nx \to Px$ is converges. Since (P_nx) is Cauchy.

$$||P_n x - P_m x|| = ||(P_n - P_m)x|| \le ||P_n - P_m|| ||x||$$

 $\implies \lim_{n\to\infty} P_n x = Px$, since *H* is complete.

The linearity of P.

$$P(\alpha x + \beta y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P_n(\alpha x + \beta y)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} (P_n \alpha x + P_n \beta y)$$

$$= \alpha \lim_{n\to\infty} P_n x + \beta \lim_{n\to\infty} P_n y$$

$$= \alpha P x + \beta P y$$

$$\Rightarrow \|P_n x\| \le \|P_n\| \|x\| \Rightarrow \|P_n x\| \le \|P_n\| \|x\|$$

$$\Rightarrow ||P_n x|| \le ||x||$$

 $\Rightarrow ||p_n|| \le ||x||$. Therefor P_n is bounded,

$$\langle P_n x, x \rangle = \langle x, P_n^* x \rangle = \langle x, P_n x \rangle$$
 , therefore P_n is self-ad joint, and $\langle P_n^2 x, x \rangle = \langle P_n x, P_n x \rangle = \langle x, P_n x \rangle = \langle P_n x, x \rangle$, hence P_n is projection.

b). We determine P(H). Let m < n. Then $P_m \le P_n$, that is $P_n - P_m \ge 0$ and $\langle (P_n - P_m)x, x \rangle \ge 0$. The continuity of inner product

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\langle (P_n-P_m)x,x\rangle = \lim_{n\to\infty}\langle x,(P_n-P_m)x\rangle$$

$$=\lim_{n\to\infty}\langle x, (P-P_m)x\rangle$$

$$\therefore \langle (P-P_m)x, x \rangle \ge 0.$$

That is $P_m \leq P$ and 3.2.1 yields $P_m(H) \subset P(H)$ for every m. Hence $\bigcup P_m(H) \subset P(H)$. Furthermore, for every m and for every $x \in H$, we have, $P_m x \in P_m(H) \subset \bigcup P_m(H)$. Since $P_m x \to Px$, $Px \in \overline{\bigcup P_m(H)}$. Hence $P(H) \subset \overline{\bigcup p_m(H)}$

$$\cup P_m(H) \subset P(H) \subset \overline{\cup P_m(H)}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(H) = \mathcal{N}(I - P) = \{0\}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(H) = \{0\}$$
is closed

$$\therefore P(H) = \overline{\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} P_m(H)}$$

c). We determine $\mathcal{N}(P)$

$$\mathcal{N}(P) = P(H)^{\perp} \subset P_n(H)^{\perp}$$
 for all n . Since $P(H) \supset P_n(H)$ by part (b). Hence $\mathcal{N}(P) \subset P_n(H)^{\perp} = \bigcap \mathcal{N}(P_n)$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(P) \subset \cap \mathcal{N}(P_n) \tag{1}$$

On other hand, if $x \in \cap \mathcal{N}(P_n)$, then $x \in \mathcal{N}(P_n)$ for all n. So that $P_n x = 0$ and $P_n x \to Px \implies Px = 0$. That is $x \in \mathcal{N}(P)$. Since $x \in \mathcal{N}(P_n)$ was arbitrary.

$$\cap \mathcal{N}(P_n) \subset \mathcal{N}(P) \tag{2}$$

By combining (1) and (2) we gets

$$\mathcal{N}(P) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}(P_n)$$

Example 6

Let $P: \mathbb{C}^3 \to \mathbb{C}^3$ be the linear operator defined by $P(x,y,z) = (x,y,0), \forall x,y,z \in \mathbb{C}^3$. Then P is orthogonal projection.

Solution

Since C^3 is finite dimensional $P \in B(C^3)$ and clealy $P^2 = P$.

Follows from $\langle P(x,y,z), (u,v,w) \rangle = x\overline{u} + y\overline{v} = \langle (x,y,z), P(u,v,w) \rangle$. Then P is self-adjoint. Therefore P is projection. Orthogonal projection of P has: $Imp = \{(x,y,0): x,y \in \mathbb{C}\}$ orthogonal projection P matrix representation:

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In generally a $n \times n$ diagonal matrix whose diagonal element either 0 or 1 is the matrix of an orthogonal projection $B(C^3)$.

5. SPECTRAL FAMILY

5.1.1 Definition

A one-parameter family of projection is called spectral family. Spectral family can be obtained from the finite dimension case as follows. Let $T: H \to H$ be a self-adjoint linear operator on a unitary space $H = \mathbb{C}^n$. Then T is bounded and we may choose a basis for H and represent T by a Hermitian matrix which we denote simply by T. The spectrum of the operator consists of the eigenvalues of that matrix which are real. For simplicity let us assume that the matrix T has n different eigenvalues $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \lambda_3 < \dots < \lambda_n$. Then theorem 1.1.1(6) implies that T has an orthonormal set of n eigenvectors $x_1, x_2 \dots x_n$ where x_j corresponding to λ_j and we write these vectors as column vectors. This a basis for H, so that every $x \in H$ has a unique representation

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_i x_i, \gamma_i = \langle x, x_i \rangle = x^T \overline{x_i}$$
 (1)

In (1) we obtain the second formula from the first one by taking the inner product $\langle x, x_k \rangle$, where x_k is fixed and using the orthonormality. The essential fact in (1) is that x_j is an eigen vectors of T, so that we have $Tx_j = \lambda_j x_j$, consequently, if we apply T to (1) we simply obtain

$$Tx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \gamma_i x_i \tag{2}$$

Looking at (1) more closely, we see that we can define an operator

$$P_i: H \to H$$
 (3)

 $x \mapsto \gamma_j x_j \Rightarrow p_j x = \gamma_j x_j = \langle x, x_j \rangle x_j . P_j$ is the projection (orthogonal projection) of H onto the eigenspace of T corresponding to λ_i . Formula (1) can now be written,

$$\chi = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i \chi \tag{4}$$

Hence, $I = \sum_{j=1}^{n} P_j$. Where *I* is identity operator on *H*. Formula (2) becomes

$$Tx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i P_i x \tag{5}$$

Hence $T = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j P_j$. This is representation of T in terms of projection. Instead of the projection P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n themselves we take sums of such projection. More precisely, for any real λ we define,

$$E_{\lambda} = \sum_{\lambda_i \le \lambda} P_i \quad (\lambda \in \mathbb{R}) \tag{6}$$

Hence $E_{\lambda}^{2} = E_{\lambda}$, moreover E_{λ} is symmetric operator. This is one-operator family of projection, λ being the parameter. From (6) we see that for any λ the operator E_{λ} is the projection of H onto the subspace V_{λ} spanned by all those x_{j} for which $\lambda_{j} \leq \lambda$ it follows that $V_{\lambda} \subset V_{\mu}$ ($\lambda \leq \mu$). As λ traverse \mathcal{R} in the positive sence E_{λ} grows from 0 to I. The growth occurring at the eigenvalues of T and E_{λ} remaining unchanged for λ in any interval that is free of eigenvalues.

Properties of E_{λ}

- $E_{\lambda}E_{\mu} = E_{\mu}E_{\lambda} = E_{\lambda}$, if $\lambda < \mu$
- $E_{\lambda} = 0$, if $\lambda < \lambda_1$
- $E_{\lambda} = I$, if $\lambda \ge \lambda_n$

• $E_{\lambda+o} = \lim_{\mu \to \lambda+o} E_{\mu} = E_{\lambda}$

Definition

A real spectral family (or real decomposition unity) is a one parameter family $\mathcal{E} = (E_{\lambda}), \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ of projection E_{λ} defined on Hilbert space H (of any dimension) which depends on a real parameter λ and such that,

$$E_{\lambda} \le E_{\mu} \tag{7}$$

Hence, $E_{\lambda}E_{\mu} = E_{\mu}E_{\lambda} = E_{\lambda}$, $\lambda < \mu$

$$\lim_{\lambda \to -\infty} E_{\lambda} x = 0 \tag{8a}$$

$$\lim_{\lambda \to +\infty} E_{\lambda} x = x \tag{8b}$$

$$E_{\lambda+o}x = \lim_{\mu \to \lambda+o} E_{\mu}x = E_{\lambda}x \ (\forall \ x \in H)$$

$$\tag{9}$$

We see from the definition that a real spectral family can be regarded as a mapping $R \to \mathcal{B}(H,H)$, $\lambda \to E_{\lambda}$; Strongly operator continuous from right. To each $\lambda \in R$ there is corresponds a projection $E_{\lambda} \in \mathcal{B}(H,H)$, where $\mathcal{B}(H,H)$ is the space of all bounded linear operators from H into H. We assume, for simplicity, that the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ of T are all different and $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2, < \dots < \lambda_n$. Then we have,

$$E_{\lambda_1} = P_1$$

$$E_{\lambda_2} = P_1 + P_2$$

$$E_{\lambda_3} = P_1 + P_2 + P_3$$

:

$$E\lambda_n = P_1 + P_2 + \dots + P_n.$$

Hence, conversely;

$$P_1 = E_{\lambda_1}$$

$$P_i = E\lambda_i - E\lambda_{i-1}$$
 j=2, ...,n

Since E_{λ} remains the same for λ in the interval $[\lambda_{j-1}, \lambda_j]$, this can be written $P_j = E\lambda_j - E\lambda_{j-0}$. Now equation (4) becomes $x = \sum_{j=1}^n P_j x = \sum_{j=1}^n (E\lambda_j - E\lambda_{j-0}) x$ and equation (5) becomes

$$Tx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i P_i x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i (E\lambda_i - E\lambda_{i-0}) x.$$

If we drop the x and write $\delta E_{\lambda} = E_{\lambda} - E_{\lambda-0}$. Since $E_{\lambda} = \sum_{\lambda_i \leq \lambda} P_i$. We arrive at

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \delta E \lambda_i \tag{10}$$

This is the spectral representation of the self-adjoint linear operator T with eigenvalues $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2, < \dots < \lambda_n$ on that n-dimensional Hilbert space H. The representation shows that for

any
$$x, y \in H$$
,

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \langle \delta E_{\lambda_i} x, y \rangle \tag{11}$$

We note that this may be written as a Riemann-stieltjes integral

Where $w(\lambda) = \langle E_{\lambda} x, y \rangle$.

5.2 Spectral Family of a Bounded Self-Adjiont Linear Operator

To define Spectral family (ε) we need the operator $T_{\lambda} = T - \lambda I$ from resolvent theorem $||T_{\lambda}x|| \ge c||x||$. Then $\mathcal{B}_{\lambda}^2 = T_{\lambda}^2$, the positive square root of T_{λ}^2 denote by \mathcal{B}_{λ}^2 . $\mathcal{B}_{\lambda} = (T_{\lambda}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |T_{\lambda}|$ and operator $T_{\lambda}^+ = \frac{1}{2}(\mathcal{B}_{\lambda} + T_{\lambda})$ which is called positive part of T_{λ} . The spectral family ε of T is then defined by $\varepsilon = (E_{\lambda}), \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, where E_{λ} is the projection of H onto the null space $\mathcal{N}(T_{\lambda}^+)$ of T_{λ}^+ . We proceed step wise and consider at first the operator:

$$\mathcal{B} = (T^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(Positive square root of T^2),

$$T^+ = \frac{1}{2}(B+T)$$
 (Positive part of T),

$$T^- = \frac{1}{2}(B-T)$$
 (Negative part of T),

and the projection of H onto the null space of T^+ which we denote by E.

$$E: H \longrightarrow V = \mathcal{N}(T^+) = \ker (\lambda I - T)^+$$

$$T = T^+ - T^- \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left(\mathcal{B} + T \right) - \frac{1}{2} (\mathcal{B} - T) = T^+ - T^-$$

$$\Longrightarrow \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{B} + \frac{1}{2}T - \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{B} + \frac{1}{2}T = T^+ - T^-$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $T = T^+ - T^-$ by subtraction

$$\mathcal{B} = T^+ + T^- \Longrightarrow T^+ + T^- = \frac{1}{2} (\mathcal{B} + T) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathcal{B} - T).$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{B} + \frac{1}{2}T + \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{B} - \frac{1}{2}T.$$

$$=\mathcal{B}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{B} = T^+ + T^-$$
 by addition.

5.2.1 Lemma

The operators just defined have the following properties

- \mathcal{B} , T^+ and T^- are bounded and self-adjoint
- \mathcal{B} , T^+ and T^- commute with every bounded linear operator that T commute with; in particular
 - $\mathcal{B}T = T\mathcal{B} T^{+}T = TT^{+}T^{-}T = TT^{-}T^{+}T^{-} = T^{-}T^{+}$
- E commutes with every bounded self-adjoint linear operator that T commute with; in particular

- $ET = TE \ EB = BE$
- Furthermore

•
$$T^+T^- = 0 \ T^-T^+ = 0$$

•
$$T^+E = ET^+ = 0 \ T^-E = ET^- = T^-$$

$$\bullet \quad TE = -T^- \ T(I - E) = T^+$$

•
$$T^+ \ge 0$$
 $T^- \ge 0$

Proof, a

• Claim 1 B is bounded

Proof of Claim 1

$$\begin{split} \|\mathcal{B}\|^2 &= \langle \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B} \rangle \leq \langle T^+ + T^-, T^+ + T^- \rangle \\ &= T^+ T^+ + T^+ T^- + T^- T^+ + T^- T^- \\ &\leq \|T^+\|^2 + T^+ T^- + T^- T^+ + \|T^-\|^2 \\ &= \|T^+\|^2 + 2Re\langle T^+, T^- \rangle + \|T^-\|^2 \\ &\leq \|T^+\|^2 + 2|\langle T^+, T^- \rangle| + \|T^-\|^2 \\ &\leq (\|T^+\| + \|T^-\|)^2 \\ \|\mathcal{B}\| &\leq \|T^+\| + \|T^-\| \end{split}$$

 $\therefore \mathcal{B}$ is bounded \Leftrightarrow continuous. Since $\lambda = 1$

Claim 2B is self-adjoint

Proof of Claim 2 Since $\mathcal{B} = T^+ + T^-$

$$\langle \mathcal{B}x, y \rangle = \langle (T^+ + T^-)x, y \rangle = \langle x, (T^+ + T^-)^*y \rangle$$

= $\langle x, \mathcal{B}^*y \rangle$
 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}^*$

 $\therefore \mathcal{B}$ is self-adjoint

• Suppose TS = ST. Then $T^2S = TST = ST^2$ and $\mathcal{B}S = S\mathcal{B}$ follows from theorem (positive square root) $T^+S = \frac{1}{2}(\mathcal{B}S + TS) = \frac{1}{2}(S\mathcal{B} + ST) = ST^+$. Therefore, $T^+S = ST^+ \Rightarrow T^-S = ST^- \Rightarrow T^-S = \frac{1}{2}(\mathcal{B}S - TS) = \frac{1}{2}(S\mathcal{B} - ST) = ST^-$.

Then show that $T^+T^- = T^-T^+$.

$$T^{+}T^{-} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathcal{B}S + TS).\frac{1}{2}(\mathcal{B}S - TS) = \frac{1}{2}(S\mathcal{B} - ST).\frac{1}{2}(S\mathcal{B} + ST) = T^{-}T^{+} \Rightarrow T^{+}T^{-} = T^{-}T^{+}.$$

• For every $x \in H$ we have $y = Ex \in Y = \mathcal{N}(T^+) = Ker(T^+)$. Hence $T^+y = 0$ and $ST^+Y = S0 = 0$. From TS=ST and (b) we have $ST^+ = T^+S$ and $T^+SEx = T^+Sy = ST^+y = S0 = 0 \Rightarrow T^+SEx = 0$, hence $SEx \in Y$. since E projects H onto Y. We thus have ESEx = SEx. For every $x \in H$.that is ESE = SE. A projection is self adjoint. $ES = E^*S^* = (SE)^* = (ESE)^* = E^*S^*E^* = ESE = SE$. Therefore, ES = SE.

We prove (3) - (6)

Proof (3)

From $B = (T^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \Rightarrow B^2 = T^2$, and also BT = TB by (6) Hence $T^+T^- = T^-T^+ = \frac{1}{2}(B-T).\frac{1}{2}(B+T) = \frac{1}{4}(B^2 + BT - TB - T^2) = 0 \Rightarrow T^+T^- = T^-T^+ = 0$

Proof (4)

Let $T^+Ex=0$ \forall $x\in H$, since T^+ is self adjoint. We have $ET^+x=T^+Ex=0$ by (3) and (c). Therefore, $ET^+=T^+E=0$. Furthermore $T^+T^-x=0$ by (8), so that $T^-x\in\mathcal{N}(T^+)=\ker(T^+)$. Hence $ET^-x=T^-Ex=T^-x$ \forall $x\in H$. Therefore, $ET^-=T^-E=T^-$

Proof (5)

From a, b and (4), since $T = T^+ - T^-$ we have $TE = (T^+ - T^-)E = T^+E - T^-E = -T^-E$. $TE = -T^-$, since T^- is self adjoint. Again by (4) $T(I - E) = T - TE = T + T^- = T^+$. Therefore, $T(I - E) = T^+$.

Proof (11) By (4) and (b) $T^- = ET^- + ET^+ = E(T^- + T^+) = EB \ge 0$, since E and B are self-adjoint and $E \ge 0$ and $B \ge 0$ by definition of positive operators.

$$T^+=B-T^-=B-EB=(I-E)B\geqq 0$$

 $T^+ \ge 0$, since $I - E \ge 0$ and $B \ge 0$

In second step instead of T we consider $T_{\lambda} = T - \lambda I$

Instead of B, T^+, T^- and E we now have to take $B_{\lambda} = (T_{\lambda}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}, T_{\lambda}^+ = \frac{1}{2}(B_{\lambda} + T_{\lambda})$. $T_{\lambda}^- = \frac{1}{2}(B_{\lambda} - T_{\lambda})$ and projection $E_{\lambda}: H \to Y_{\lambda} = \mathcal{N}(T_{\lambda}^+)$.

5.2.2. Lemma

The previous lemma remains true if we replace T, B, T^+, T^-, E by $T_{\lambda}, B_{\lambda}, T_{\lambda}^+, T_{\lambda}^-, E_{\lambda}$ Respectively, where λ is real, moreover, for any real κ . λ , μ , v, τ following operator all commute: T_{κ} , B_{λ} , $T_{\mu}^+, T_{v}^-, E_{\tau}$

5.2.1. Theorem

Let $T: H \to H$ is a bounded self-adjoint linear operator on a complex Hilbert space H. Furthermore, let $E_{\lambda}(\lambda \text{ is } real)$ be the projection of H onto the null space $Y_{\lambda} = \mathcal{N}(T_{\lambda}^{+})$ of the positive part T_{λ}^{+} of $T_{\lambda} = T - \lambda I$. then $\varepsilon = (E_{\lambda})_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}}$ is spectral family on the interval $[m, M] \subset \mathbb{R}$, where m and M are given by (1) see section 3.2.

Proof. We shall prove $\lambda < \mu \Rightarrow E_{\lambda} < E_{\mu}$

$$\lambda < m \Rightarrow E_{\lambda} = 0.$$

$$\lambda \geq M \Rightarrow E_{\lambda} = I.$$

$$\mu \to \lambda + 0 \Rightarrow E_{\mu} x \to E_{\lambda} x.$$

In the proof we use part of **Lemma 5.2.2 formulated for** T_{λ} , T_{μ} , T_{λ}^{+} etc instead of T, T^{+} etc

$$T_{\mu}^{+}T_{\mu}^{-}=0$$

$$T_{\lambda}E_{\lambda} = -T_{\lambda}^{-}T_{\lambda}(I - E_{\lambda}) = T_{\lambda}^{+}T_{\mu}E_{\mu} = -T_{\mu}^{-}$$

$$T_{\lambda}^{+} \geq 0$$
 $T_{\lambda}^{-} \geq 0$ $T_{\mu}^{+} \geq 0$ $T_{\mu}^{-} \geq 0$

Proof (7)

Let $\lambda < \mu$ we have $T_{\lambda} = T_{\lambda}^+ - T_{\lambda}^- \leq T_{\lambda}^+$ because $-T^- \leq 0$. Hence $T_{\lambda}^+ - T_{\mu} \geq T_{\lambda} - T_{\mu} = (\mu - \lambda)I \geq 0$. $T_{\lambda}^+ - T_{\mu}$ is self-adjiont and commutes with T_{μ}^+ by Lemma of 5.2.2 and $T_{\mu}^+ \geq 0$. Theorem 3.3.1 $T_{\mu}^+ (T_{\lambda}^+ - T_{\mu}^-) = T_{\mu}^+ (T_{\lambda}^+ - T_{\mu}^+ + T_{\mu}^-) \geq 0$. Here $T_{\mu}^+ T_{\mu}^- = 0$. Hence $T_{\mu}^+ T_{\lambda}^+ \geq T_{\mu}^{-2} \forall x \in H$. $\langle T_{\mu}^+ T_{\lambda}^+ x, x \rangle \geq \langle T_{\mu}^{-2} x, x \rangle = \|T_{\mu}^+ x\|^2 \geq 0$. Since T_{μ}^+ is self-adjoint. This show that $T_{\lambda}^+ x = 0 \Rightarrow T_{\mu}^+ x = 0$. Hence $\mathcal{N}(T_{\lambda}^+) \subset \mathcal{N}(T_{\mu}^+)$.

$$E_{\lambda} < E_{\mu}$$
 for $\lambda < \mu$

Proof (8)

Suppose not $E_{\lambda} \neq 0 \Rightarrow E_{\lambda}z \neq 0$ for $\exists z$, we set $x = E_{\lambda}z$. Then $E_{\lambda}x = E_{\lambda}^2z = E_{\lambda}z = x$, we may assume ||x|| = 1.

 $\langle T_{\lambda}E_{\lambda}x,x\rangle = \langle T_{\lambda}x,x\rangle = \langle Tx,x\rangle - \lambda \geq \inf_{\|\tilde{x}\|=1}\langle T\tilde{x},\tilde{x}\rangle - \lambda = m-\lambda > 0, \text{ contradiction the fact that } \lambda > m \ .$ $T_{\lambda}E_{\lambda} = -T_{\lambda}^{-} \leq 0.$

$$T_{\lambda}E_{\lambda}=0 \Rightarrow E_{\lambda}=0$$

$$\lambda < m \Rightarrow E_{\lambda} = 0$$

Proof (9)

Suppose $\lambda > M$ but $E_{\lambda} \neq I$ so that $I - E_{\lambda} \neq 0$. Then $(I - E_{\lambda})x = x$ for some x of norm 1. Hence $\langle T_{\lambda}(I - E_{\lambda})x, x \rangle = \langle T_{\lambda}x, x \rangle = \langle T_{\lambda}x, x \rangle - \lambda \leq \sup_{\|\tilde{x}\|} \langle \langle T\tilde{x}, \tilde{x} \rangle - \lambda \rangle = M - \lambda < 0$. Then there is contradiction.

$$T_{\lambda}(I - E_{\lambda}) = (T_{\lambda}^{+}) \ge 0$$

$$\therefore \ \lambda \geq M \ \Rightarrow \ E_{\lambda} = I$$

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