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Elements of Mathematical foundations of Quantum Mechanics

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ref: Mathematical Methods in QM
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X, Y normed space $\| \cdot \|_X, \| \cdot \|_Y$

- $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ denotes the set of linear maps between X and Y
- $\mathcal{L}(X)$ is a shortcut for $\mathcal{L}(X, X)$

Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$. $D(A) \subseteq X$ is the domain for which A is well-defined and $\text{Ran}(A)$ is its image.

$$A D(A) = \text{Ran}(A) \subseteq Y$$

Moreover, $\text{Ker}(A) := \{ f \in D(A) \mid Af = 0 \}$ denotes the Kernel of A .

PRO

- A is injective iff $\text{Ker}(A) = \{0\}$.
- A is invertible if it is injective and $\text{Ran} A = Y$
- An invertible operator is boundedly invertible if it is surjective.
- $\mathcal{L}(X, \mathbb{C})$ is the space of linear functionals defined in X , according to our definitions. This space is denoted also by X^* , the dual of X .

THEO (Hahn-Banach)

Given $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ with $D(A) \subset X$, there always exists $\tilde{A} \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ satisfying

- $D(\tilde{A}) \supset D(A)$;
- $\tilde{A}f = Af, \forall f \in D(A)$.

Moreover \tilde{A} can be chosen s.t. $\|\tilde{A}\|_{\mathcal{L}(X, Y)} = \|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(X, Y)}$.

N.B.

These two properties define an extension of A . This theorem ensures that there is always a (norm-preserving) extension

DEF

- $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ is continuous if there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. $\|f - g\|_X \leq \delta$ and $\|Af - Ag\|_Y \leq \epsilon$ regardless the value of $\epsilon > 0$.
- $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ is the set of linear and bounded maps between X and Y .

($\mathcal{B}(X) := \mathcal{B}(X, X)$) The Kernel of any bounded operator is closed.

PRO

For any $A \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ one has $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y) \iff A$ is continuous.

$\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ equipped with the operator norm $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{L}(X, Y)}$ is a Banach space if Y is Banach.

THEO (BLT - Bounded, linear transformation)

- Given $A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ with Y a Banach space and A densely defined ($D(A)$ dense in X) there exists a unique extension of A , denoted by \tilde{A} s.t. $D(\tilde{A}) = X$ and $\|\tilde{A}\| = \|A\|$.

According to this theorem there is no ambiguity in providing a linear, bounded map in a normed space, since there exists only one possible extension that is everywhere well defined.

Any norm must satisfy

- i) $\|f\|_X \geq 0, \forall f \in X$ and $\|f\|_X = 0 \iff f = 0$;
- ii) $\|af\|_X = |a| \|f\|_X, \forall f \in X, a \in \mathbb{C}$;
- iii) $\|f+g\|_X \leq \|f\|_X + \|g\|_X, \forall f, g \in X$

THEO (Banach-Schauder)

(2)

Let X be a Banach space and Y a normed space.

Given a family $\{A_d\} \subseteq \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ satisfying $\|A_d f\| \leq c_f \forall d$ and for any $f \in X$ fixed, then

$$\sup_d \|A_d f\|_{\mathcal{L}(X, Y)} < +\infty.$$

Let h be a vector space over \mathbb{C} . A map $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_h : h \times h \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is said sesquilinear if

$$i) \quad \langle d_1 f_1 + d_2 f_2, g \rangle_h = d_1 \langle f_1, g \rangle_h + d_2 \langle f_2, g \rangle_h \quad \forall d_1, d_2 \in \mathbb{C}, f_1, f_2, g \in h;$$

$$ii) \quad \langle f, d_1 g_1 + d_2 g_2 \rangle_h = d_1 \langle f, g_1 \rangle_h + d_2 \langle f, g_2 \rangle_h \quad \forall d_1, d_2 \in \mathbb{C}, f, g_1, g_2 \in h;$$

DEF

If a sesquilinear form is positive ($\langle f, f \rangle_h \geq 0 \forall f \neq 0$) and symmetric ($\langle f, g \rangle_h = \langle g, f \rangle_h^*$) then it is called an **inner product**. A vector space endowed with a scalar product is said **pre-Hilbert space**.

PRO (Cauchy-Schwarz-Bunjakowski inequality)

Let $f, g \in h$ pre-Hilbert space. Then there holds

$$|\langle f, g \rangle_h| \leq \|f\|_h \cdot \|g\|_h$$

N.B.

A pre-Hilbert space is a normed space since one always has an induced norm defined by $\|v\|_h := \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle_h}$

This proposition implies that, given a convergent sequence $\{f_m\}$, $\|f_m - f\|_h \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{} 0$ we also have $\langle f_m, g \rangle_h \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{} \langle f, g \rangle_h$, namely the map $\langle \cdot, g \rangle$ is continuous for any $g \in h$. Clearly the same holds for $\langle f, \cdot \rangle$.

THEO (Jordan-Von Neumann)

A given norm can be associated to a scalar product iff there holds the **parallelogram identity**, i.e.

$$\|f+g\|_X^2 + \|f-g\|_X^2 = 2\|f\|_X^2 + 2\|g\|_X^2, \quad \forall f, g \in X.$$

If it is the case, then also the **polarization identity** holds

$$\langle f, g \rangle_X := \frac{1}{4} \left(\|f+g\|_X^2 - \|f-g\|_X^2 + \|f+ig\|_X^2 - \|f-ig\|_X^2 \right).$$

DEF

If a pre-Hilbert space is complete according to the norm $\sqrt{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_h}$, then it is called a **Hilbert space**.

THEO (Riesz)

Given a Hilbert space h , for any continuous linear functional $l \in \mathcal{B}(h, \mathbb{C})$ there exists a unique vector $\varphi_l \in h$ s.t.

$$\circ \quad l(\psi) = \langle \varphi_l, \psi \rangle_h$$

$$\circ \quad \|l\|_{h^*} = \|\varphi_l\|_h$$

The weak topology of a Hilbert space is therefore represented in terms of scalar products

$$\boxed{\varphi_m \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{} \varphi} \text{ iff } l(\varphi_m) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} l(\varphi) \quad \forall l \in h^* \text{ or, equivalently } \langle \varphi, \varphi_m \rangle_h \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{} \langle \varphi, \varphi \rangle_h \quad \forall \varphi \in h}$$

weak convergence

N.B. We already saw that norm convergence \Rightarrow weak convergence

③ DEF

A family of vectors $\{\varphi_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subset h$, with h complex Hilbert space is a base (complete, orthonormal system) if

$$\cdot \langle \varphi_i, \varphi_j \rangle_h = \delta_{ij};$$

$$\cdot \overline{\text{Span}\{\varphi_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}} = h \quad \leftarrow$$

A Hilbert space with a countable base is said **separable**.

N.B. This means that $\forall \psi \in h \exists \{c_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathbb{C}$ s.t.

$$\psi = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} c_j \varphi_j$$

$$\text{namely } \|\psi - \sum_{j=0}^m c_j \varphi_j\|_h \xrightarrow{m \rightarrow \infty} 0.$$

$\{c_j\}$ are called Fourier coefficients and there holds

$$c_j = \langle \varphi_j, \psi \rangle_h.$$

PRO (Parseval's identity)

$$\|\psi\|_h^2 = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |c_j|^2.$$

DEF

A bijective operator $U \in \mathcal{B}(h_1, h_2)$ is said to be unitary if $\forall \psi \in h_1$

$$\|U\psi\|_{h_2} = \|\psi\|_{h_1} \text{ or, equivalently} \quad \leftarrow$$

$$\text{if } \langle U\psi, U\psi \rangle_{h_2} = \langle \psi, \psi \rangle_{h_1}$$

for any $\psi, \psi \in h_1$.

The two conditions are equivalent because of the polarization identity.

REMARK

- Every separable (infinite-dimensional), complex Hilbert space is unitarily equivalent to $\ell_2(\mathbb{N})$. Indeed, consider $U: h \rightarrow \ell_2(\mathbb{N})$ that is injective ($c_j = 0 \forall j \Rightarrow \psi = 0$) and surjective since φ_j is a base for h .

Moreover, the Parseval's identity reads

$$\|U\psi\|_{\ell_2(\mathbb{N})}^2 = \|\psi\|_h^2$$

$$\uparrow \sum_{j=0}^{+\infty} |c_j|^2$$

\Rightarrow Hence U is unitary.

- Every bounded operator $A \in \mathcal{B}(h)$ is completely characterized by its matrix elements

$$\langle \varphi_j, A\varphi_k \rangle_h =: A_{jk}$$

with $\{\varphi_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ a base for h . However this does not mean that $\mathcal{B}(h)$ is separable if $\dim(h) = \infty$.

- $\{\varphi_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an example of weakly converging sequence that has no limit in norm topology. since

$$\|\varphi_j\| = 1, \|\varphi_m - \varphi_n\|^2 = 2$$

DEF

One can define on $\mathcal{B}(h_1, h_2)$ the adjoint operator of $A \in \mathcal{B}(h_1, h_2)$ as follows

$$\langle \varphi, A^*\psi \rangle_{h_2} := \langle A\varphi, \psi \rangle_{h_1}, \quad \forall \varphi \in h_1, \psi \in h_2$$

PRO

The adjoint map of a given operator satisfies

$$i) \quad (\alpha A + \beta B)^* = \alpha^* A^* + \beta^* B^*, \quad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}, \quad A, B \in \mathcal{B}(h_1, h_2)$$

$$ii) \quad A^{**} = A, \quad A \in \mathcal{B}(h_1, h_2)$$

$$iii) \quad (AB)^* = B^*A^* \quad B \in \mathcal{B}(h_1, h_2), \quad A \in \mathcal{B}(h_2, h_3) \quad \leftarrow$$

N.B.

The product of operators must be intended as a composition

$$\text{iv) } \|A\|_{L(h_1, h_2)} = \|A^*\|_{L(h_2, h_1)} \text{ and } \|A\|_{L(h_1, h_2)}^2 = \|A^*A\|_{L(h_2, h_1)} = \|AA^*\|_{L(h_1, h_2)}$$

Notice that the anti-linear map ${}^*: A \rightarrow A^*$ is continuous, since $\|A\|_{L(h_1, h_2)} = \|A^*\|_{L(h_2, h_1)}$.

DEF

Given $A \in \mathcal{B}(h)$ it is said

- **Normal**, in case $AA^* = A^*A$
- **Self-adjoint**, if $A^* = A$
- **Unitary**, whenever $A^*A = AA^* = \mathbb{1}$ (identity map $\mathbb{1}: f \mapsto f$)
- **Orthogonal projection**, if $A^2 = A = A^*$
- **Non-negative**, if $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}(h_1, h)$ s.t. $A = BB^*$

DEF

A sequence of operators $\{A_m\}_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \subset L(h_1, h_2)$

- Converges **strongly** to $A \in L(h_1, h_2)$, $A_m \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{s} A$ if $\|A_m \psi - A \psi\|_{h_2} \rightarrow 0, \forall \psi \in D(A) \subseteq D(A_m) \forall m$
- Converges **weakly** to $A \in L(h_1, h_2)$, $A_m \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{w} A$ if $A_m \psi \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{} A \psi, \forall \psi \in D(A) \subseteq D(A_m) \forall m$
- Notice that $\|A_m - A\|_{L(h_1, h_2)} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \sup_{\|\psi\|_{h_2}=1} \|(A_m - A)\psi\|_{h_2} \rightarrow 0$
 $\Rightarrow \|(A_m - A)\psi\|_{h_2} \rightarrow 0 \quad \forall \psi \in h_2 \Rightarrow |(A_m - A)\psi|_{h_2} \leq \|\psi\|_{h_2} \|(A_m - A)\psi\|_{h_2}$
 $\Rightarrow \text{For any fixed } \psi \in h_2, \langle \psi, (A_m - A)\psi \rangle_{h_2} \rightarrow 0$

In other words, the convergence in operator norm implies the strong convergence which implies the weak convergence as well.

- The adjoint map is continuous wrt the weak convergence

$$\textcircled{1} \quad A_m \xrightarrow[w]{} A \Rightarrow \langle A_m^* \psi, \psi \rangle_{h_2} \rightarrow \langle \psi, A \psi \rangle_{h_2} = \langle A^* \psi, \psi \rangle_{h_1} \Rightarrow A_m^* \xrightarrow[w]{} A^*$$

The same holds for the strong convergence only if $\{A_m\}$ and A are normal.

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \|(A_m - A)\psi\|_{h_2} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \|(A_m - A)^* \psi\|_{h_1} \rightarrow 0 \quad (\text{here } A \in \mathcal{B}(h), \text{ but can be extended in } L(h))$$

DEF

$\{U(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is said a **strongly-continuous one-parameter unitary group** if $U(t)$ is unitary and

- $U(0) = \mathbb{1}$
- $U(t+s) = U(t)U(s) = U(s)U(t) \quad (\Rightarrow U(-t) = U(t)^*, \text{ pick } s = -t)$
- $U(t) \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow t_0]{s} U(t_0)$

To each strongly-continuous, one-parameter, unitary group can be associated a generator

$$G\psi = i \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{(U(t) - \mathbb{1})\psi}{t}$$

In other words, $i \frac{(U(t) - \mathbb{1})}{t} \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow 0]{s} G$.

(the convergence occurs in the sense of the norm induced by the scalar product of the Hilbert space).

PRO

A is normal iff

$$\|A\psi\|_h = \|A^*\psi\|_h, \forall \psi \in h$$

} these operators are also normal

} these operators are also self-adjoint

N.B.

While A must be bounded in case $\|A\|_{L(h_1, h_2)} \rightarrow 0$, this is not the case for the strong-topology.

DEF

If $K \in \mathcal{B}(h_1, h_2)$ is s.t. $\forall \{\psi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset h_1$ satisfying $\psi_n \rightarrow \psi$ one has $K\psi_n \rightarrow K\psi$, then we say that K is **compact**.

3) Assume that $A \in \mathcal{B}(h)$. Then, one has that A is self-adjoint since

$$A^* \psi = -i \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{U(t) - 1}{t} \psi = i \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{U(t) - 1}{t} \psi = A\psi, \quad \forall \psi \in h.$$

But what if $A \in L(h) \setminus \mathcal{B}(h)$? Can we extend the definition of self-adjointness? Yes...

DEF

An operator $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ densely defined, is said **symmetric** if

$$\langle \varphi, A\psi \rangle_{h_2} = \langle A\varphi, \psi \rangle_{h_1}, \quad \forall \varphi, \psi \in D(A)$$

PRO

$A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ is symmetric iff $\langle \psi, A\psi \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$ for each $\psi \in D(A)$.

DEF

Given $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h_1, h_2)$, $\tilde{A} \uparrow D(\tilde{A}) \in L(h_1, h_2)$ is an extension of

$A \uparrow D(A)$ (and we denote $A \subseteq \tilde{A}$) if $\tilde{A} \uparrow D(A) = A \uparrow D(A)$ and $D(\tilde{A}) \supseteq D(A)$.

Clearly we have $A \uparrow D(A) = \tilde{A} \uparrow D(\tilde{A})$ only when $\tilde{A} \subseteq A$ and $A \subseteq \tilde{A}$.

DEF

Given $T \uparrow D(T) \in L(h_2, h_2)$ we say that $T \uparrow D(T)$ is closed if

$\forall \{\psi_m\}_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \subset D(T)$ with $\|\psi_m - \psi\|_{h_2} \rightarrow 0$, the fact $\|T\psi_m - T\psi\|_{h_2} \rightarrow 0$ implies $\psi \in D(T)$ and $\psi = T\psi$.

In other words, $T \uparrow D(T)$ is closed if for any convergent sequence in h_2 that makes convergent the sequence $\{T\psi_m\}_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$ in h_2 , one finds the limit of ψ_m (that a priori is only in h_1) is in $D(T)$.

DEF

An operator $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h_1, h_2)$ is closable if there exists an extension $\tilde{A} \uparrow D(\tilde{A}) \in L(h_1, h_2)$ that is closed. Moreover, $\tilde{A} \uparrow D(\tilde{A}) \in L(h_1, h_2)$ is the closure of $A \uparrow D(A)$, i.e. its "smallest" closed extension, namely, $A \subseteq \tilde{A}$ and $\overline{G(A)} = G(\tilde{A})$, where $G(\cdot)$ is the graph of the operator.

PRO

Any closed operator has closed graph and closed kernel.

$$G(A) := \{(\psi, A\psi) \mid \psi \in D(A)\}$$

N.B. Here the topology that selects the closed sets is the one induced by the so-called graph-norm, i.e.

$$\|\psi\|_{G(A)}^2 := \|\psi\|_{h_1}^2 + \|A\psi\|_{h_2}^2, \quad \psi \in D(A).$$

DEF

Given $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h_1, h_2)$, its adjoint is defined by

$$\begin{cases} D(A^*) = \{\psi \in h_2 \mid \exists \Psi \in h_1 : \langle \psi, A\Psi \rangle = \langle \Psi, \Psi \rangle, \forall \Psi \in D(A)\} \\ A^*\psi = \Psi \end{cases}$$

This definition is well-posed only if $D(A)$ is dense in h_1 . Otherwise there would be a subspace of h_2 orthogonal to $D(A)$ and one could replace $\Psi = A^*\psi$ with any $\Psi + \Psi_\perp$, where $\Psi_\perp \in D(A)^\perp$.

PRO

For any densely defined $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h_1, h_2)$, the operator $A^* \uparrow D(A^*) \in L(h_2, h_1)$ is closed.

N.B.

For unbounded operators we don't have BLT theorem, hence, an operator A is not ambiguous only in a given domain of definition $D(A)$. We denote this operator by $A \uparrow D(A)$.

PRO

Given $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ densely defined,

$$i) (\lambda A)^* = \lambda^* A^*, \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C};$$

$$ii) (A+B)^* \supseteq A^* + B^*, \quad (AB)^* \supseteq B^* A^*; \quad D(A+B) = D(A) \cap D(B)$$

$$iii) \text{Ker}(A^*) = \text{Ran}(A)^\perp;$$

iv) $A^{**} = \bar{A}$, in case A is closable (iff A^* is densely defined). Moreover, $(\bar{A})^* = A^*$;

v) If $\text{Ker}(A) = \{0\}$ and $\text{Ran}(A)$ is dense in h_2 , then $(A^{-1})^* = (A^*)^{-1}$;

vi) If A is closable and $\text{Ker}(\bar{A}) = \{0\}$, then $(\bar{A})^{-1} = \overline{(A^{-1})}$.

N.B.

$$D(A+B) = D(A) \cap D(B)$$

- Observe that, given $B \supseteq A$, densely defined, the condition in the domain of the adjoint must hold in a larger set for B with respect to A , hence $A^* \supseteq B^*$ the domain is smaller.
- Let $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ be a symmetric operator. Then holds

$$A \subseteq \bar{A} \subseteq A^*.$$

The operator $A \uparrow D(A)$ is self-adjoint when $A = A^*$ and this occurs when there are no proper extension. Indeed suppose $A \uparrow D(A)$, $B \uparrow D(B)$ symmetric operators s.t. $A = A^*$ and $B \supsetneq A$.

$$\text{Then, } A \subseteq B \subseteq B^* \subseteq A^* = A \Rightarrow A = B.$$

DEF

If a symmetric operator $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ is s.t. \bar{A} is self-adjoint, then A is said to be essentially self-adjoint.

THEO (Criterion for (essentially) self-adjointness)

Let $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ be a symmetric operator. Then

- i) If $\exists z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Ker}(A+z^*) = \text{Ker}(A+z) = \{0\}$, $A \uparrow D(A)$ is essentially self-adjoint;
- ii) If $\exists z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Ran}(A+z^*) = \text{Ran}(A+z) = h$, $A \uparrow D(A)$ is self-adjoint.

N.B.

The theorem is equivalently phrased for essentially self-adjoint operators by exploiting $\text{Ran}(A) = \text{Ker}(A^*)^\perp$.

N.B.

a is said A -bound. Clearly, if $a=0$ then B is simply bounded.

DEF

Given $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ and $B \uparrow D(B) \in L(h)$, with

$D(B) \supseteq D(A)$, we say that B is A -bounded if there exist $a > 0$ and $b > 0$ s.t.

$$\|B\psi\|_h \leq a \|A\psi\|_h + b \|\psi\|_h, \quad \forall \psi \in D(A)$$

THEO (Kato-Rellich)

Given $A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ self-adjoint and $B \uparrow D(B) \in L(h)$ symmetric, A -bounded with

A -bound $a < 1$, then the operator $(A+B) \uparrow D(A)$ is self-adjoint.

DEF

$A \uparrow D(A) \in L(h)$ self-adjoint is non-negative if $\langle \psi, A\psi \rangle_h \geq 0 \quad \forall \psi \in h$.

Moreover, given $B \uparrow D(B)$ A -bounded, with A -bound < 1 , $A \geq B$ stands for $A-B$ non-negative.

For the criterion of (essentially) self-adjointness, z can be chosen in $(-\infty, a)$ if $A \uparrow D(A)$ satisfies $A \geq a$ (that's to say $A-a \geq 0$)

Now we can give sense to the generator H (self-adjoint operator) of the dynamics of a system, represented by any strongly-continuous one-parameter unitary group $\{U(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$:

$$\boxed{H = \left(\frac{d}{dt} U(t)\right)|_{t=0}}$$

$$\frac{dU}{dt}|_{t=0} \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow 0]{} H.$$

In this situation H is called the Hamiltonian of the system.

Let $\psi_0 \in D(H)$ be the initial state. Then $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \psi(t) = H\psi(t)$, the Schrödinger equation is solved by $\psi(t) = U(t)\psi_0$.

In case instead one considers the Hamiltonian as a fundamental object (rather than the dynamics) one solves the same Schrödinger equation by imposing $\psi(t) = e^{-iHt/\hbar} \psi_0$.
 $\Rightarrow U(t) = e^{-iHt/\hbar}$

N.B.

Two different dynamics with the same generator can only differ by a phase, e.g.

$$U(t) = e^{-iHt/\hbar}, \quad U'(t) = e^{-iH(t-t')/\hbar}$$

DEF

An observable is a maximally-defined, symmetric operator, hence, a self-adjoint operator.

DEF

Let $A \cap D(A) \in \mathcal{L}(h)$ fulfills $A \geq \gamma \in \mathbb{R}$. Next, define $\|\cdot\|_A$ as the norm induced by the scalar product

$$\langle \varphi, \psi \rangle_A := \langle \varphi, (A + i - \gamma) \psi \rangle_h, \quad \forall \varphi, \psi \in D(A).$$

Then, the completion of $D(A)$ according to $\|\cdot\|_A$ is said form domain of A , $D_u(A)$.

THEO (Friedrich's extensions)

Let $A \cap D(A) \in \mathcal{L}(h)$ be symmetric and such that

$$\langle \psi, A\psi \rangle_h \geq \gamma \|\psi\|_h^2, \quad \forall \psi \in D(A).$$

Then $\exists!$ self-adjoint extension $\tilde{A} \supseteq A$ s.t. $\tilde{A} \geq \gamma$ and $D(\tilde{A}) \subseteq D_u(A)$.

It is interesting to understand when a given quadratic form is associated to a self-adjoint operator (i.e. an observable). Hence, given a sesquilinear form $s: D \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ we can always associate a quadratic form $q: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, by setting $q(\psi) = s(\psi, \psi)$ and the converse can be done through the polarization identity. If $q: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then s is symmetric ($s(\varphi, \psi) = s(\psi, \varphi)$) and q is said hermitian.

N.B. Here, D is a dense subspace of h

DEF

A hermitian quadratic form is lower-bounded if $\exists \gamma \in \mathbb{R}: q(\psi) \geq \gamma \|\psi\|_h^2, \quad \forall \psi \in D$.

It is non-negative if $\gamma = 0$.

It is closed if the closure of D with respect to $\|\cdot\|_q := q(\cdot) + (1-\gamma) \|\cdot\|_h^2$ is equal to itself.

In other words, q is closed in \mathfrak{h} if $\forall \{\psi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathcal{D}(q)$ Cauchy sequence wrt $\|\cdot\|_q$ one has

$$\|\psi_n\|_q \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \|\psi_n\|_q \rightarrow 0.$$

DEF

Given $A \uparrow \mathcal{D}(A) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{h})$ with $A \geq 0$ we set $q_A: \mathcal{D}(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as $q_A(\psi) = \langle \psi, A\psi \rangle_{\mathfrak{h}}$.

Another quadratic form $q: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathcal{D} \supseteq \mathcal{D}(A)$ is called **relatively form bounded wrt q_A** if $\exists a > 0$ and $b > 0$ s.t.

$$|q(\psi)| \leq a q_{A+\gamma}(\psi) + b \|\psi\|_{\mathfrak{h}}^2, \quad \forall \psi \in \mathcal{D}(A).$$

PRO

Let $q_1: \mathcal{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a closed, hermitian quadratic form that is bounded from below and

let $q_2: \mathcal{D}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be relatively form bounded wrt q_1 with form bound less than 1.

Then, $q_1 + q_2: \mathcal{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is closed.

THEO (KLMN - Kato, Lions, Lax, Milgram, Nirenberg)

Let $q: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a lower-bounded and closed, hermitian quadratic form.

Then \exists self-adjoint operator A such that $q(\psi) = \langle \psi, A\psi \rangle_{\mathfrak{h}} \quad \forall \psi \in \mathcal{D}(A)$.

Denote by s the sesquilinear form associated to q by the polarization identity, so that

$$\mathcal{D}(A) = \{ \psi \in \mathcal{D} \mid \exists \Psi \in \mathfrak{h}: s(\psi, \psi) = \langle \psi, \Psi \rangle_{\mathfrak{h}} \quad \forall \psi \in \mathcal{D} \}$$

$$A\psi = \Psi.$$

COR

If $q: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is also bounded (i.e. $|q(\psi)| \leq c \|\psi\|_{\mathfrak{h}}^2$ $\forall \psi \in \mathcal{D}$ with $\|q\| := \sup_{\|\psi\|=1} |q(\psi)|$)

then, the associated self-adjoint operator is also bounded, with $\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{h})} = \|q\|$.



N.B.

This implies that, for symmetric operators, one has

$$\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{h})} = \sup_{\|\psi\|=1} |\langle \psi, A\psi \rangle|$$

N.B.

By the closed graph theorem we know that the closed operator $(A-z)^{-1}$ is bounded if it is defined on all \mathfrak{h}_2 . Hence one needs to check bijectivity.

DEF

Let $A \uparrow \mathcal{D}(A) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{h}_2, \mathfrak{h}_1)$ be a closed, densely defined operator.

The **resolvent set** is

$$\rho(A) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid (A-z)^{-1} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{h}_2, \mathfrak{h}_1)\}$$

The **spectrum** is

$$\sigma(A) = \rho(A)^c = \mathbb{C} \setminus \rho(A).$$

DEF

Given $\psi \in \mathfrak{h}_1$ with $\psi \neq 0$ satisfying

$\text{Ker}(A-z) \ni \psi$, we say that ψ is a **eigenfunction** of A with **eigenvalue** z .

The map $R_A: \rho(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{h}_2, \mathfrak{h}_1)$ is the **resolvent operator** of A .

$$z \mapsto (A-z)^{-1}$$

it fulfills $R_A(z)^* = R_{A^*}(z^*)$ and the so-called first-resolvent identity

$$R_A(z_1) - R_A(z_2) = (z_1 - z_2) R_A(z_1) R_A(z_2) = (z_1 - z_2) R_A(z_2) R_A(z_1).$$

9)

PRO

- The resolvent set is open in \mathbb{C} ;
- $\|R_A(z)\|_{\mathcal{L}(h_1, h_2)} \geq \frac{1}{\text{dist}(z, G(A))}, \forall z \in \rho(A)$;
- $\sum_{j=0}^m (z - z_0)^j R_A(z_0)^{j+1} \xrightarrow[m \rightarrow \infty]{s} R_A(z), \forall z, z_0 \in \rho(A) : \|R_A(z_0)\|_{\mathcal{L}(h_1, h_2)} \geq \frac{1}{|z - z_0|}$;
- if A is bounded, $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid \|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(h_1, h_2)} < |z|\} \subset \rho(A)$ and $R_A(z) = - \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}_0} \frac{A^j}{z^{j+1}}$.

N.B. The spectrum is a closed set in \mathbb{C} .**DEF**

Given $A \in D(A) \subset \mathcal{L}(h)$ we say that $\{\psi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset D(A)$ with $\|\psi_n\|_h = 1 \quad \forall n$ is a **Weyl sequence** for A :

$$\|(A-z)\psi_n\|_h \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} 0, \text{ for some } z \in \mathbb{C}.$$

PRO

If there exists a Weyl sequence for A with parameter $z \in \mathbb{C}$, then one has $z \in \sigma(A)$. Moreover, if $\{\psi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ does not contain any convergent subsequence, the $\{\psi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is called a **singular Weyl sequence** and $z \in \sigma_{ess}(A)$.

Notice that $\sigma(A) = \sigma_{disc}(A) \cup \sigma_{ess}(A)$, where $\sigma_{disc}(A)$ is made of eigenvalues with finite multiplicity.

THEO (Weyl)

Let $A \in D(A) \subset \mathcal{L}(h)$ be self-adjoint and K a compact, self-adjoint operator. Then $\sigma_{ess}(A+K) = \sigma_{ess}(A)$.

PRO

- Let $A \in D(A) \subset \mathcal{L}(h)$ be injective with dense range.
Then, $G(A^{-1}) \setminus \{0\} = (G(A) \setminus \{0\})^{-1}$ and $A\psi = z\psi \Leftrightarrow A^{-1}\psi = \bar{z}^{-1}\psi$.
- Let $A \in B(h)$. Then, $G(AA^*) \setminus \{0\} = G(A^*A) \setminus \{0\}$.

THEO

Let $A \in D(A) \subset \mathcal{L}(h)$ be a symmetric operator. Then

i) A is self-adjoint $\Leftrightarrow \sigma(A) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Moreover, $\|R_A(z)\|_{\mathcal{L}(h)} \leq \frac{1}{|\operatorname{Im} z|}$;

ii) $A \geq \gamma \in \mathbb{R} \Leftrightarrow \sigma(A) \subseteq [\gamma, +\infty)$. Moreover, $\|R_A(z)\|_{\mathcal{L}(h)} \leq \frac{1}{\gamma - z}, \gamma < z$;

iii) All eigenvalues are real and corresponding eigenfunctions are orthogonal.

iv) $\inf \sigma(A) = \inf_{\substack{\psi \in D(A) \\ \|\psi\|_h = 1}} \langle \psi, A\psi \rangle, \sup \sigma(A) = \sup_{\substack{\psi \in D(A) \\ \|\psi\|_h = 1}} \langle \psi, A\psi \rangle$ provided A self-adjoint.

