

FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS AND OPERATOR THEORY

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Abstract

In functional analysis, a subfield of mathematics, continuity and convergence play pivotal roles in the study of vector spaces furnished with inner products and norms. It offers a robust structure for comprehending and resolving issues in many branches of mathematics and the hard sciences, including as physics, engineering, and economics. The study of linear operators operating on such vector spaces is the subject of functional analysis known as operator theory. Quantum physics, signal processing, and differential equations all make use of these operators, which are mathematical objects that map one vector space onto another. Because of their high level of abstraction, functional analysis and operator theory have been helpful in the creation of effective algorithms, the solution of differential equations, and a better understanding of physical processes. Fundamentally, functional analysis and operator theory offer a flexible and rigorous framework for investigating the underlying mathematical structures of a wide range of real-world situations, making them indispensable to both theoretical study and applied activity.

Keywords: Functional, Analysis, Operator, Theory

1. Introduction

The study of function spaces and their characteristics is at the heart of functional analysis, a field of mathematics with wide-ranging applications in the natural and applied sciences and in engineering. It offers a robust system for evaluating and comprehending mathematical structures, especially ones with infinite dimensions. Norm spaces and inner product spaces are two examples of the kinds of vector spaces having topological and algebraic characteristics that functional analysis primarily focuses on. Linear operators between these spaces are a major focus of operator theory, which is intimately related to this area of study. You may think of operators as mathematical transformations that move things around in a different space. Partial differential equations, quantum physics, and signal processing are just a few of the many areas

of mathematics that rely heavily on functional analysis and operator theory. Because of their usefulness in so many different branches of science and technology, they are indispensable for investigating and comprehending intricate systems and occurrences.[1]

Two essential areas of mathematics, functional analysis and operator theory, have numerous applications in physics, engineering, and economics, among other disciplines. In an effort to comprehend and control their behavior, these fields of research probe deeply into the structure and characteristics of spaces of operators and functions. Operator theory is concerned with linear operators that map across function spaces, whereas functional analysis is primarily concerned with function spaces.[2]

The focus of functional analysis is on vector spaces of functions, where the constituents of these spaces are functions in and of themselves. The structure of function spaces like Hilbert spaces and Banach spaces, the convergence of function sequences, the characteristics of integral and differential operators, and other mathematical objects and processes may all be studied and understood within the strong framework this discipline offers. It may be used in a wide range of fields, including partial differential equations, quantum physics, and Fourier analysis. the study of linear operators—mathematical entities that convert one function space into another—is at the heart of operator theory.[3] These operators find use in the description of several phenomena ranging from signal processing to quantum physics. The goal of operator theory is to comprehend these operators' characteristics, their spectrum breakdown, and how they might be used to solve problems and represent intricate systems.

The creation of mathematical instruments for resolving practical issues requires the use of both operator theory and functional analysis. These branches of mathematics lay the groundwork for comprehension and manipulation of functions and operators, opening doors to developments in a wide range of domains including signal processing, control theory, and quantum physics. In this regard, learning functional analysis and operator theory is crucial for practitioners and theoretical mathematicians who want to tackle challenging, real-world problems.[4]

Assuming that H is a Hilbert space, we may write $(Au, v) = (u, A^* v)$, $u, v \in H$ to define the adjoint of a bounded linear operator $A: H \rightarrow H$ ($A \in \mathcal{L}(H)$). If $A^* = A$, then we say that A is self-

adjoint. For this reason, an operator defined on an inner product space over the field \mathbb{R} can also be defined as an asymmetric operator. A Hermitian operator is a self-adjoint operator on an inner product space over \mathbb{C} . Taylor established the spectral theorem for operators that are both self-adjoint and unitary. If $\dim H = n < \infty$, any self-adjoint $A \in L(H)$ satisfies the condition that H has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of A . Each unitary $U(H)$ is treated the same. We look at a hypothesis of Krein's from 1964, which poses a dilemma in perturbation theory. In the self-adjoint situation, Potapov and Sukochev proved the following theorem. There exists a constant C such that for any $p \in (1, \infty)$, [5]

$$\|f(A) - f(B)\|_p \leq C_p \|f\|_{Lip} \|A - B\|_p$$

for all self-adjoint operators A and B , and all Lipschitz $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. In the unitary case, this conclusion is expressed as a consequence of self-adjoint. Our proofs establish the unitarity of a bounded linear operator on a Hilbert space and the self-adjointness of a Sturm-Liouville operator. [6]

Operator theory

Mathematical entities that preserve linearity in their transformations of elements between vector spaces are the focus of operator theory, a subfield of mathematics. In the context of functional analysis, these operators are typically used to spaces of functions, and their study spans a wide range of mathematical structures. A linear operator, indicated by A , operating on a function, f , can be represented by the following elementary equation:

$$Af = g$$

In this particular scenario, f and g are functions that operate in a certain space, and A is the linear operator that turns f into g . This equation serves as a foundation for understanding how operators convert functions in a variety of settings. Operator theory offers a potent set of tools for modeling and evaluating systems that are sensitive to linear transformations. It is also commonly utilized in the field of differential equations, as well as in quantum physics and signal processing, in order to address problems. [7]

2. Preliminaries

The following information on inner product spaces and unitary operators is required..

Lemma 2.1: Let V and W be inner product spaces over F , denoted by $(\cdot)_v$ and $(\cdot)_w$. As a result, there is only one adjoint operator $U^* \in L(V, W)$ for each given $U \in L(V, W)$.

Assuming a vector space $U \in L(V)$ and an inner product space $V, (\cdot)$. If $(U(u), v) = (u, U^*(v))$ holds for any $u, v \in V$, then U 's adjoint is the only operator $U^* \in L(V)$ fulfilling this condition.[8]

Lemma 2.2: Consider the inner product space over F to be $(V, (\cdot))$. In the event when $U, U \in L(V)$, and $k \in F$:

$$(a) (kU)^* = \bar{k}U^*,$$

$$(b) (U^*)^* = U,$$

$$(c) (U + \hat{U})^* = U^* + \hat{U}^*,$$

$$(d) (U \circ \hat{U})^* = \hat{U}^* \circ U^*.$$

Lemma 2.3: If $U \in L(H)$ is self-adjoint, then there exist a measure space (X, F, μ) , a unitary map $\Phi: H \rightarrow L^2(X, \mu)$, and $a \in L^\infty(X, \mu)$, such that $\Phi \circ U \circ \Phi^{-1}f(x) = a(x)f(x)$, for all $f \in L^2(X, \mu)$. Here, a is real and $\|a\|_{L^\infty} = \|U\|$.

Definition 2.4: An inner product space over F is denoted by $(V, (\cdot))$. To be self-adjoint with regard to the linear product (\cdot) , a linear operator $U \in L(V)$ must have the form $U^* = U$. Self-adjointness for a matrix $A \in \text{Mann}(R)$ is defined as $A^* = A$.

The fact that $A = A^* = A^{-T} = A^T$ proves that if $A \in \text{Mann}(R)$, then A is self-adjoint if and only if $A = A^T$.

Definition 2.5: A linear operator with finite range Theorem: $H \rightarrow H$ in the Hilbert space If $T^* = T$, then H is a self-adjoint set.

That is, if and only if $(x, Ty) = (Tx, y)$ for all $x, y \in H$, then the linear operator T on H is self-adjoint.

Definition 2.6: If the linear map between the two Hilbert spaces is orthogonal or unitary, then the equation $(Ux, Uy)_{H_2} = (x, y)_{H_1}$ for the H_1 values of x and y . If there is a unitary operator

that is bijective and maintains the inner product, then the two Hilbert spaces H1 and H2 are the same in the sense that they are both Hilbert spaces.[9]

Unitary operators are defined as those that satisfy the following condition: $U^*U = UU^* = 1$.

3. Unitary and Normal Operators

We provide a new linear operator denoted by $T^*: H_2 \rightarrow H_1$ with the property that the inner product $\langle Tx, y \rangle$ equals $\langle x, T^*y \rangle$. We are able to categorize a bounded linear operator $T: H \rightarrow H$ on a Hilbert space H as self-adjoint or Hermitian if $T^* = T$, unitary if T is bijective, which means $T^* = T^{-1}$, and normal if $T^*T = TT^*$. These three classifications may be found by checking the value of T^* . As we have seen, self-adjoint operators and unitary operators are considered typical, but the opposite is not true.

Assume that the $T: C^n \rightarrow C^n$ operator is a linear one. It is easy to see its limits. Let us work on correcting the foundation for C^n . Therefore, in order for T to be represented by a matrix, let's say A , the product on C^n is defined as:[10]

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \bar{\eta}_i = x^T \bar{y},$$

Where

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_1 \\ \xi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \xi_n \end{pmatrix}; y = \begin{pmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \eta_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore,

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = (Tx)^T \bar{y} = (Ax)^T \bar{y} = x^T A^T \bar{y}.$$

Again $T^*: C^n \rightarrow C^n$ is also a bounded linear operator. So T^* can be represented by a matrix B.

It will be $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle = x^T A^T \bar{y} = x^T \overline{(T^*y)} = x^T \overline{(By)} = x^T \bar{B} \bar{y}$. This implies that $B = (\bar{A})^T$. Hence, Given a basis for C^n and a matrix representing a linear operator on C^n , the complex conjugate transpose of the matrix represents the operator's Hilbert adjoint, thus we can say that the matrix is Hermitian if T is self-adjoint and unitary, and that it is normal if is normal.

Result 3.1: Let T_n be a sequence of bounded self-adjoint operators $T_n: H \rightarrow H$ on a Hilbert

space H . Suppose that T_n converges, say, $T_n \rightarrow T$ or equivalently, $\|T_n - T\| \rightarrow 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$ where n - $B(H,H)$ is the space's norm. If so, then the operator T at the limit is a linear operator on H that is limited and self-adjoint.[11]

Proof: Clearly, $T^* = T$ is $\|T - T^*\| = 0$.

We start with

$$\|T - T^*\| \leq \|T - T_n\| + \|T_n - T_n^*\| + \|T_n^* - T^*\| = \|T - T_n\| + 0 + \|T_n - T\|$$

because

$$\|(T_n - T)^*\| = \|T_n - T\| = 2\|T - T_n\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \text{ then } \|T - T^*\| \leq 0$$

So $T = T^*$.

4. On Adjoint Operator

The next conclusion for self-adjoint operators is obtained by solving the following equation:[12]

$$a_0(x) \frac{d^2u}{dx^2} + a_1(x) \frac{du}{dx} + a_2(x)u = 0, B.C \text{ at } x = \alpha, u = 0$$

and at $x = \beta, u = 0$

$$Lu = 0; \quad L = a_0(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + a_1(x) \frac{d}{dx} + a_2(x) = 0;$$

$x = \alpha, u = 0$ and $x = \beta, u = 0$ and boundary operator $Lu = 0, Bu = 0$.

Now consider $\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} VLudx$.

Dummy function V shares every quality with u .

$$Lu = a_0u'' + a_1u' + a_2u.$$

Putting

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} VLudx = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_0u''dx + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_1u'dx + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_2udx,$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} VLudx &= [(Va_0)u']_{\alpha}^{\beta} - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (Va_0)' u'dx + [(Va_1)u]_{\alpha}^{\beta} \\
 &\quad - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (Va_1)' udx + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_2udx \\
 &= [Va_0u']_{\alpha}^{\beta} - [Va_1u]_{\alpha}^{\beta} - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (V'a_0 + Va'_0)u'dx \\
 &\quad - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (Va_1)' udx + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_2udx \\
 &= [Va_0u']_{\alpha}^{\beta} + [Va_1u]_{\alpha}^{\beta} - [(V'a_0 + Va'_0)u]_{\alpha}^{\beta} + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (V'a_0 + Va'_0)' udx \\
 &\quad - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (Va_1)' udx + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_2udx \\
 &= [Va_0u']_{\alpha}^{\beta} + [Va_1u]_{\alpha}^{\beta} - [(V'a_0 + Va'_0)u]_{\alpha}^{\beta} + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (V'a_0 + Va'_0)' udx \\
 &\quad - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (Va_1)' udx + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_2udx \\
 &= [Va_0u' + Va_1u - (V'a_0u) - (Va'_0u)]_{\alpha}^{\beta} \\
 &\quad + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (a_0V'' + a'_0V' + a''_0V + a'_0V)udx \\
 &\quad - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (a_1V' + a'_1V)udx + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} Va_2udx \\
 &= [Va_0u' - V'a_0u + Va_1u - Va'_0u]_{\alpha}^{\beta} \\
 &\quad + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} [a_0V'' + 2a'_0V' + a''_0V - a_1V' - a'_1V + Va_2]udx \\
 &= T(u, v) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} [a_0V'' + (2a'_0 - a_1)V' + (a''_0 - a'_1 + a_2)V]udx,
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(u, v) &= [Va_0u' - V'a_0u + Va_1u - Va_0'u]_{x=\beta} \\ &\quad - [Va_0u' - V'a_0u + Va_1u - Va_0'u]_{x=\alpha}, \end{aligned}$$

$$B \Rightarrow \text{at } \left. \begin{matrix} x = \alpha \\ x = \beta \end{matrix} \right\} u = 0,$$

$$T(u, v) = Va_0u'|_{x=\beta} - Va_0u'|_{x=\alpha} = Va_0u'|_{x=\alpha}^{x=\beta}$$

To Force

$$T(u, v) = 0 \text{ at } \left. \begin{matrix} x = \alpha, v = 0 \\ x = \beta, v = 0 \end{matrix} \right\} B^*V = 0:$$

$$\int_{x=\alpha}^{x=\beta} VLudx = T(u, v) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left[a_0 \frac{d^2v}{dx^2} + (2a' - a_1) \frac{dv}{dx} + (a_0'' - a_1' + a_2) \right]$$

$$= T(u, v) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} L^*Vudx,$$

Auxiliary operator L

$$L^* = a_0(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + (2a' - a_1) \frac{d}{dx} + (a_0'' - a_1' + a_2),$$

$$\langle V, Lu \rangle = T(u, v) + \langle L^*V, u \rangle,$$

$$L = a_0 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{d}{dx} + a_2$$

And

$$L^* = a_0 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + (2a' - a_1) \frac{d}{dx} + (a_0'' - a_1' + a_2).$$

L is a self-adjoint operator if and only if $L = L$ and $B = B^*$. It is not a self-adjoint system if $L =$

L and $B + B^*$. It is not a self-adjoint system if and only if $L \neq L^*$ and $B \neq B^*$.

Claim: Self-adjointness of operator L is defined as $L(u) \cdot v = u \cdot L(v)$. The Sturm-Liouville operator allows us to obtain

$$L(y) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(p(x) \frac{dy(x)}{dx} \right) + q(x)y(x).$$

Since $u \cdot v = \int_a^b u(x)v(x) dx$, L is self-adjoint if $L(u) \cdot v - L(v) \cdot u = 0$ and

$$\int_a^b [uL(v) - vL(u)] dx = 0.$$

Keep in mind Green's equation

$$\int_a^b [uL(v) - vL(u)] dx = p \left(u \frac{dv}{dx} - v \frac{du}{dx} \right) \Big|_{x=a}^{x=b}.$$

Self-adjointness of the Sturm-Liouville operator is therefore defined as the case

$$p \left(u \frac{dv}{dx} - v \frac{du}{dx} \right) \Big|_{x=a}^{x=b} = 0,$$

Then

$$p(b) \left(u(b) \frac{d(v(b))}{dx} - v(b) \frac{d(u(b))}{dx} \right) - p(a) \left(u(a) \frac{d(v(a))}{dx} - v(a) \frac{d(u(a))}{dx} \right) = 0.$$

This word is difficult to understand, however we do have some further data:[13]

$$\beta_1 f'(a) + \beta_2 f(a) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_3 f'(b) + \beta_4 f(b) = 0.$$

Claim: L is self-adjoint if and only if the same regular boundary conditions hold.

Since

$$v'(b) = -\frac{\beta_4 v(b)}{\beta_3}; \quad u'(b) = -\frac{\beta_4 u(b)}{\beta_3},$$

we have

$$u(b)v'(b) - v(b)u'(b) = u(b) \left(-\frac{\beta_4}{\beta_3} \right) v(b) - v(b) \left(-\frac{\beta_4}{\beta_3} \right) u(b) = 0,$$

and so

$$u(b) \frac{d(v(b))}{dx} - v(b) \frac{d(u(b))}{dx} = 0.$$

Also,

$$u(a) \frac{d(v(a))}{dx} - v(a) \frac{d(u(a))}{dx} = 0.$$

The Sturm-Liouville operator is shown to be self-adjoint in this case.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, Functional Analysis and Operator Theory are essential branches of mathematics that have wide-ranging applications in various fields, including physics, engineering, and economics. Functional analysis provides a powerful framework for studying vector spaces and functions, allowing us to analyze and understand complex systems with a focus on the underlying structures. Operator theory, on the other hand, deals with linear operators and their properties, making it a fundamental tool for solving differential equations, quantum mechanics, and signal processing. These two areas of study not only provide deep mathematical insights but also offer practical solutions to a multitude of real-world problems. With their rich history and ongoing research, Functional Analysis and Operator Theory continue to be at the forefront of mathematical innovation and contribute significantly to the advancement of science and technology.

6. References

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