

An Investigation on The Behaviour of Unbounded Operators in $\Gamma\textsc{-Hilbert}$ Space

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Keywords:

Γ-Hilbert space, Closed operator, Densely defined operator, Selfadjoint of densely defined operator, Symmetric of densely defined operator. **Abstract** — In this paper, we investigate about the behavior of unbounded operators in Γ -Hilbert Space. Here we discussed about the adjoint, self-adjoint, symmetric and other related properties of densely defined operator. We proof some related theorems and corollaries and will show the characterizations of these operators in Γ -Hilbert space.

Subject Classification (2020): 46CXX, 46C05, 46C07, 46C15, 46C99, 47L06.

1. Introduction

Γ-Hilbert space plays an important role in generalization of general linear quadratic control problems in an abstract space [1] which was motivated from the work of L.Debnath and Pitor Mikusinski [8] but there not enough literature found to study about the unbounded operators in Γ-Hilbert space. The definition of Γ-Hilbert space was introduced by Bhattacharya D.K. and T.E. Aman in their paper "Γ-Hilbert space and linear quadratic control problem" in 2003 [9]. Further development was made in 2017 by A.Ghosh, A.Das and T.E. Aman in their research paper [1]. In [6] S.Islam and A.Das discussed about the properties of bounded operators in Γ-Hilbert Space. Boundedness of an operator is a great tool to elaborate Γ-Hilbert Space. We often deal with operators which are not bounded. In this paper, we will briefly discuss the concept, methods and theory of unbounded operators in Γ-Hilbert Space. In this paper, after consulting the main author, we have made some changes in the main definition of Γ-Hilbert space [9].

First, we recall the definitions of Γ -Hilbert Space.

Definition 1.1. Let E be the linear space over the field F and Γ be a semi group with respect to addition. A mapping $\langle .,., \rangle : E \times \Gamma \times E \to F(\mathbb{R} \text{ or } \mathbb{C})$ is called a Γ -Inner product on (E, Γ) if

- (i) $\langle .,.,. \rangle$ is linear in first variable and additive in second variable.
- (ii) $\langle u, \gamma, v \rangle = \langle v, \gamma, u \rangle \forall u, v \in E \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma.$
- (iii) $\langle u, \gamma, u \rangle > 0 \ \forall \ u \neq 0.$
- (iv) $\langle u, \gamma, u \rangle = 0$ if at least one of u, γ is zero.

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 $[(E, \Gamma), \langle ., ., . \rangle]$ is called a Γ -inner product space over F.

A complete Γ -inner product space is called Γ -Hilbert space.

Using the Γ -inner product, we may define three types of norm in a Γ -Hilbert space, namely (i) γ -norm (ii) Γ_{inf} - norm and (iii) Γ -norm.

Definition 1.2. Now if we write $||u||_{\gamma}^2 = \langle u, \gamma, u \rangle$, for $u \in H$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$ then $||u||_{\gamma}^2$ satisfy all the conditions of norm.

Definition 1.3. If we define $||u||_{\Gamma_{\inf}} = \inf \{||u||_{\gamma} : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$. Clearly Γ_{\inf} -norm satisfy all the conditions of the norm for $u \in H$.

Definition 1.4. If we write $||u||_{\Gamma} = \{||u||_{\gamma} : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ then this norm is called the Γ -norm of the Γ -Hilbert space.

Definition 1.5. Let L be a non-empty subset of a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ} . Two elements x and y are said to be γ -orthogonal if their inner product $\langle x, \gamma, y \rangle = 0$. In symbol, we write $x \perp_{\gamma} y$.

2. Basic Concepts

In this section, we briefly discuss about the definition of densely defined operator and the adjoint, selfadjoint, symmetric etc of that operator. Also, related examples and theorem are mentioned in this part.

2.1. Extension of operators

Let S and T be two operators in a vector space E. D_S and D_T are the domains of S and T respectively. If

$$D_S \subset D_T$$
 and $Sx = Tx$ for every $x \in D_S$

then T is called an extension of S and we write $S \subset T$.

2.2. Densely defined operator

An operator T defined a linear map T from a subspace of H_{Γ} to H_{Γ} is called an operator in H_{Γ} and the subspace denoted by D_{T} , is called the domain of T. Now an operator T is defined in a normed space E is called densely defined if its domain D_{T} is a dense subset of E, that is $Cl D_{T} = E$.

Example 2.2.1. The differential operator $\frac{d}{dx}$ is densely defined in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, because the subspace of differentiable functions is dense in $L(\mathbb{R})^2$.

Theorem 2.2.2. Let T be a densely defined operator in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ} and let E be the set of all $y \in H_{\Gamma}$ for which $\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle$ where $\gamma \in \Gamma$ is a continuous functional on D_{T} . There exists a unique operator S defined on E such that

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, Sy \rangle$$
 for all $x \in D_T$ and $y \in E$.

Proof: For any $y \in E$, consider the functional $f_y(x) = \langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle$ where $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Being continuous on a dense subspace of H_{Γ} , has a unique extension to a continuous functional \tilde{f}_{γ} on H_{Γ} .

By Riesz representation theorem, there exists a unique $Z_y \in H_{\Gamma}$ such that $\tilde{f}_y(x) = \langle x, \gamma, Z_y \rangle \forall x \in H_{\Gamma}$. Now if we define $S(y) = Z_y$, then we will have

$$\begin{split} \langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle &= f_y(x) = \tilde{f}_y(x) \\ &= \langle x, \gamma, Z_y \rangle \\ &= \langle x, \gamma, Sy \rangle \text{ for all } x \in D_T \text{ , } y \in E \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma \text{ .} \end{split}$$

Also the linearity of S is obvious.

2.3. Adjoint of densely defined operator

Let T be an operator which is densely defined in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ} . The adjoint T^{*} of T is the operator defined on the set of all $y \in H_{\Gamma}$ for which $\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle$ where $\gamma \in \Gamma$ is a continuous function on D_{T} and such that

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, T^*y \rangle$$
 for all $x \in D_T$ and $y \in D_{T^*}$

Example 2.3.1. Let $C^{1}_{0}(\mathbb{R})$ denote the space of all continuously differentiable functions on \mathbb{R} . This is also a dense subspace of $L^{2}(\mathbb{R})$. Now consider the differentiable operator D which defined on $C^{1}_{0}(\mathbb{R})$. Since

$$\langle Dx, \gamma, y \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{d}{dt} x(t) \right) \gamma \overline{y(t)} dt$$

= $-\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \left(\frac{d}{dt} \overline{y(t)} \right) \gamma dt$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

 $\therefore \langle Dx, \gamma, y \rangle$ is a continuous functional on $C^{1}_{0}(\mathbb{R})$. Moreover,

Here it is not correct to write $D^* = -D$, since the domain of D^* is not $C_0^1(\mathbb{R})$.

2.4. Self -adjoint of densely defined operator

Let T be a densely defined operator in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ}. Then T is called self-adjoint if $T = T^*$.

Note. $T = T^*$ implies that $D_{T^*} = D_T$ and $T(x) = T^*(x)$ for all $x \in D_T$. If T is a densely defined operator in H_{Γ} which is bounded then T has a unique extension to a bounded operator in H_{Γ} . Then the domain of T as well as its adjoint T^{*}, is the whole space H_{Γ} . If T is unbounded operators, then T has an adjoint T^{*} such that $T(x) = T^*(x)$ whenever $x \in D_T \cap D_{T^*}$, but $D_{T^*} \neq D_T$ and thus T is not self-adjoint.

2.5. Symmetric Operator

We now consider a special kind of operator in Γ -Hilbert space . An operator T which is densely defined in Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ} is called symmetric if for all $x, y \in D_T$, we have

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, Ty \rangle$$
 for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

It is clear that if T is symmetric, then $\langle T(x), \gamma, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$ for every $x \in D_T$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Also, it follows that a densely defined operator T is symmetric if and only if T^{*} extends T. If T is symmetric and $D_T = H_{\Gamma}$, then T is in fact a bounded operator on H_{Γ} . This leads as follows,

Let $E = \{T(x) : x \in H_{\Gamma}, ||x||_{\gamma} \le 1\}$. Then for a fixed $y \in H_{\Gamma}$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$, we have $|\langle T(x), \gamma, y \rangle| = |\langle x, \gamma, T(y) \rangle|$ $\le ||x|| ||\gamma|| ||T(y)||$ $\le ||T(y)||$ for all $x \in H_{\Gamma}$ with $||x||, ||\gamma|| \le 1$. Also clearly every self-adjoint operator is symmetric.

Example 2.5.1. Suppose we consider an operator $A = \frac{id}{dt}$ with the domain $D_A = \{ f \in L^2([a, b]) : f' \text{ is continuous and } f(a) = f(b) = 0 \}$. Now, since for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$, we have

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle Af, \gamma, g \rangle = \int_{a}^{b} if'(t) \ \gamma \ \overline{g(t)} \ dt \\ = \int_{a}^{b} f(t) \ \gamma \ i \overline{g'(t)} \ dt \\ = \langle f, \gamma, Ag \rangle \\ \therefore \ \langle Af, \gamma, g \rangle = \langle f, \gamma, Ag \rangle \\ \text{for all } f, g \in D_{A} \ , \ \text{A is symmetric.} \end{array}$$

 $\langle Af, \gamma, g \rangle$ is a continuous functional on D_A for any function g continuously differentiable, no need to satisfying g(a) = g(b).

Consequently , $D_{A^*} \neq D_A$ and A is not self-adjoint.

2.6. Closed Operator

A linear operator $T : E_1 \to E_2$ is said to be closed when the graph $G(T) = \{\langle x, \gamma, Tx \rangle : x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ is a closed subspace of $E_1 \times E_2$ that is

$$x_n \in D_T$$
, $x_n \to x$ and $Tx_n \to y$

implies $x \in D_T$ and Tx = y.

3. Main Results

Theorem 3.1. Let A and B be densely defined operators in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ}.

- (a) If $A \subset B$, then $B^* \subset A^*$.
- (b) If D_{B^*} is dense in H_{Γ} , then $B \subset B^{**}$.

Proof. (a) Let us consider $y \in D_{B^*}$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Then as a function of x, $\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle$ is a continuous functional on D_B . Also $\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle$ is a continuous functional on D_A since $D_A \subset D_B$.

Now, Bx = Ax for $x \in D_A$, so (Ax, γ, y) is a continuous functional on D_A . This proves that $y \in D_{A^*}$. Then the equality $A^*y = B^*y$ for $y \in D_{B^*}$ follows from the uniqueness of the adjoint operator.

(b) Let $x \in D_B$. Then for every $y \in D_{B^*}$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$, we have

$$\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, B^* y \rangle$$

It can be rewrite as

$$\langle B^* y, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle y, \gamma, Bx \rangle.$$

Since D_{B^*} is dense in H_{Γ} , B^{**} exists and we have

 $\langle B^*y, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle y, \gamma, B^{**}x \rangle$ for all $y \in D_{B^*}$, $x \in D_{B^{**}}$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

Now, by the proof of (a), we can show that $D_B \subset D_{B^{**}}$ and $B(x) = B^{**}(x)$ for any $x \in D_B$. Thus $B \subset B^{**}$.

Theorem 3.2. If T is a one-to-one operator in a Γ -Hilbert space and both T and its inverse T^{-1} are densely defined, then T^* is also one-to-one and $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$.

Proof. Let $y \in D_{T^*}$. Then for every $x \in D_{T^{-1}}$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$, we have $T^{-1}x \in D_T$ and hence

This follows that $T^*y \in D_{(T^{-1})^*}$.

And also,

$$(T^{-1})^* T^* y = (T T^{-1})^* y = y$$
(3.1)

Now we take an arbitrary $y \in D_{(T^{-1})^*}$. Then for each $x \in D_T$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$, we have

 $Tx \in D_{T^{-1}}$.

Hence

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, (T^{-1})^* y \rangle = \langle T^{-1}Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$$
(3.2)

This shows that $(T^{-1})^* y \in D_{T^*}$. And $T^*(T^{-1})^* y = (T^{-1}T)^* y = y$. Now, from (3.1) and (3.2) it follows that $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$.

Theorem 3.3. If A, B and AB are densely defined operators in H_{Γ} , then $B^* A^* = (AB)^*$.

Proof. Let $x \in D_{AB}$ and $y \in D_{B^*A^*}$. Since $x \in D_B$ and $A^*y \in D_{B^*}$, it follows that

$$\langle Bx, \gamma, A^*y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, B^*A^*y \rangle$$
 for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

On the other side, since $Bx \in D_A$ and $y \in D_{A^*}$, we have

 $\langle ABx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle Bx, \gamma, A^*y \rangle$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

Hence

$$\langle ABx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, B^*A^*y \rangle.$$

Since this holds for all $x \in D_{AB}$, we have $y \in D_{(AB)^*}$ and $(B^* A^*)y = (AB)^*y$. This implies, $B^* A^* = (AB)^*$.

Theorem 3.4. A densely defined operator T in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ} is symmetric if and only if $T = T^*$.

Proof: Let us suppose $T = T^*$. Since for all $x \in D_T$ and $y \in D_{T^*}$ we have

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, T^*y \rangle$$
 where $\gamma \in \Gamma$ (3.3)

Again we have

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, Ty \rangle$$
 for all $x, y \in D_T$ (3.4)

Thus, T is symmetric. If T is symmetric then combining (3.3) and (3.4) we can conclude $T = T^*$.

Corollary 3.5. If T is a densely defined symmetric operator, then T^{*} is the maximal symmetric extension of T.

Proof. Let S be a symmetric operator in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ} such that $T \subset S$. Then by the Theorem 3.3, we have

$$S^* \subset T^*$$

Hence, $T \subset S \subset S^* \subset T^*$.

Theorem 3.6. If T is closed and invertible, then T^{-1} is closed.

Proof. Let us suppose that graph of T that is G(T) is closed and $G(T) = \{(x, \gamma, Tx) : x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\}$. Then obviously

 $G(T^{-1}) = \{(Tx, \gamma, x) : x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\} \text{ is closed.}$

Theorem 3.7. If T is densely defined operator, then T^{*} is closed.

Proof: If $y_n \in D_{A^*}$, $y_n \to y$ and $A^*y_n \to z$, then for any $x \in D_A$ & $\gamma \in \Gamma$ we have

Hence, $y \in D_{A^*}$ and $A^*y = z$.

Note. If the given operator A is not closed then is it possible to extend A to a closed operator? Answer to that problem is to use the closure of G(A) in $H_{\Gamma} \times H_{\Gamma}$ to define an operator. If closure of G(A) defines an operator, then extension of A is closed.

Theorem 3.8. Every symmetric and densely defined operator in Γ -Hilbert space has a closed symmetric extension.

Proof. Let A be a densely defined, symmetric operator in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ} . At first, we will show that condition $x_n \in D_A$, $x_n \to 0$, as $Ax_n \to y$ which implies that y = 0, is satisfied.

Let $x_n \to 0$ and $Ax_n \to y$. Since A is symmetric then for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$ we have

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle y, \gamma, z \rangle = \lim_{n \to 0} \langle Ax_n, \gamma, z \rangle \\ = \lim_{n \to 0} \langle x_n, \gamma, Az \rangle \\ = 0, \quad \text{for any } z \in D_A \,. \end{array}$$

This implies y = 0, as D_A is dense in H_{Γ} .

Now we have that there exists a closed operator B such that G(B) = ClG(A) and hence $A \subset B$. We have to prove that B is symmetric. If $x, y \in D_B$, then there exists $x_n, y_n \in D_A$ such that

$$x_n \to x$$
 , $Ax_n \to Ax$

and

$$y_n \to y$$
 , $Bx_n \to Bx$.

Since A is a symmetric operator , we have

$$\langle Ax_n, \gamma, y_n \rangle = \langle x_n, \gamma, Ay_n \rangle$$
 for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

Then by letting $n \to \infty$, we have

$$\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, By \rangle$$

Hence B is symmetric.

Theorem 3.9. Let T be a closed densely defined operator in a Γ -Hilbert space H_{Γ}. Then

(a) For any $v, w \in H_{\Gamma}$, there exist unique $x \in D_T$ and $y \in D_{T^*}$ such that T(x) + y = v and $x - T^*(y) = w$. (b) For any $w \in H_{\Gamma}$, there exist unique $x \in D_{T^*T}$ such that $x + T^*T(x) = w$.

Proof. (a) Consider the Γ -Hilbert space $H_{\Gamma_1} = H_{\Gamma} \times H_{\Gamma}$. Since T is closed, $G(T) = \{(x, \gamma, T(x)): x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ is a closed subspace of H_{Γ_1} . Then by the projection theorem we have

$$H_{\Gamma_1} = G(T) + G(T)^{\perp_{\gamma}}$$

with

$$G(T) \cap G(T)^{\perp_{\gamma}} = \{0\}.$$

Now, $(u, y) \in G(T)^{\perp_{\gamma}}$ if and only if $\langle (x, Tx), \gamma, (u, y) \rangle = 0$ for all $x \in D_T$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$. This implies, $\langle x, \gamma, u \rangle + \langle T(x), \gamma, y \rangle = 0$. That is $(u, y) \in G(T)^{\perp_{\gamma}}$ if and only if $\langle T(x), \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, -u \rangle$ for all $x \in D_T$. In other way,

$$(u, y) \in G(T)^{\perp_{\gamma}}$$
 if and only if $y \in D_{T^*}$ and $u = -T^*(y)$.

Since $(w, v) \in H_{\Gamma} \times H_{\Gamma}$, then there exist unique $x \in D_T$ and $y \in D_{T^*}$ such that

$$(w, \gamma, v) = (x, \gamma, T(x)) + (-T^*(y), \gamma, y)$$
 for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

That is, $w = x - T^*(y)$ and v = T(x) + y.

(b) Letting v = 0 in (a), then there exist unique $x \in D_T$ and $y \in D_{T^*}$ such that T(x) + y = 0 and $x - T^*(y) = w$. Thus $x - T^*(-T(x)) = 0$ implies, $x + T^*T(x) = w$, as desired.

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